

Stimulating Online Consumer Engagement for Social Marketing Messages within Social Media Networks

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This thesis is presented for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Faculty of Business and Economics,

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Macquarie University, Sydney

10 April 2017

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THESIS ABSTRACT

Using social media as an interactive platform to communicate with and engage consumers about product and brand-related information is one of the most effective promotional strategies employed by today's successful organisations (Ashley & Tuten, 2015; Yang *et al.*, 2016). Governments, commercial organisations and NGOs working in the areas of public health and social marketing are taking advantage of the benefits social media marketing offers. Exponential diffusion across geographical borders, time and cost-effectiveness, customised messaging and effective audience targeting are among many of social media advantages (Dobele, Toleman, & Beverland, 2005; Woerndl *et al.*, 2008). Organisations that positively engage consumers online benefit from the power of consumers as independent sources co-creating value by generating electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM) and reacting to content by liking, commenting, tagging and sharing messages (Barger, Peltier & Schultz, 2016; Wolny & Mueller 2013).

Despite growing attention, few studies look into the factors driving consumers to engage in social media, especially with regards to social marketing messages promoting behaviour change. Exploring what prompts consumers to react and engage with social marketing messages is even more crucial, as social marketing offerings typically promote challenging social, behavioural and lifestyle changes, which are usually intangible, invisible and considered as unappealing or unpleasant by many consumers. To stimulate consumer

online engagement and to encourage e-WOM for social marketing messages, social marketers need to employ effective strategies by designing appealing and valuable offerings, crafting persuasive messages, and using appropriate incentives which enhance individuals' extrinsic motivations and do not come into conflict with their intrinsic motivations.

This thesis contains three papers written for publication and investigates key factors stimulating online consumer engagement for social marketing messages within social media networks. Among the marketing factors examined, the three papers focus on how different types of incentives interact with consumers' extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Based on existing literature (e.g. Dubé, Xueming & Zheng, 2017; Gneezy, Meier & Rey-Biel, 2011; Jin & Huang 2014), the current thesis argues and empirically demonstrates that offering incentives, especially monetary rewards, negatively affects consumer motivation and reduces consumer engagement. Paper 1 proposes a conceptual framework identifying product type and message content as independent factors, incentives and the online context as moderators, with consumer motivation as a mediator influencing e-WOM. Paper 2, through a series of laboratory and field experiments on Facebook, empirically examines the effects of different types of incentives (monetary and non-monetary) and message appeals (fear, informative, promotion-focused and prevention-focused) on online consumer engagement behaviour for health-related social marketing messages (smoking and alcohol consumption). Paper 3 extends the empirical research and investigates the role of individual factors such as regulatory focus, personality and involvement on both consumer engagement behaviour and intention for health messages.

Thesis results indicate that fear advertisements outperform informative advertisements and promotion-focused advertisements outperform those that are prevention-focused. With some exceptions, where incentives encourage some types of Facebook activities, overall results show that publicly offered incentives demotivate and reduce total consumer engagement behaviour for health-related social marketing messages. This research finds significant main

effects for both incentives and message appeals, as well as significant interaction effects between incentives and message appeals for almost all types of engagement (i.e. likes, comments, shares, total engagement) in the two field experiments. Taking into account individuals' personality traits, extroverts are significantly more likely to engage given a non-monetary incentive while introverts engage more offered a monetary incentive. Results suggest promotion-focus and extroversion as significant drivers of online engagement and e-WOM intention. With regards to the positive impacts of high product involvement on consumer engagement suggested in existing literature, this research shows that product type matters. Although regular smokers are significantly more likely to engage with the smoking ads, individuals who classify themselves as heavy drinkers are not more likely to engage with the alcohol ads.

By shedding light on key factors facilitating online consumer engagement, the findings enable social marketers and activists in health industries to better engage consumers, raise public awareness and promote behaviour change. This research also proposes some significant insights into the influence of individual characteristics, namely regulatory focus, personality and involvement, assisting in more effective audience segmentation, and selection, tailored messaging and thus more successful targeting.

STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

The work embodied in this thesis has not been submitted for a higher degree to any other university or institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made.

Undertaking this thesis has involved human intervention, for which I received approval from the Macquarie University Ethics Committee (Approval No. 5201500657).

Helen (Elham) Siuki (43468233)

10 April 2017

Signed

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the contribution of my supervisor in each of the studies and subsequent papers. While I am the principal author for all of the studies and papers, I have been assisted in the writing of the papers by Associate Professor Cynthia M. Webster. The contribution ratio of authors is outlined below:

Paper 1: Stimulating electronic word-of-mouth for social marketing messages on social media: A conceptual Framework

Helen Siuki (55%)

Cynthia M. Webster (45%)

Paper 2: Do incentives encourage or discourage consumer engagement behaviour on social media

Helen Siuki (70%)

Cynthia M. Webster (30%)

Paper 3: How Consumers' characteristics, personality traits and involvement affect consumer engagement behaviour and intention on social media

Helen Siuki (70%)

Cynthia M. Webster (30%)

I would like to thank Australian Government National Tobacco Campaign for providing the licence agreement for 'Quit Now' advertisement materials to be used in my PhD research.

PERSONAL ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to those who supported me throughout my PhD journey and provided me the possibility to complete this thesis.

First, and foremost, Associate Professor Cynthia M. Webster, my wonderful mentor and supervisor, words cannot describe my feelings and gratitude for all you have done for me. It has been an absolute honour and joy working with you. Your dedication, enthusiasm, and never-ending support has always been motivational for me, even during tough times. Thanks for believing in me, providing me a great platform to rise and shine. I'm really grateful for your inspirational attitudes, invaluable feedback and advice which allowed me to expand my knowledge, strengths and skills to a different level.

I would also like to thank my associate supervisor, Dr. June Buchanan, and Associate Professor Ross Gordon, Associate Professor Hume Winzar, Dr. David Gray, Associate Professor Chris Baumann and Dr. Florence Chiew for their support and valuable feedback throughout my PhD journey. My appreciation to Professor Grant Michelson, Head of Marketing and Management Department, and Professor Lorne Cummings, Associate Dean, FBE Higher Degree Research for the continuous support of PhD candidates like myself.

My dearest friend, my beloved husband, Dr. Abas Mirzaei, thank you for your unconditional love, and for your continued support and encouragement which motivated me to keep reaching for excellence.

My wonderful mum and dad thanks for your endless love and support throughout my life, I am forever indebted to you for giving me the opportunities and experiences that have made me who I am. Naghmeh and Sadaf my beautiful sisters, I am grateful for your continuous love and encouragement. Zahra, Kamyar, Narges and Mahsa my dearest friends, thank you for your support and necessary distraction from my PhD research.

CHAPTER 1:

INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction

1.1 Background to the research

1.1.1 Social media marketing

We live in an increasingly connected world where information can be disseminated virtually instantly. With the ongoing advances in internet and digital technologies, more and more companies are investing in online marketing to communicate, interact with, and engage consumers more effectively. Organisations can benefit tremendously by embracing social media marketing as a marketing and advertising strategy (Hajli, 2014). Social Media is defined as “a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of User Generated Content” (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010, p. 61). It encompasses a wide range of online tools which vary in terms of functionality and scope, and includes text (blogs and microblogging sites such as Twitter), pictures (e.g., Flickr), videos (e.g., YouTube), and networks (e.g., Facebook, LinkedIn) (Berthon, *et al.*, 2012). With over 1.7 billion total number of monthly active Facebook users (Statistic Brain, Facebook Statistics, 2016), and over 340 million active users on twitter (Statistic Brain, Twitter Statistics, 2016), the use of social media is growing.

Social media networks provide interactive platforms which enable organisations to use their own consumers as a source to produce positive electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM), and brand and product awareness and engagement. Wolny and Mueller (2013) expand the definition of e-WOM to include more recent forms of online communications in social media, such as liking, sharing, tagging, etc. They also distinguish between WOM and e-WOM with features such higher speed of information diffusion in cyberspace, larger volume of access to

the information with no geographical boundaries, as well as the nature of many-to-many communication characteristics. The potential of social media marketing reaching out a broad and diverse range of audience, both quickly and cost effectively (Dobele, Toleman, & Beverland, 2005; Helm, 2000; Woerndl *et al.*, 2008), makes it even more attractive to use. Furthermore, social media offers great benefits to marketers through supporting effective and customised audience targeting (Dobele, Toleman, & Beverland, 2005; Woerndl *et al.*, 2008). With the rapid expansion of social media applications by both consumers and businesses, there is a need for further research in this field investigating how to take advantage of the opportunities social media offers (Liang & Turban, 2011).

Applications of social media marketing are not limited to commercial companies. Organisations and NGOs working in the fields of social marketing and health promotion are also investing in viral marketing campaigns (Lim *et al.*, 2017) to address various public and social concerns from obesity (Swinburn, Gill & Kumanyika, 2005) to tobacco and alcohol abuse (Wolburg, 2006; Wechsler *et al.*, 2003) to unsafe sexual behaviours (Price, 2001) to violence (Austin *et al.*, 2009) and racism (Madill & Abele, 2007). Disease prevention and health promotion are two major topics at the centre of attention among social marketing issues on social media-related studies, with more than 200 published reports and papers since 2010 (Nickels & Dimov, 2012). Baptist *et al.*, (2011) explore asthma affected adolescents' preferences in using social media to communicate with their doctors and to receive information. Andersen, Medaglia and Henriksen (2012) investigate the social media influence on Danish healthcare in terms of capabilities, interactions, orientations, and value distribution as four major domains of IT impact on the public sector. Bull *et al.*, (2012) suggest that social media is an effective tool to deliver Sexually Transmitted Infection (STI) prevention messages, since social media is regularly used by the age group facing STIs. The results of their study show that social media can be considered as an efficient way of health education.

The distinctive nature of social marketing offerings and its unique behaviour change product characteristics warrant future research investigating effective ways to stimulate consumer engagement with social marketing messages. Social marketing typically deals with challenging behavioural and lifestyle changes many of which are intangible, invisible and may be considered by consumers as difficult, unpleasant, and unappealing. These characteristics may negatively impact consumers' willingness to engage with social marketing messages and generate e-WOM. Understanding the key drivers consumers pay attention to and how to facilitate consumer engagement with social marketing messages, assists organisations to unlock the huge potential of social media marketing in promoting health awareness and stimulating behaviour changes (Nickels & Dimov, 2012).

1.1.2 Factors influencing online consumer engagement

Consumer engagement has been at the centre of social media research in the marketing literature since 2010 (Barger, Peltier & Schultz, 2016; Dessart, 2017). The growing body of engagement research offers a variety of concepts and definitions. Hollebeek, Glynn and Brodie (2014) and Dessart, Veloutsou and Morgan-Thomas (2016) provide detailed overviews of online engagement conceptualisations. Some scholars emphasise the cognitive and affective components of engagement (Calder, Malthouse & Schaedel, 2009; Mollen & Wilson, 2010) while others consider the behavioural manifestations of engagement (Roberts & Alpert, 2010; Verhoef, Reinartz & Krafft, 2010). Brodie *et al.*, (2013) define online 'consumer engagement' as "the cognitive and affective commitment to an active relationship with the brand as personified by the website or other computer-mediated entities designed to communicate brand value". They further emphasise "the dimensions of 'sustained cognitive processing', the

individual's level of perceived 'instrumental value' (i.e. utility and relevance), and 'experiential value' (i.e. the level of emotional congruence with the narrative schema encountered in computer-mediated entities)" (Brodie *et al.*, 2013, p. 106). Van Doorn *et al.*, (2010) assert that "customer engagement behaviours go beyond transactions, and may be specifically defined as a customer's behavioural manifestations that have a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers" (p. 254). Moreover, they emphasise that consumer engagement in social media incorporates dealings with other consumers and stakeholders in addition to consumers' interactions with the company or brand. The possibility of consumer-to-consumer communications within online platforms enables and facilitates e-WOM, both positive and negative. Van Doorn *et al.*'s definition represents the continuum of behaviours which includes negative e-WOM and complaint behaviour to positive e-WOM and referral behaviour which may result in consumption reduction and nonrenewal or in an upsurge and explosion of consumption.

Following Van Doorn *et al.*, (2010), this thesis mainly focuses on consumer engagement behaviour. This thesis uses the words e-WOM and online consumer engagement behaviour interchangeably, which is supported in recent research. Wolny and Mueller's (2013) work expands the definition of e-WOM to include more current forms of online communications in social media, such as liking, commenting, sharing, and tagging. Barger, Peltier and Schultz (2016) similarly operationalise online consumer engagement as a set of measurable social media activities taken by consumers such as reacting to content by liking, commenting, and sharing.

To overcome the inherent barriers associated with social marketing messages and take advantage of social media marketing, systematic research is needed to reveal the underlying factors that facilitate and stimulate consumer engagement (Waters *et al.*, 2011). Many different factors are introduced in a vast body of research influencing consumer engagement (Barger,

Peltier & Schultz, 2016; Dobeles, Toleman, & Beverland, 2005; Hsieh, Hsieh & Tang, 2012; Hinz *et al.*, 2011; Woerndl *et al.*, 2008). The current research performs an in-depth review and divides the influencing factors into three main categories: marketing, individual, and network factors as shown in Figure 1.2. Previous research suggests the key marketing factors are product type (utilitarian versus hedonic), message appeal (positive versus negative) and type of incentives offered (monetary versus non-monetary).

This thesis focuses on the role of incentives (monetary versus non-monetary, and self-oriented versus others-oriented) and message appeals (fear versus informative, and promotion-focused versus prevention-focused) in facilitating online consumer engagement for social marketing health messages, while controlling for product type (behavioural product: smoking and heavy drinking), and online context (Facebook). There is a lack of research on consumer online engagement stimulators, especially in the context of social marketing. To date little social marketing research examines how incentives interact with consumers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to influence online engagement. While some research exists on the effectiveness of message appeals in the context of social marketing, few studies consider how different message appeals encourage e-WOM and online consumer engagement.

This thesis also investigates the ways in which individual factors play a role in stimulating consumer online engagement. Individual factors proposed in this research include: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, regulatory focus, personality, product involvement, and social media involvement. Some research shows that for instance, personality is strongly associated with social media behaviour (Acar & Polonsky, 2007; Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky 2010; Ryan & Xenos 2011; Seidman, 2013). Product involvement is another individual factor that impacts both positive and negative e-WOM (Berger, 2011; Sundaram, Mitra & Webster, 1998; Wangenheim & Bayon, 2007). Consuming a product which causes satisfaction or excitement, or even simply personal interest in a product increases positive

WOM and e-WOM (Casaló, Flavián & Guinalíu, 2008; Finn, Wang, & Frank, 2008; Sundaram, Mitra & Webster, 1998; Wangenheim & Bayon, 2007). Although many research studies consider consumers' characteristics, motivation, and behaviour within social networks (e.g. Chiu *et al.*, 2007; Niederhoffer *et al.*, 2007), fewer studies examine the influence of individual factors on e-WOM and online consumer engagement, especially for social marketing messages.

The remainder of this section briefly discusses the marketing and individual factors shown in Figure 1.2 as the main focus of the current thesis. While this thesis acknowledges network factors such as seeding strategies, structure, role and position as important factors in facilitating online consumer engagement, due to limited time and resources network factors are not examined in the main body of the thesis. Appendix I provides a detailed discussion on the ways in which network factors impact online consumer engagement. This thesis calls for future research exploring the role of network factors for consumer engagement within social media, in particular in the context of social marketing.

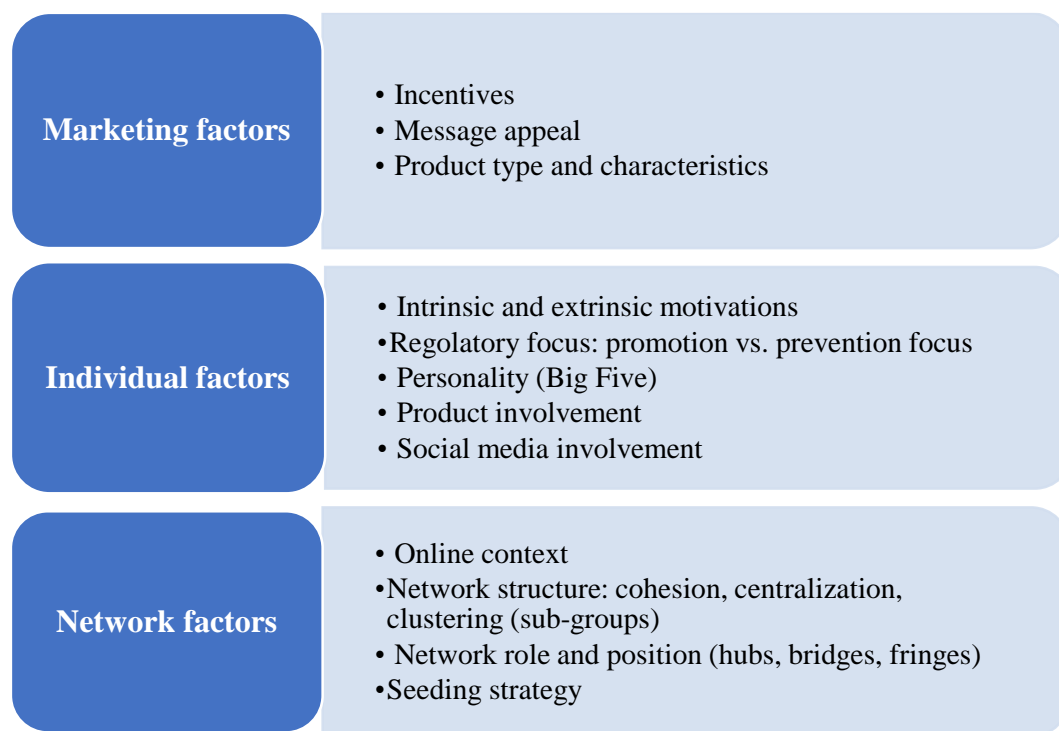


Figure 1.2: factors influencing consumer engagement

1.1.3 Marketing factors

Incentives can be discussed from different perspectives. This thesis reviews three major perspectives, namely economics, psychology, and marketing. Incentives are categorised into monetary versus non-monetary rewards in most studies. Much of the marketing research on incentives is in sales promotion (e.g. Lowe & Barnes, 2012), and indicates extrinsic incentives influence consumer behaviour, but results are contingent on a number of factors and are not consistent across studies. Incentives, both monetary and non-monetary are regularly used in marketing to engage consumers, increase awareness, sales and retain customers. Monetary incentives, such as promotional pricing, seasonal discounts, coupons and rebates, are attractive to consumers as they provide direct, economic savings to consumers (Campbell & Diamond, 1990). Non-monetary rewards, both tangible and intangible, also are widely used to encourage and engage consumers. Tangible non-monetary incentives (e.g. prizes, gifts, sweepstakes, product samples), and intangible non-monetary incentives (e.g. loyalty programs and recognition schemes) tend to be more experiential and relationship-based leading to enjoyment and enhanced status (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982).

Almost half of the brand/ product-related shared content on social media is incentivised by the companies (Ashley & Tuten 2015). Despite incentives being one of the tools extensively used by companies to engage consumers and encourage positive e-WOM (Ashley & Tuten, 2015; Ryu & Feick, 2007), not many studies specifically focus on the impact of offering incentives to encourage consumers engagement within social media networking sites especially for non-monetary rewards (e.g. Dayama, Karnik & Narahari, 2012; Hinz *et al.*, 2011; Michalski, Jankowski & Kazienko, 2012; Ryu & Feick, 2007; Schulze, Scholer & Skiera, 2014). This thesis, thus, investigates the role of different types of incentives on online consumer

engagement for social marketing health messages. In particular, the aim is to examine whether incentives encourage or discourage consumers on social media to engage in the advertisements about the negative effects of smoking and heavy drinking.

Another marketing factor that has a significant impact on consumer engagement and successful e-WOM is message appeal. Although there are many studies emphasising the role of message content and different types of appeals in marketing literature (Barger, Peltier & Schultz, 2016), there is a lack of research on what makes a viral message appealing for recipients in the context of social marketing. Message appeal is a key element in developing influential social marketing campaigns (Devin *et al.*, 2007; Michaelidou, Dibb & Ali, 2008). Negative appeals, fear appeals, and emotional appeals are extensively used in social marketing (Devin *et al.*, 2007; Brennan & Binney, 2010). Research that examines the effectiveness of fear appeals in social marketing report inconsistent results. Some studies find that the use of fear appeals is ineffective (Duke, Pickett & Grove, 1993; Hastings, Stead & Webb, 2004), while others report positive results from fear campaigns (Witte & Allen, 2000; Biener, McCallum-Keeler & Nyman, 2000). Kim (2006) suggests that ‘message frame congruency’ or ‘regulatory fit’ with an individual’s regulatory orientation (i.e. promotion versus prevention-focused) plays a significant role in message persuasiveness. Promotion-focused messages that provide promising positive facts or benefits about not engaging in the detrimental behaviour are used to convey social marketing messages to the target group(s), encouraging them to make a change. Prevention-focused appeals, in contrast, typically frame messages negatively and try to prevent people from engaging in an unhealthy behaviour by threatening them through highlighting the negative consequences. Again, research shows conflicting results on persuasiveness of promotion versus prevention-focused messages. This thesis examines the influence of different message appeals, i.e. fear versus informative and promotion-focused versus prevention-focused, on social marketing e-WOM. In particular, this thesis aims to

explore which message appeals generate more consumer engagement, under different incentive conditions offered in different studies. This thesis argues that fear appeals as an emotional appeal are more effective with regards to stimulating online consumer engagement (Berger 2014; Noble, Pomeroy & Johnson, 2014; Swani, Milne & Brown, 2013) compared to informative appeals. Furthermore, promotion-focused messages, which typically provide positive and promising information, are more likely to be shared compared to prevention-focused messages, which provide negative and threatening information.

Product type is the third marketing factor proposed in this research. A number of studies examine the effect of product features on WOM and e-WOM (Chandon, Wansink & Laurent, 2000; Schulze, Scholer & Skiera, 2014; Woerndl *et al.*, 2008). Research shows that certain product features facilitate WOM. For instance, identity relevant, unique, interesting (Berger, 2014), sustainable (Woerndl *et al.*, 2008), accessible and public visible (Berger & Schwartz, 2011) products, with a moderate level of controversy (Chen & Berger, 2013), have a higher chance of being shared. Social marketing messages are usually unique, sensitive, controversial and uncomfortable to be discussed. Social marketing messages typically deal with sensitive issues and difficult, unpleasant and unappealing behavioural and lifestyle changes such as HIV testing, cancer screening, smoking cessation and alcohol reduction. These features can both positively and negatively influence the likelihood of social transmission for social marketing messages. The uniqueness of social marketing messages, for instance, may enhance WOM, since talking about something unique gives individuals the opportunity to differentiate themselves from others and to signal that they are unique (Berger, 2014). On the other hand, the other characteristics of social marketing messages such as sensitivity and discomfort may make people feel uncomfortable to discuss the issue and thus may decrease the likelihood of WOM. This thesis focuses on the behavioural social marketing products of

smoking and alcohol, and investigates how people react and engage in social marketing messages related to these two topics within social media networks.

1.1.4 Individual factors

Motivation plays a significant role in encouraging people to get involved in a task or shape behaviour. Consumers on social media might do a particular behaviour driven by intrinsic or extrinsic reasons. Many scholars in a vast body of research suggest a range of intrinsic and extrinsic motives influencing consumer behaviour (e.g. Arnold & Reynolds 2003; Berger 2014; Berger & Milkman, 2012; Cui *et al.*, 2014; Lu & Su, 2009; Shang, Chen & Shen, 2005; Smith, Fischer & Yongjian, 2012). The needs of exploration, novelty seeking, and engaging with fun and interesting activities for the purpose of solely entertainment and enjoyment are some instances of intrinsic motivations driving people (Lu & Su, 2009; Shang, Chen & Shen, 2005). People who are seeking out novel information for instance are driven by some intrinsic motivation to fulfil their self-preservation, and problem-solving needs (Hirschman, 1980; Mazursky, Labarbera, & Aiello, 1987). Reciprocity, social approval, and social integration are examples of extrinsic social bonding motivation, while image, self-image, and self-promotion are examples of extrinsic image motivation. People share stories, intimacies and information in part to strengthen their relationships with others in their social network, but at times also to signal their identity, who they are and what they value (Larivière *et al.*, 2013; Wojnicki & Godes, 2012) as well as to enhance their status (Berger & Milkman, 2012; Berger & Schwartz, 2011; De Angelis *et al.*, 2012; Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004). Consumer motivation is crucial for understanding online consumer engagement in the context of social marketing. This thesis,

therefore, highlights and investigates key factors influencing consumers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivations to engage in social marketing messages within social media networks.

Regulatory focus is one of the individual factors discussed in this thesis that affects consumers' social behavior and decision making process based on their motivational orientation (Motyka *et al.*, 2014). Regulatory focus theory is a motivation theory grounded on the 'self-regulation' fundamentals, which can be either promotion-focused (approach-oriented) or prevention-focused (avoidance-oriented) system (Higgins, 1997; Higgins, 1998; Motyka *et al.*, 2014; Stekelenburg, 2006). Solem and Pedersen (2016) find regulatory fit as a crucial determinant of social media consumer engagement, and examine the way in which regulatory fit portrays different dimensions of engagement—i.e. emotional, cognitive, consumer engagement intention, and WOM intention. People are more likely to react to information that is consistent with their regulatory goals, they also experience more positive feelings when they adopt a strategy that fits their regulatory focus (Aaker & Lee, 2006; Avnet & Higgins, 2006). Motyka *et al.*, (2014) call for additional research on the effects of regulatory focus on engagement, believing that different dimensions of engagement such as intentional and behavioural engagement are not impacted equally by regulatory fit. In response to this, this thesis investigates whether, and the ways in which promotion versus prevention-focused individuals engage and react differently towards social marketing health messages.

Personality is another individual factor proposed in this thesis that impacts the way people behave online. The association between individuals' personality and their social media behavior is investigated in many studies (Acar & Polonsky, 2007; Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky 2010; Marbach, Lages & Nunan, 2016; Ross *et al.*, 2009; Ryan & Xenos 2011; Seidman, 2013). Seidman (2013), for instance, employs the Big Five personality traits of extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and openness (McCrae & Costa (1997) to examine whether people with different personality traits use Facebook differently

and shows that extraverts use Facebook more regularly compared to others. Although some research studies examine the impact of personality traits on social media use in general, there is lack of research on the influence of personality traits for generating e-WOM. This thesis, thus, considers personality traits as an independent variable and investigates whether people with different personality scores engage and react differently to health messages about the negative effects of smoking and heavy drinking. More specifically, this thesis aims to explore whether consumers' personality characteristics is a determinant of their online behaviours and attitudes towards social marketing messages.

Product involvement is described as the consumer's perceived level of personal relevance in a product. The level of product involvement is highly related to both the importance of the product in one's life and to an individual's self-concept (Dichter, 1966). Product involvement — knowledge, experience and familiarity with the product – can lead to strong feelings stimulating discussion and generating both positive and negative WOM (Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004). Product use and satisfaction or excitement caused from product consumption and ownership, or even simply personal interest in a product, can lead to positive WOM or e-WOM by consumers (Berger, 2011; Casaló, Flavián & Guinalú, 2008; Finn, Wang & Frank, 2008; Sundaram, Mitra & Webster, 1998; Wangenheim & Bayon, 2007). This thesis, therefore, introduces product involvement as another individual factor that may have an influence over consumers' engagement and behaviour in online platforms leading to message diffusion. Still unknown is whether product involvement in social marketing reinforces or weakens consumers' motivation to engage in social marketing messages. This thesis examines whether consumers' product involvement in health issues related to smoking and heavy drinking has a positive or negative effect towards consumers engaging online.

Social media involvement is measured by factors such as duration, frequency and amount of use by consumers online, and also by top activities and topics engaged (Chu & Kim,

2011). Consumers' level of involvement and activity on social media affect information propagation through social networks (Mishori *et al.*, 2014). This thesis investigates whether the social media involvement factors of frequency of using Facebook and time spent on Facebook influence engagement behavior and intention. This thesis calls for further research examining the effects of consumers' social media usage and preferences in spreading information throughout the social network.

1.2 Research aims and objectives

This thesis investigates the use of incentives, message appeals and other contributing factors to online consumer engagement within social media networks, with a focus on social marketing health messages. In doing so, the research goals and questions are set as follows:

1. To propose a conceptual framework identifying key influential factors that stimulate e-WOM for social marketing messages within social media networks.
 - 1.1 What are some of the key marketing, individual and network factors that impact online consumer engagement?
2. To investigate the role of incentives in facilitating online consumer engagement and the spread of social marketing messages within social media networks.
 - 2.1 To what extent are incentives (e.g. monetary versus non-monetary, self-oriented versus other-oriented) effective in engaging consumers in e-WOM on social media?
 - 2.2 Do different types of incentives encourage or diminish consumers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to engage in e-WOM for social marketing messages?
3. To determine which types of message appeals are more effective in encouraging online consumer engagement for social marketing messages within social media networks.
 - 3.1 To what extent are fear versus informative and promotion-focused versus prevention-focused appeals effective in encouraging consumers to engage in e-WOM for social marketing messages?

- 3.2 Do different types of message appeals encourage or diminish consumers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for social marketing e-WOM?
- 4. To examine the extent to which individual factors influence online consumer engagement for social marketing messages within social media networks.
- 4.1 To what extent do individuals' regulatory focus, personality traits, product involvement and social media involvement influence their online engagement in social marketing health messages?

1.3 Thesis outline

Table 1.1 presents an overview of the thesis framework, and the content discussed in in each section of the thesis. The current thesis includes five chapters. Chapter 1 (introduction) discusses background research, as well as provides research aims and questions, thesis outline and significance of the research. Chapters 2, 3 and 4 discuss paper 1, and paper 2 and paper 3 respectively. Paper 1 proposes a conceptual framework of potential factors influencing e-WOM for social marketing messages within social media. Paper 2 examines the effects of incentives and message appeals through a series of laboratory and field experiments on Facebook. Paper 3 investigates how individual characteristics, personality and involvement affect consumers' behaviour and their reaction to social marketing messages within social media. Chapter 5 concludes the thesis with a summary of the findings for each paper and provides practical managerial implications, research limitations, and suggests a few research directions for further studies.

To study social marketing e-WOM, first, we need to determine possible influencing factors on the process of message diffusion. This thesis specifically focuses on social health messages to discover the contributing factors that facilitate the possibility of message diffusion among individuals. In this thesis the factors influencing message diffusion are categorised into three major factors, namely marketing factors, individual factors, and network factors. Among marketing factors, the role of incentives and message appeals are studied in this thesis. Since these two factors are typically in control of firms, therefore it is crucial for marketers to understand the ways in which they can use them more effectively. This thesis examines the extent to which different types of incentives and different message appeals contribute to the message diffusion process, by stimulating network members to pass-along the message to their network neighbours. Moreover, the thesis examines the impact of individuals' characteristics, personality, product involvement and social media involvement, as aspects of individual factors, on network members' engagement behaviour and intention.

Paper 1 develops a conceptual framework of influencing factors on social marketing e-WOM within social media networks. Paper 1 draws on research in marketing, psychology and economics to develop a conceptual framework bringing together the fast growing body of research in the area. Paper 1 focuses on online message transmission rather than message generation and uses the terms e-WOM, online message diffusion and consumer engagement interchangeably. The aim of paper 1 is to contribute to the effectiveness of social marketing campaigns by clarifying the role of incentives on consumers' intrinsic motivation to engage in e-WOM. The paper begins by discussing different types of monetary and non-monetary rewards, and the interaction between incentives and individuals' internal motives. The paper then highlights the importance of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and message appeal for promoting social marketing messages. From this base, the paper outlines factors that influence

online message diffusion and proposes a framework for investigating online social marketing message diffusion with several propositions for future research.

Paper 2 examines the way in which incentives and message appeals influence consumer engagement behaviour on social media for health messages. Paper 2 includes three experimental studies, manipulating different incentives, as well as different message appeals, while controlling for product type in the form of a health behaviour and the online context of Facebook (See Table 1.1 for further details). Study 1 in paper 2 uses volunteer university student participants in a laboratory experiment on Facebook, with four incentive conditions (i.e., monetary, non-monetary tangible and non-monetary intangible and no incentive) and two message appeal conditions (fear versus informative). Study 2 is a field experiment with volunteers from the general public on Facebook aged 18 years and older. Study 2 is a 3 x 2 experimental design manipulating three incentives. The self-oriented incentive is a chance of winning \$50, the other-oriented incentive is contributing towards social good, and the control no incentive condition. The two message appeals are fear versus informative. To replicate study 2 with new stimuli, study 3 uses the same incentive conditions, but with promotion-focused versus prevention-focused message appeals.

Paper 3 incorporates two studies to investigate the impact of individual factors on consumers engagement behaviour and intention (See Table 1.1). Study 1 of paper 3 is an online Facebook experiment (as explained in paper 2), followed by an online survey and looks at the individual factors of personality, and social media involvement. Study 2 is an online survey and examines the individual factors of regulatory focus, personality, product involvement and social media involvement on different dimensions of engagement, namely intentional, emotional, cognitive, and WOM intention (Solem & Pedersen, 2016). The thesis concludes by providing an overall discussion, managerial implications and recommendations for future research.

Table 1.1: Framework of Thesis

Chapter 1 Introduction: background to the research, research aims and questions, thesis outline and significance of the research			
Chapter 2 Paper 1: Conceptual Framework Proposed for Social Marketing e-WOM			
Chapter 3 Paper 2: Do Incentives Encourage or Discourage Consumer Engagement Behaviour on Social Media			
Study 1: (pilot study) 4 x 2 laboratory experiment	Four Incentive conditions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Monetary: chance of winning a \$50 gift card- Non-monetary (Tangible): a chance of winning two movie tickets- Non-monetary (In-tangible): a chance of being featured on wall-of-fame- No incentive (control)	Laboratory condition on Facebook Sample size: 294 Postgraduate and undergraduate students
	Two message appeal conditions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Fear smoking ad- Informative smoking ad	
Study 2: 3 x 2 field experiment	Three incentive conditions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Self-oriented: chance of winning a \$50 gift card- Others-oriented: contributing towards the social good- No incentive (control)	Ads advertised through Facebook advertising as sponsored posts People aged 18+ living in Australia, US, UK, New Zealand
	Two message appeal conditions (two product types: smoking, alcohol)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Fear smoking ad & Fear Alcohol ad- Informative smoking ad & Informative Alcohol ad	
Study 3: 3 x 2 field experiment	Three incentive conditions	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Self-oriented: chance of winning a \$50 gift card- Others-oriented: contributing towards the social good- No incentive (control)	Ads advertised through Facebook advertising as sponsored posts People aged 18+ living in Australia, US, UK, New Zealand
	Two message appeal conditions product type: smoking	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- Promotion-focused message (two versions)- Prevention-focused message (two versions)	
Chapter 4 Paper 3: How Consumers' Characteristics, Personality Traits and Involvement Affect Consumer Engagement Behaviour and Intention on Social Media			
Study 1: Online survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Personality traits (Big five)• Social media involvement (time spent, frequency of use, number of connections)		Sample size: 294 Postgraduate and undergraduate students
Study 2: Online survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Personality traits (Big five)• Regulatory focus: Promotion versus Prevention-focused• Product Involvement (i.e. smoking, alcohol)• Social media involvement (time spent, frequency of use, number of connections)		140 participants from a panel data; Findparticipants.com
Chapter 5 Thesis Conclusion, Recommendations, Future Research			

1.4 Significance of the research

The purpose of this thesis is to undertake a comprehensive, multi-facet and in-depth review, investigation and analysis in the field of online consumer engagement within social media networks. Social media marketing is regarded as an effective promotional channel, but its use requires successful diffusion (reach, speed, emotion, etc.). This thesis provides a significant contribution to the existing e-WOM literature by investigating the possible influencing factors that stimulate online consumer engagement for social marketing health messages. The current thesis sheds light on the ways in which social marketers can better communicate with, and engage the consumers within social media networks. To the best of my knowledge, this thesis is the first research that proposes a theoretical framework of potential factors impacting online consumer engagement in the context of social marketing. “Social marketing” is defined by different scholars over the years. One of the early definitions of social marketing is provided by Kotler and Zaltman (1971) as: “social marketing is the design, implementation, and control of programmes calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product, planning, pricing, communication, distribution, and marketing research.” (p. 5). One of the more comprehensive and widely cited definitions of social marketing provided by Andreasen (1994, p. 110) as cited in Lowe, Lynch and Lowe (2015, p.381), places behaviour change at its core: social marketing is “...the adaptation of commercial marketing technologies to programs designed to influence the voluntary behaviour of target audiences in order to improve their personal welfare and that of the society of which they are a part”.

Furthermore, this thesis is the first study which empirically examines the factors encouraging social marketing e-WOM through a series of both laboratory and field

experiments. A main focus of the thesis is on investigating the role of incentives in the context of e-WOM particularly for social marketing messages. We are interested to find out whether offering different types of monetary or non-monetary incentives, encourage or discourage consumers to generate e-WOM for health messages. If offering incentives produces negative outcomes for consumers, there is no benefit—especially since incentives put financial costs on companies. Financial costs are even more important for organisations working in the areas of social marketing and public health as these organisations typically have tight and limited budgets available.

This thesis also explores the effects of different message appeals on consumer engagement within social media. This research examines the effectiveness of fear appeal, as an overused message appeal employed in developing social marketing, health promotion, and disease prevention campaigns. Furthermore, this thesis investigates the influence of a positively framed i.e. promotion-focused versus a negatively framed i.e. prevention-focused appeal on generating consumer engagement behaviour for health messages. The findings of this research enable marketers / social marketers to craft more persuasive and appealing online messages in order to better engage consumers and to encourage positive e-WOM.

Understanding the impacts of individuals' characteristics i.e. regulatory focus, personality, and involvement assists social marketers in segmentation and audience selection and tailored and customized targeting. This thesis is the first research which explores whether, and the way in which aforementioned individual factors play a role in stimulating both consumer engagement behaviour and intention for health messages. The findings of this thesis enable managers, practitioners and activists in health industry to apply more effective strategies in setting up successful social media campaigns. The research also assists governments and international aid organizations to conduct social marketing campaigns to raise public awareness

and promote behaviour changes, by providing insights into the possible influencing factors which encourage and engage consumers more effectively.

1.5 References

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CHAPTER 2: PAPER I

The first paper in the thesis **Stimulating electronic word-of-mouth for social marketing messages on social media: A conceptual Framework**, is an investigation on the factors that influence electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM) for social marketing messages. The aim is to synthesis pervious research to develop a conceptual framework for social marketing e-WOM. This paper encourages further research on social marketing e-WOM and proposes some directions for future research. Paper I purpose is to assist social marketers in generating successful e-WOM for health-related messages.

Stimulating electronic word-of-mouth for social marketing messages on social media: A conceptual Framework evolved from a paper presented at World Social Marketing Conference 2015, authored by Helen Siuki, Associate Professor Cynthia M. Webster and Dr. June Buchanan (the conference paper is included in appendix A). Paper I contribution ratio outlined in acknowledgments on page 5.

**Stimulating electronic word-of-mouth
for social marketing messages on social media:
A conceptual Framework**

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Abstract

Purpose – This study investigates key factors that influence electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM) for social marketing messages within social media networks. While e-WOM involves both senders and receivers, we focus on the factors that motivate the senders of e-WOM and consider the role of incentives for online message diffusion. Synthesising previous research, we propose a conceptual framework to encourage further research and to assist social marketers in generating e-WOM for social, health and environmental messages.

Design/methodology/approach – A review of current literature in the fields of economics, information systems, sociology, communication, management and marketing identifies the main independent, mediating and moderating factors that influence online message diffusion. We elaborate on different types of incentives, distinguishing monetary versus non-monetary and self-oriented versus other-oriented external rewards, and discuss how these incentives affect consumers' motivations to spread e-WOM.

Findings – Our framework proposes product type and message content as independent factors influencing the likelihood of e-WOM. Consumer motivation is the key mediator with marketing incentives and the online context as important moderators. We highlight the challenging product characteristics for social marketing and argue that in some situations offering monetary incentives may have a demotivating, “crowding out” effect on individuals' intrinsic motivations.

Practical implications – An understanding of what motivates consumers to generate e-WOM, allows social marketers to offer appropriate incentives and develop more effective and appealing behaviour change products and messages to better influence and engage priority consumer groups.

Originality/value – This conceptual work contributes to the extant literature by identifying the different types of incentives that stimulate e-WOM for social marketing messages within social media networks. Moreover, we also emphasise the importance of consumer motivation and suggest that publicly offering self-oriented monetary incentives may weaken consumers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to spread e-WOM.

Keywords – Social Media Networks, e-WOM, Incentives, Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation

Paper type Conceptual paper

2.1 Introduction

More and more organisations are utilising mobile and online communication platforms to engage consumers and encourage electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM). With e-WOM consumers willingly use their own promotional tactics and become active participants in the co-creation and dissemination of product and brand messages throughout their online social networks (Hanson & Kalyanam, 2006; Thackery *et al.*, 2008). Stimulating e-WOM is arguably more challenging for social marketing as social marketing messages mainly promote difficult lifestyle changes, and sometimes sensitive topics that can be confronting, embarrassing and uncomfortable for many consumers. Even outgoing, conscientious, confident individuals may not be willing to share social marketing messages with their online networks.

Typical strategies to incite e-WOM, such as the use of fear, humour and sex, may be less effective for social marketing messages as these approaches may be interpreted as insensitive and inappropriate (Brennan & Binney, 2010; McKay-Nesbitt & Yoon, 2015). One aspect of the marketing mix in need of further research is the role of incentives. Even though prior research demonstrates that external rewards play a significant role in shaping behaviour, few studies examine the impact of incentives on e-WOM within different online contexts and those that do report mixed results (Michalski, Jankowski & Kazienko, 2012; Schulze, Scholer & Skiera, 2014; Wirtz & Chew, 2002). Moreover, little research considers how different types of incentives affect consumers' intrinsic motivation to spread e-WOM (Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004).

The aim here is to bring together research on the factors and mechanisms influencing e-WOM for social marketing messages within social media networks. Synthesising previous research in economics, information systems, sociology, communication, management and

marketing, we propose a conceptual framework and highlight research opportunities and challenges. We argue consumer motivation is even more imperative for social marketing messages as these messages deal with challenging product offerings (i.e. social and behavioural changes), many of which are intangible, invisible and considered unpleasant and difficult. As such, it is vital for social marketers to employ appropriate strategies that deliver value and engage consumers, not only by offering attractive product benefits and creating persuasive messages but also by carefully selecting appropriate incentives that enhance individuals' extrinsic motivations and do not interfere with their intrinsic motivations to spread e-WOM.

While e-WOM involves both senders and receivers, we mainly focus on the factors that motivate senders and use the terms *e-WOM*, *online message diffusion* and *social transmission* interchangeably. The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. First, we present the conceptual model and begin by discussing what motivates consumers to share their thoughts, feelings and experiences. We then look into the critical aspects of the marketing mix influencing e-WOM and elaborate on the role of incentives. We note the distinctive features of online contexts and include specific research propositions to encourage further work in the area and assist social marketers in generating e-WOM for social, health and environmental messages.

2.2 Proposed conceptual model of social marketing e-WOM

The conceptual model in Figure 2.1 identifies product type and message content as key independent factors influencing the likelihood of e-WOM for social marketing messages. This model features consumer motivation as the central mediating factor, with incentives and the

online context as significant moderators. We focus on external rewards as marketing incentives and discuss the impact of different types of incentives on consumers' intrinsic and extrinsic motivations to spread e-WOM in the section on marketing factors. The following sections discuss each of these factors beginning with research on consumer motivation.

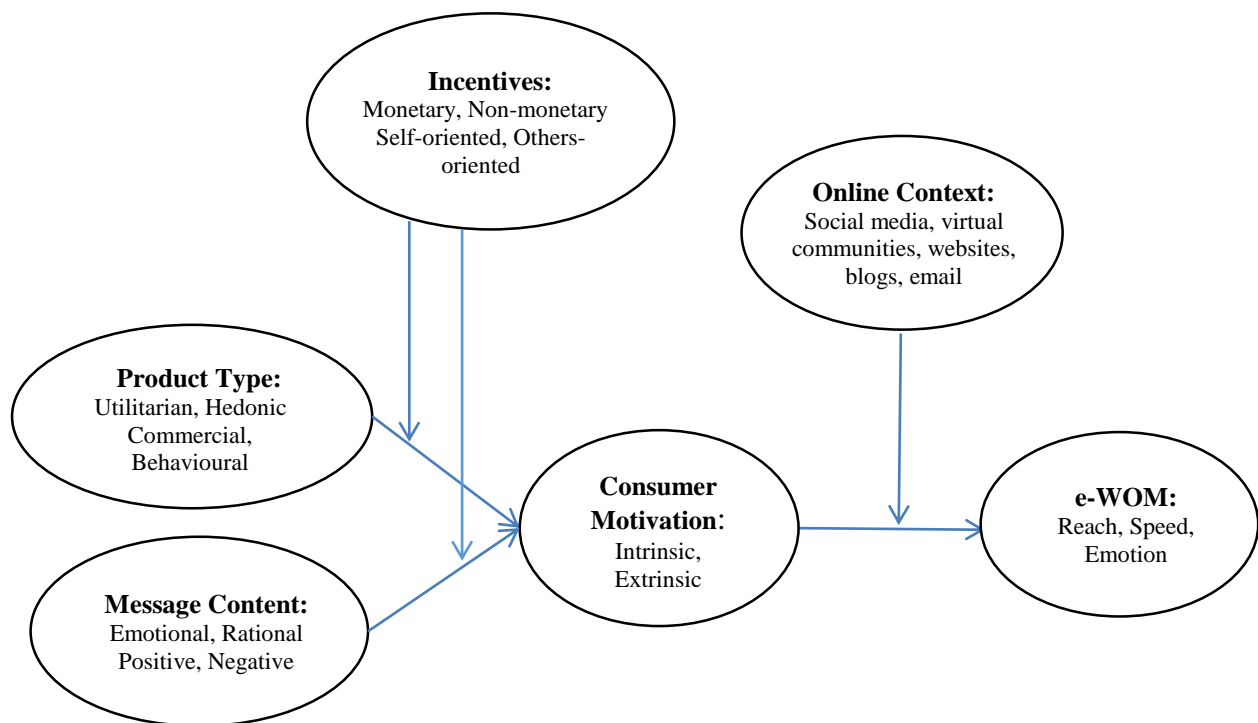


Figure 2.1: Framework for Social Marketing Message Diffusion within Social Media Networks

2.3 Consumer extrinsic and intrinsic motivations for sharing e-WOM

Consumers share their opinions and experiences about product and brand-related information online and in person for both extrinsic and intrinsic reasons. Extrinsically motivated consumers engage in online conversations and social transmission to gain some type of external reward or internal benefit either for themselves or for others. Intrinsically motivated consumers share e-WOM because they value the activity and find the act of sharing itself inherently satisfying.

Much of the research suggests extrinsic motivation to share WOM is goal-oriented for self-serving purposes. Consumers share messages about brands they like to signal their identity, develop social relationships and influence others (Chung & Darke, 2006; Wolny & Mueller, 2013). They spread entertaining, useful, or unique information in order to look good and enhance their status by showing how cool, smart and special they are (Berger, 2014). While much of the motivation research focuses on extrinsic self-interested drives, researchers also recognise that individuals at times are motivated for more pro-social reasons (Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004; Ruskin, Seymour & Webster, 2016). People share helpful information to assist others in need, fight for social justice, give emotional support and encourage positive social and behaviour change. Studies consistently identify altruism as a basic other-oriented motive for online content sharing (King, Racherla & Bush, 2014; Lee, Kim & Kim, 2011) and research finds individuals who are more altruistic have a higher propensity to spread e-WOM (Ho & Dempsey, 2010).

Not all e-WOM is extrinsically motivated. Consumers also engage in e-WOM because at times sharing content is intrinsically satisfying and enjoyable. They share amusing experiences, videos and images largely because it's fun, not necessarily to achieve some extrinsic purpose like increased status. People comment on negative service experiences and

disappointed expectations, in part, to influence others but also because it feels good to vent their frustrations. Intrinsic motivation comes from within an individual and drives behaviour for internal personal satisfaction, enjoyment, adventure and fulfilment (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Many online activities are reinforcing in-and-of themselves, such as opportunities to have fun, explore, learn and achieve one's potential (Demangeot & Broderick, 2010). Consumers engage in these intrinsically rewarding activities for the positive emotional benefits, not to gain some type of external prize, money or acclaim (Waterman, 2005).

Research suggests that consumers are motivated to spread e-WOM if sharing is intrinsically satisfying and helps achieve some type of extrinsic benefit that is either self-serving or oriented towards assisting others. The issue for social marketers is to determine the key marketing factors that best encourage social marketing message diffusion. We now consider the unique aspects of marketing mix for social marketing offerings.

2.4 Key marketing factors for e-WOM

Research consistently identifies incentives, product type, message content, and the online context as four critical marketing factors influencing e-WOM (Malthouse *et al.*, 2016; Marbach, Lages & Nunan 2016; Solem & Pedersen 2016). In this paper we discuss all four but draw attention to the role of incentives for two reasons. Offering incentives to consumers is common practice in marketing, yet there is relatively little research on how different types of incentives influence consumer motivation to engage in e-WOM. Moreover, research indicates the relationship between incentives and motivation is complex with external rewards potentially having a detrimental *crowding out* effect (Gneezy, Meier & Rey-Biel, 2011) and thus reducing e-WOM likelihood (Jin & Huang, 2014).

2.4.1 Types of incentives and the “crowding out effect”

Marketers basically use two types of incentives: monetary and non-monetary. Monetary incentives, such as promotional pricing, seasonal discounts, coupons and rebates, are attractive to consumers as they provide direct, economic savings (Campbell & Diamond, 1990; So, Wong & Sculli, 2005). Non-monetary incentives, such as promotional giveaways, prizes, gifts, recognition schemes and loyalty programs, tend to be more experiential and relationship-based leading to consumer enjoyment and enhanced status (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982; Sharp & Sharp, 1997). To stimulate e-WOM, both monetary and non-monetary incentives can be offered to benefit the sender, the receiver, both the sender and the receiver or a third party like a charity.

Established research on incentives in the fields of economics, psychology and marketing indicates monetary and non-monetary incentives are effective but contingent upon a number of factors. Monetary incentives work best as a short-term strategy for activities that are routine, dull and involve little social risk (Pink, 2011). For example, Hennig-Thurau *et al.*'s (2004) incentivised internet survey of over 2000 consumers and Hinz *et al.*'s (2011) 19 day online information sharing experiment both show monetary incentives significantly increase e-WOM. Monetary incentives are thought to be effective in these situations as they resemble low risk, transient business transactions compensating individuals for their efforts.

Monetary incentives tend to be less effective for activities that are intrinsically interesting or fun. Paying people is unnecessary as performing the behaviour in itself is rewarding. In fact, research shows that rewarding people for participating in interesting activities actually diminishes their intrinsic motivation to engage in the activity (Deci, Koestner & Ryan, 1999; Osterloh & Fery, 2000). This *crowding out* effect can occur for several reasons. Interpretations based on attributional theories suggest that people tend to attribute their

behaviour to the monetary reward and thus discount their natural interest in the activity with this “overjustification” undermining their intrinsic motivation (Lepper, Greene & Nisbett, 1973). Cognitive evaluation theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) asserts that tangible rewards given to stimulate engagement or contingent upon task performance or completion are experienced as controlling which undermines people’s intrinsic need for autonomy.

The crowding out effect of monetary incentives also occurs for publicly visible prosocial behaviours that contribute to the common good such as donating blood, recycling and volunteering (Gneezy, Meier & Rey-Biel, 2011). Engaging in such activities can involve both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. People may intrinsically enjoy contributing to the social good but also may extrinsically want to comply with social norms and make a good impression. Research shows offering monetary incentives to encourage prosocial behaviour can backfire, especially if the payment is made public (Ariely, Bracha & Meier, 2009). For example, paying volunteers to collect charitable donations or parents to pick up their children from day care on-time violates norms of altruism and reciprocity which creates uncertainties as to the motivations behind the behaviours (Gneezy & Rustichini, 2000a; Gneezy & Rustichini, 2000b). The payment dilutes the voluntary normative gesture increasing the risk of appearing selfish and greedy. Offering the cash reward crowds out intrinsic and extrinsic motivations by reframing the prosocial behaviour as a monetary transaction making it unclear whether the individual is engaging in the activity because it is the right thing to do or to look good to others (Gneezy, Meier & Rey-Biel, 2011, p. 11).

In contrast to monetary incentives, research shows non-monetary incentives can work to stimulate behaviour by reinforcing intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In the context of sales promotion, existing research claims that individuals typically react more positively to non-monetary rewards (e.g. extra free promotions) compared to monetary incentives (e.g. price discounts) since a non-monetary incentive is framed as a separate extra gain rather than

lowering a loss (Lowe & Barnes, 2012). In multiple experiments Jin and Huang (2014) find that tangible non-monetary incentives, such as movie tickets and a wine glass, are more effective in stimulating WOM recommendations compared to monetary incentives, especially when the recommendation is unjustified thus putting the sender's reputation at risk. They argue that non-monetary rewards decrease the risk of consumers appearing selfish and greedy and in turn increase the likelihood of WOM. Berger and Schwartz (2011) in a study of consumers' offline conversations report no effect for monetary incentives such as coupons and rebates but significant increases in WOM for non-monetary incentives such as product giveaways and extras. They reason that tangible non-monetary rewards allow consumers to extend their relationship with the product or brand by deepening their knowledge and experiences. Research examining prosocial behaviours also shows positive effects for non-monetary incentives. For example, field studies on blood donation show that offering in-kind rewards such as lottery tickets, vouchers and T-shirts can increase consumers intent to donate because these types of incentives indicate more of a social, gift-giving relationship rather than self-interest (Goette, Stutzer & Frey, 2010; Lacetera & Macis, 2010).

Research shows that offering a combination of monetary and non-monetary incentives, (mixed incentive bundle), to both senders and receivers shares the benefits and changes actions from being perceived as purely self-serving to more altruistic (Verlegh *et al.*, 2013). Mellström & Johannesson (2008) examine self-oriented and other-oriented incentives benefitting third parties with regards to blood donation. Their results indicate that offering a cash incentive bundled with a charitable donation option mitigates the crowding out effect but does not lead to greater donations. Dubé, Luo & Fang (2017) in two cause-related marketing field experiments show that bundling a company's charitable donations with the purchase of price discounted movie tickets crowds out consumers' altruistic behaviours. Small discounts increase purchases but large and even moderate discounts reduce purchase and consumers'

reports of feeling good about themselves. Giebelhausen *et al.* (2016) use the term “mixed incentive bundle” (inspired by Liu *et al.* 2015) to represent the situation in which firms offer a package containing more than one reward option (e.g. both self-benefiting and other benefiting options). They believe that the effectiveness of mixed incentive bundles needs to be studied as it is often the case that many companies offer a combination of different types of rewards simultaneously. Giebelhausen *et al.*, (2016) examine monetary and non-monetary incentives on participation in green programs and find that offering non-monetary rewards to benefit a third party (i.e., free lunch bags to the homeless) increases participants’ satisfaction in the program. They also find that offering a mixed monetary incentive bundle that gives participants a choice of benefitting themselves or a third party (i.e., a \$25 retail gift card for themselves or a \$25 donation to a charity) generates the best result as this allows for both self-interest and altruistic options.

To summarise Table 2.1 provides selected research indicating the impact of monetary and non-monetary incentives on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation under different situations. The research clearly shows that different types of incentives moderate consumer motivation. Monetary incentives tend to diminish both intrinsic motivation and extrinsic image motivation whereas tangible non-monetary incentives may enhance extrinsic social bonding motivation. Moreover, these moderation effects appear to be contingent on incentive orientation (i.e., self, other or both), the context, (i.e., public or private) and the type of activity (i.e., dull/routine versus inherently interesting/fun/challenging and economic transactions versus prosocial behaviours). Spreading social marketing messages within social media networks may or may not be intrinsically interesting and self-serving, but certainly is a type of public prosocial behaviour benefitting third parties. Based on the review, we suggest the following propositions regarding the impact of monetary and non-monetary rewards:

Proposition 1: Monetary incentives crowd out consumers' intrinsic motivation and extrinsic image motivation to share e-WOM for social marketing messages.

Proposition 2: Non-monetary incentives enhance consumers' extrinsic social bonding motivation to share e-WOM for social marketing messages.

Proposition 3: Non-monetary incentives outperform monetary incentives in stimulating online message diffusion for social marketing messages.

Proposition 4: Mixed incentive bundles, providing the choice of self-oriented and third-party reward options, maximises online message diffusion for social marketing messages.

Table 2.1: Selected research on incentives, intrinsic motivation and their interaction

Publication	Context	Findings
Gneezy & Rustichini (2000b)	Education, Prosocial behaviour (i.e. collecting donations)	Monetary rewards (vs. none) decrease performance level. A higher monetary reward (vs. a lower) produces higher performance. A fixed (non-contingent on the performance) monetary reward may not result in lowering intrinsic motivation.
Charness & Gneezy (2009)	Healthy habit formation	No-incentive and low-incentive (monetary) groups' behaviour show insignificant differences, while high-incentive and low-incentive show significant differences. Offering incentives for a sufficient period of time may result in healthy habit formation.
Gneezy, Meier & Rey-Biel (2011)	Education, Prosocial behaviour, Lifestyle habits	Monetary incentives may crowd-out intrinsic motivation in both short-term and long-term. Incentives' design, type, and their interaction with intrinsic and social motivations must be taken into account--they may come into conflict with social norm, image concern and trust.
Gneezy & Rey-Biel (2014)	Survey response rate	Response rate increases with the size of monetary reward, however its effectiveness flattens out after a certain level. Even a relatively small non-contingents monetary gift may cause reciprocity in some individuals.
Godes <i>et al.</i> , (2005)	WOM (Social Interaction)	If a relatively large number of consumers naturally engage in WOM, there is no need for incentives-- its costs may outweigh its benefits. Incentivised referrals/ recommendations have a negative effect on other consumers' evaluation of these referrals.
Trusov, Bucklin & Pauwels (2009)	e-WOM referral	The effectiveness of company-stimulated e-WOM (through paying financial incentives) may be substantially less, if the nature of paid WOM is known to the referral receivers.
Schulze, Scholer & Skiera (2014)	Viral Marketing	Offering incentives for online messages that promote high-utilitarian products is ineffective (may not be harmful though), versus there is a positive effect for low-utilitarian products.
Lacetera & Macis (2010)	Prosocial activities (i.e. blood donation)	Although people who perform a pro-social action are not averse to any types of incentives, they seem unwilling to receive cash incentive. Intrinsically motivated existing donors may judge themselves as less greedy if they accept an in-kind reward e.g. coupons, T-shirts, mugs.
Giebelhausen <i>et al.</i> , (2016)	Voluntary Green Program (e.g., recycling)	Offering self-benefiting incentives have a negative effect on volunteer participants in green programs, while there is a positive effect from offering other-benefiting incentives. Offering a 'mixed incentive bundle' including both types of 'self and other-benefiting rewards is the most effective incentive structure.
Fehr & Falk, (2002)	Performance	Intrinsic motivations (e.g. social approval, reciprocity) interacts with monetary incentives to shape behaviour. Explicating extrinsic incentives may weaken approval motivation.
Ariely, Bracha & Meier (2009)	Prosocial Behaviour	Offering extrinsic incentives may crowd out 'image' motivation, which is vital for prosocial behaviour. Importance of image motivation is based on its visibility—in a private situation, extrinsic rewards may increase prosocial behaviour likelihood.
Ho & Dempsey (2010)	Forwarding online content	Inclusion, affection (altruism) and personal growth encourages e-WOM. Individualistic and altruistic people are more likely to generate e-WOM.
Shang, Chen & Shen(2005)	Online shopping	Intrinsic motivations such as enjoyment, interest are the main reason for online shopping are more effective than extrinsic incentives.
Woolly & Fishbach (2015)	Different tasks (exercising, visiting a museum and lab tasks)	Extrinsic and intrinsic incentives are essential to encourage long-term engagement. People value intrinsic incentive more during an activity (vs. before or after), however, extrinsic incentives will be valued similarly before, during and after the activity.
Hossain, Shi & Waiser (2014)	Salespeople performance	Intrinsic motivations have a crucial effect on individuals' level of effort. The structure of extrinsic incentives can influence intrinsic motivation and may result in different level of effort made by individuals.

2.4.2 Product Type: The unique nature of social marketing offerings

The unique behaviour change nature of the product in social marketing demands special attention. Many social marketing offerings require consumers to “pay” with little or no direct, tangible or immediate benefits. Individuals are asked to replace pleasurable behaviours that are fun, convenient and part of their personal and social identities with behaviours that are uncomfortable, difficult, time-consuming and typically require long-term commitment. Social marketing offerings may reduce pleasure, delay gratification, and risk social and personal relationships with the potential of receiving undesired news and outcomes. Early on Lefebvre and Flora (1998) identified the intangible nature of social marketing products as a barrier to the success of viral social marketing campaigns.

Research shows that certain types of products and certain product features are more suitable for viral marketing campaigns. Products that are publicly visible and easily accessible facilitate both immediate and ongoing WOM. People tend to talk more about everyday products and products that are top of mind because they are cued more frequently by the surrounding environment (Berger & Schwartz, 2011). Berger (2014) argues that people choose to discuss common, familiar topics everyone can relate to, such as the weather, not because they are interesting but to increase feelings of social belonging. People also share more word of mouth for symbolic, unique and high status products to signal their identity which can be for both social bonding and image motivation (Berger & Heath, 2007; Chung & Darke, 2006). As such, regular behaviours that are easily performed out in the open as part of everyday life and signal group membership or an important aspect of one’s identity should stimulate more e-WOM than infrequent behaviours performed in private. For example, mothers of young children in Australia where skin cancer is prevalent would be more likely to discuss sun safe behaviours

than bowel cancer prevention even though colorectal cancer is the second most diagnosed cancer in Australia (Cancer Council Australia, 2017).

While many social marketing campaigns use tactics to increase visibility and accessibility for distinctive and valued long-term outcomes such as physical, social and environmental health, the actual behaviour change offered typically causes some discomfort. Waste bins are clearly marked and placed in convenient locations to reduce littering, but picking up litter is dirty. Mobile units go to schools and workplaces to encourage blood donations, but giving blood takes time and can be distressing. White Ribbon Day on 25 November prompts people to come together and pledge their commitment to stop the unthinkable act of violence against women. Chen and Berger (2013) show that people are uncomfortable discussing highly controversial topics and therefore are less likely to spread messages about contentious issues due to social acceptance concerns. People are much more likely to discuss difficult topics when they can do so anonymously or with close friends who have similar views. Alcohol, for example, would be more likely to stimulate e-WOM among young adults than would smoking, as alcohol consumption in many countries is considered a social bonding experience whereas smoking is more divisive. The discussion on product type suggests the following propositions:

Proposition 5: Social marketing messages featuring accessible behaviours frequently cued by the environment encourage e-WOM.

Proposition 6: Social marketing messages showing publicly visible behaviours with tangible outcomes encourage e-WOM.

Proposition 7: Social marketing messages that include personal and social identity relevant behaviour encourage e-WOM.

Proposition 8: Social marketing messages featuring contentious behaviours that threaten social acceptance discourage online message diffusion.

2.4.3 Message Content: Framing social marketing messages

Message content is another important factor influencing online communication. Online messages are framed in various ways. Marketers, for instance, may use positive versus negative, and rational versus emotional framed messages to get people's attention. Noble, Pomeroy & Johnson (2014) classify message appeals as rational, positive emotional, and negative emotional to investigate how different message appeals influence social advertisement attractiveness. They find that overall emotional appeals are more effective than rational appeals for social marketing messages for pro-environmental issues. Another study by Alhabash *et al.*, (2013) shows that emotional content positively influences viral sharing intention for social marketing messages on cyber-bullying.

Research shows that messages with certain features are more likely to go viral. Woerndl *et al.*, (2008) demonstrate that messages containing imagination, fun and intrigue, ones with information that is easy to use and direct engagement have a greater potential to go viral. Berger and Milkman (2012) find that in general a message with positive content is more viral than messages with negative content. On the other hand, a study by Noble, Pomeroy & Johnson (2014) finds negative emotional social advertisements are more effective compared to positive emotional advertisements. Moreover, messages that evoke negative emotions such as anger and fear are more viral than ones that are sad. Furthermore, recent work by De Angelis *et al.*, (2012) show that individuals tend to post more positive messages about their own experiences but pass on the more negative experiences of others. An accessible content leading to incidental

arousal or influencing the shared content's valence is also more likely to be shared by individuals (Berger, 2014). Valence affects both viral message transmission and generation. For example, research shows that consumers generate more e-WOM on online platforms for movies that they either truly like or dislike (Dellarocas & Narayan 2006; Dellarocas, Gao & Narayan, 2010). Berger and Milkman (2012) refer to work by Brooks and Schweitzer (2011) and Heilman (1997) to explain that people are more active when in a state of excitement. Arousal remains important even when the message content is surprising, interesting, or practical.

Therefore, social marketing content needs to be framed in a way that highlights the benefit and value of the offering and encourages consumers to engage in message diffusion. Therefore, we consider the three following propositions related to the appeal of social marketing messages:

Proposition 9: Social marketing messages that include useful, unique, interesting or entertaining information encourage e-WOM.

Proposition 10: Social marketing messages with emotional, arousing content result in greater e-WOM compared to messages with rational content.

Proposition 11: Social marketing messages with positive content result in greater e-WOM compared to messages with negative content.

2.4.4 Distinctive features of online contexts

Sharing e-WOM occurs across many different types of online platforms and social media forums including microblogging sites like Twitter, social networking sites such as Facebook, content communities like Youtube and others. King, Racherla & Bush (2014) operationally define social media networks as systems in which users a) have a unique profile, b) can access digital content, c) “articulate” with people whom they have relational connections, and d) “view and traverse” their connections. These online contexts contain several unique characteristics that affect how e-WOM is generated and consumed. Some of the most distinctive features include: asynchrony, volume, dispersion, visibility, persistence, anonymity and valence (King, Racherla & Bush 2014; Berger & Iyengar, 2013). Online platforms enabling public, asynchronous written communication should result in more careful and considered e-WOM as people have time to decide which messages give a positive impression and which are consistent with their self-image (Berger, 2014).

Most studies look at email message diffusion or message sharing on Facebook, but increasingly more and more studies are comparing different formats (Smith, Fischer & Yongjian, 2012). For example, Leung, Bai & Stahura (2013) compare Facebook and Twitter and report no difference in hotel customers’ intentions to spread e-WOM. In a study on Twitter about physical activity, Zhang *et al.*, (2013) find that chatting and providing opinions or information are the most common types of tweets and suggest that people are using other channels such as Facebook to seek information and support. The current study raises the question whether social media platforms which enable permanent, publically visible, and identifiable communication encourage or discourage e-WOM and message transmission for social marketing messages. In general, research shows that social media networking sites which

enable visible interactive communications, connecting both strong and weak ties, encourage greater message sharing than other online contexts such as websites, forums, and emails. However, this might not be necessarily applicable to social marketing messages. In fact, platforms dedicated to more specialised topics and allow for anonymous, more thoughtful discussions such as websites, forums and online communities may provide a better platform for social marketing e-WOM.

Proposition 12: Online platforms with public, asynchronous written communication crowd out consumers' intrinsic motivation and extrinsic image motivation to share e-WOM for social marketing messages.

Proposition 13: Websites, forums and online communities facilitate social marketing message diffusion.

2.5 Discussion, managerial implications and future research

Much of the previous research on viral marketing focuses on sales promotion and creating brand/ product awareness (Godes & Mayzlin, 2004). Less work focuses on incentives driving people to share content, especially for social marketing messages. As work to date has considered a limited number of factors and the results are not straightforward, clearly further research examining factors stimulating social marketing e-WOM messages is needed. Given that people frequently use online platforms primarily to maintain social and business relationships, it is important to study the ways in which the influencing factors can affect

network members' online behaviour. Our review provides an overview of the factors that impact social marketing message diffusion, focusing on the role of incentives and their potential interaction with intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Considering incentives as an important factor affecting individuals' behaviour, the psychology and economic literatures suggest that extrinsic and intrinsic incentives may reinforce each other, but unintended consequences may also arise. Some studies show that introducing external rewards may actually reduce performance levels and weaken intrinsic motivation (e.g. Deci, 1971; Gneezy, Meier, & Rey-Biel, 2011; Hossain, Shi & Waiser, 2014), especially if the external reward is seen as displacing social approval and recognition (Gneezy & Rustichini, 2000a; 2000b). Therefore, in order to better understand why individuals act in a certain way, this paper suggests that the impact of intrinsic motivations on people's behaviour is vital and therefore needs to be taken into account. Crafting appealing messages and using an appropriate online platform are other factors proposed in this paper which facilitate e-WOM.

To date, few studies specifically for social marketing messages focus on the factors stimulating e-WOM. Social media marketing is regarded as an effective promotional channel, but its use requires successful diffusion (reach, speed, emotion, etc). If individuals within social networks do not engage and do not actively promote the messages in a positive light, there is no benefit. Organizations need to understand how to positively influence and engage people to react and ideally spread their messages. Effectiveness of incentives depends on factors such as incentives' size, design, and type (especially monetary vs. non-monetary), and their interaction with intrinsic motivation (Gneezy, Meier & Rey-Biel, 2011). Managers need to know how to manipulate incentive characteristics to boost satisfaction among their priority group (Giebelhausen *et al.*, 2016). There are circumstances under which incentives have a negative or neutral effect on individuals' behaviour. Research shows that incentives, product type, message appeal and individuals' personal factors matter for social transmission. Social

marketers need to understand how different types of incentives work under different circumstance. They also need to craft persuasive messages which are appealing to their priority target groups. Our propositions seek to contribute to this important, emerging field.

Since this paper concentrates on the effects of incentives on e-WOM sender, the influence of incentivised e-WOM on the message recipient needs to be investigated in future research. Verlegh *et al.*, (2013) demonstrate that providing a reward has a negative impact on the referral receiver. In an unrewarded referral, the receiver is more likely to perceive the recommendation as being genuine and unbiased, triggered by the recommender's knowledge and positive experience. Offering incentives to both referral provider and receiver may eliminate this negative effect. Moreover, the negative impact of an incentivised referral could be reduced if it is solicited by the receiver (Verlegh *et al.*, 2013). Future research should also look at the role of individual factors such as personality characteristics, regulatory focus and product involvement on social marketing online message diffusion.

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CHAPTER 3: PAPER II

The second paper in the thesis, **Do Incentives Encourage or Discourage Consumer Engagement Behaviour on Social Media**, is an investigation on the role of incentives on consumer engagement Behaviour. The aim is to identify the ways in which offering different types of incentives impacts online consumer engagement in health-related advertisements, each framed with different message appeal. This research can assist social marketers and those working in the field of public health to develop more successful social media campaigns, design more effective and persuasive messages to stimulate positive consumer engagement within social media.

Do Incentives Encourage or Discourage Consumer Engagement Behaviour on Social Media evolved from a paper presented at 2016 International Social Marketing Conference, authored by Helen Siuki, Associate Professor Cynthia M. Webster and Dr. June Buchanan (the conference paper is included in appendix B). Paper II contribution ratio outlined in acknowledgments on page 5.

**Do Incentives Encourage or Discourage
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Abstract

This paper investigates the role of incentives as an influencing factor on online consumer engagement behaviour within social media networks. We focus on social marketing messages, and examine the way in which offering incentives (monetary versus non-monetary, and self-oriented versus others-oriented) influence consumer engagement behaviour in health messages about smoking and heavy drinking. The paper reports three studies conducted on Facebook with each manipulating different incentive and message appeal conditions. Study 1, a laboratory experiment with a student sample, finds that the monetary incentive condition encourages the greatest level of total engagement, and that the fear appeal condition generates a higher level of engagement regardless of incentive condition. A repeated measures ANOVA, comparing incentives as a between-subject factor and message appeal as a within-subject factor, shows an insignificant main effect for incentives but a significant main effect for message appeal. Study 1 finds no significant interaction effect between incentives and message appeals in general. Study 2, a field experiment on Facebook, finds the incentive crowding-out effect in both self-oriented and others-oriented incentive conditions for liking the ads and total engagement. Two-way ANOVA tests reveal significant main effects for both incentive and message appeal conditions, as well as significant interaction effects between incentives and message appeals for total engagement behaviour. Study 3 is another field experiment on Facebook replicating study 2 with a new stimuli of message appeal. Study 3 finds demotivating effects of incentives on liking, commenting and sharing the ads, as well as on total engagement.

Study 3 finds no significant main effects for incentives, however, there are significant main effects for message appeal conditions, and significant interaction effects between incentives and message appeals. A key outcome of this paper is that situational factors, such as incentive type, product type and message appeal, as well as demographic factors such as age and gender, influence the effectiveness of incentives. This paper provides some evidence for the importance of social media in engaging consumers in social marketing messages and also sheds light on drivers of online consumer engagement within social media.

3.1 Introduction

Engaging consumers in product and brand messages within online social media platforms is one of the most important elements of current marketing practices for most organisations. Online platforms offer great opportunities to companies to effectively interact with and engage consumers (Hanson & Kalyanam, 2006). Positive electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM) generated by consumers on social media can significantly benefit organisations. e-WOM is defined by features such as higher speed of information diffusion in cyberspace, access to large volumes of information with no geographical boundaries and many-to-many communication characteristics, as well as both time and cost effectiveness (Dobele, Toleman, & Beverland, 2005; Woerndl *et al.*, 2008). Following Wolny and Mueller (2013), we expand the definition of e-WOM to include more recent forms of online communications in social media, such as liking, commenting, sharing and tagging, which is also referred to as online consumer engagement behaviour in other studies (e.g. Barger, Peltier & Schultz, 2016). This paper uses the terms e-WOM and online consumer engagement interchangeably.

Social marketers also take advantage of online platforms to communicate with their target audience in order to address difficult health, environmental and social issues (e.g. Bull *et al.*, 2012; Baptist *et al.*, 2011; Austin *et al.*, 2009; Madill & Abele, 2007; Wolburg, 2006; Swinburn, Gill & Kumanyika, 2005; Price, 2001). However, encouraging online consumer engagement is not easy. Marketing research suggests many factors influence consumer engagement such as *product type and characteristics* (Barger, Peltier & Schultz, 2016; Berger, 2014; Chen & Berger, 2013; Berger & Schwartz, 2011; Woerndl *et al.*, 2008), *product involvement* (Barger, Peltier & Schultz, 2016; Berger, 2011; Casaló, Flavián & Guinalú, 2008; Finn, Wang & Frank, 2008; Wangenheim & Bayon, 2007; Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004;

Sundaram, Mitra & Webster, 1998), *message content and appeal* (Barger, Peltier & Schultz, 2016; Berger & Chen, 2016; Noble, Pomeroy & Johnson, 2014; Berger, 2014; Berger & Milkman, 2012), and *incentives* (Ashley & Tuten, 2015; Hinz *et al.*, 2011; Ryu & Feick, 2007). Generating consumer engagement is even more challenging for social marketing which aims to achieve difficult lifestyle and behavioural changes such as preventing illegal drug use, encouraging smoking cessation and reducing alcohol use. Social marketing research focusing on the factors influencing online consumer engagement and e-WOM is limited. Among the suggested factors affecting e-WOM in the literature, this paper examines the role of incentives, including which incentives to offer, if any, and different types of message appeals to encourage consumer engagement. Despite the importance of these factors, little is known about the influence of incentives and message appeal in generating online consumer engagement, especially in social marketing.

Studies show that incentives can effectively stimulate people to undertake a task or change behaviour (Dayama, Karnik & Narahari, 2012; Hinz *et al.*, 2011; Ryu & Feick, 2007; Campbell & Diamond, 1990), while others argue that, under many situations, offering incentives diminishes individuals' extrinsic and intrinsic motives, resulting in a *crowding-out effect* and lower performance (Dubé, Xueming, & Zheng, 2017; Jin & Huang, 2014; Gneezy, Meier & Rey-Biel, 2011; Gneezy & Rustichini, 2000b). Marketing studies that consider the role of incentives on online engagement and e-WOM report mixed and inconsistent results (e.g. Schulze, Scholer & Skiera, 2014; Verlegh *et al.*, 2013; Michalski, Jankowski & Kazienko, 2012; Dayama, Karnik & Narahari, 2012; Hinz *et al.*, 2011; Ryu & Feick, 2007). While research in this area mainly focuses on incentives (e.g. Schulze, Scholer & Skiera, 2014; Hinz *et al.*, 2011; Michalski, Jankowski & Kazienko, 2012), the importance of people's extrinsic and intrinsic motivations and the interaction between incentives and individuals' motivations

is neglected. There is a lack of research on whether and how offering incentives reinforces or reduces people's extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, especially in the context of e-WOM.

Message appeal is another factor which has a significant impact on effectiveness, attractiveness and persuasiveness of online content (Barger, Peltier & Schultz, 2016; Berger, 2014; Chen & Berger, 2013; Berger & Milkman, 2012; Michaelidou, Dibb & Ali, 2008; Devin *et al.*, 2007). Research shows that *emotional* (Berger 2014; Dobeles *et al.*, 2007), *positive* (De Angelis *et al.*, 2012), *arousing* (Berger & Milkman, 2012), *fun* (Woerndl *et al.*, 2008) messages with a *moderate level of controversy* (Chen & Berger, 2013) are more likely to be shared. Many researchers have studied the success of using an emotional fear tactic as a message appeal in social marketing, but report mixed results. Some studies suggest fear appeals as an ineffective approach specifically for younger people (Hastings, Stead & Webb, 2004; Duke, Pickett & Grove, 1993), whereas others find positive outcomes (Biener, McCallum-Keeler & Nyman, 2000; Witte & Allen, 2000). Other research explores the effectiveness of negative versus positive appeals for social marketing messages, and again finds varying and inconsistent results. Wong and McMurray (2002) argue that negative messages are more effective, while Schneider *et al.*, (2001) believe that positive messages are more persuasive. Little is known about the influence of message appeals and how to craft a message more effectively to generate online consumer engagement for social marketing messages.

This paper reports three studies. Study 1 is based on data from two rounds of experiments on Facebook with student subjects, manipulating four incentive conditions (monetary, non-monetary tangible, and non-monetary intangible: wall-of-fame and none) as between-subjects factors and two message appeal conditions (fear versus informative) as within-subjects factors. Study 2 includes a series of online experiments with participants from the general public on Facebook, manipulating three incentive conditions (self-oriented, others-

oriented and none), and two message appeals (fear versus informative), both as between-subjects factors. Study 3 replicates study 2 with a new stimuli of message appeal. Study 3 is also based on data from a series of online experiments on Facebook with general public participants, manipulating three incentive conditions (self-oriented, others-oriented and none) and two message appeals (promotion-focused versus prevention-focused), both as between-subjects conditions.

In this paper we examine the way in which different incentives as well as message appeals influence online consumer engagement, in particular for social marketing messages within social media networks. Specifically, we address the following questions: Do incentives encourage or demotivate social marketing e-WOM on social media? Do messages framed with fear appeal result in greater online consumer engagement compared to informative appeals? Do promotion-focused versus prevention-focused messages result in greater online consumer engagement?

3.2 Extrinsic and intrinsic motivations for online consumer engagement

People on social media are exposed to a huge and diverse amount of information every day. This information may be produced or shared by a person's friends and connections, provided by companies or brand or fan pages, or advertised through social media advertising. The important question here is what makes people choose to pay attention to and react to a particular piece of information rather than another piece of information. For instance, what stimulates people to take part in an online discussion and why do some spread particular messages within social media networks? Many studies investigate people's motivations, both extrinsic and

intrinsic, and suggest recognition and image, reciprocity, social bonding, social approval, self-promotion as extrinsic motivations, while hedonic pleasure, enjoyment and entertainment are the intrinsic motivations that stimulate people to engage in activities on social media (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Berger, 2014; Berger & Milkman, 2012; Cui *et al.*, 2014; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Lu & Su, 2009; Shang, Chen & Shen, 2005; Smith, Fischer & Yongjian, 2012; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Consumers share their experience and knowledge for extrinsic self-interested drivers to enhance their image and look intelligent. It may be for the purpose of shaping and managing the impressions others have of them (image) and they have of themselves (self-image) through self-enhancement (De Angelis *et al.*, 2012; Berger & Milkman, 2012; Berger & Schwartz, 2011; Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004). They also may transmit information for identity-relevant purposes to signal that they have certain characteristics, knowledge or expertise (Larivière *et al.*, 2013; Lovett, Peres & Shachar, 2013; Wojnicki & Godes, 2012). Although some factors such as the greater social risks associated with producing written, broadcast and one-to-many e-WOM within social media may discourage consumers, the need for self-enhancement moderates consumer unwillingness (Eisingerich *et al.*, 2015).

Not all individuals engage in e-WOM driven by extrinsic motivations and benefits. They may produce e-WOM because it is intrinsically satisfying and enjoyable for them. Consumers share their negative brand or product experiences to feel good and vent their frustrations. Intrinsic motivation comes from within an individual and drives behaviour for internal personal satisfaction, enjoyment, adventure and fulfilment (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Shang, Chen & Shen (2005) suggest intrinsic motivations such as enjoyment, entertainment and personal interest are the main reasons for online shopping rather than extrinsic motivations. Consumers therefore engage in these intrinsically satisfying activities,

not to earn any type of prizes, monetary rewards or acclaim, but for the positive emotional gains (Waterman, 2005).

E-WOM can also be performed for a consumer's own benefit such as social identification and social integration, or for the genuine purpose of helping others to make better decisions or choices (Yoo & Gretzel, 2011; Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004). Hennig-Thurau *et al.* (2004) propose motivations such as positive self-enhancement, social benefits and concern for others as reasons for engaging in word of mouth. Altruism and self-improvement are also suggested in another study as the motives which positively influence e-WOM intention (Cui *et al.*, 2014). Yoo and Gretzel (2011) show that self-oriented motivations such as hedonic benefits and others-oriented motivations such as altruistic motives play an important role. Cheung and Lee (2012) add more depth to motives for e-WOM, and suggest four categories of motivation for spreading e-WOM: egoism, collectivism, altruism and principlism.

Existing research finds people's extrinsic and intrinsic motives, both self-oriented and others-oriented, play a major role in online consumer engagement and producing e-WOM. However, what motivates people to generate e-WOM in the context of business and marketing still remains neglected, despite its importance (Fu, Ju, & Hsu, 2015). Furthermore, most of the existing literature on e-WOM communication studies e-WOM adoption (e.g. Yan *et al.*, 2016) and how e-WOM influences consumers' decisions, rather than *why* consumers engage in generating e-WOM (Fu, Ju, & Hsu, 2015). This paper emphasises the critical role of extrinsic and intrinsic motivations on encouraging consumers on social media to engage in online messages. More specifically, we explore how and to what extent offering different types of incentives may influence consumers' extrinsic and intrinsic motivation which is vital for online engagement and e-WOM, in particular for social marketing health messages.

3.3 Incentivising online consumer engagement

Incentives are one of the means broadly used by marketers to influence consumers and generate positive e-WOM (Ashley & Tuten, 2015; Ryu & Feick, 2007). Incentives, in particular monetary rewards such as price discounts and coupons, are used for promoting message sharing and successful referrals in viral marketing campaigns (Hinz *et al.*, 2011; Ryu & Feick, 2007). An exploratory study by Ashley and Tuten (2015) finds that almost half of the brands that invited consumers to share content on social media offer them an incentive such as contests or discounts for sharing. Although much research in marketing reports positive outcomes from offering incentives to consumers in the context of sales promotion, brand switching and online shopping (Campbell & Diamond, 1990; Kalra & Shi, 2010; Mazursky, Labarbera & Aiello, 1987; Raghurir, 2004), the effectiveness of incentives for encouraging e-WOM is unclear.

Some studies show that incentives work to stimulate e-WOM, while others find incentives demotivate people. For instance, Hinz *et al.*, (2011) find monetary incentives strongly influence the likelihood of e-WOM, whereas Michalski, Jankowski and Kazienko (2012) report negative effects. Ashley and Tuten (2015) argue that those brands that offer incentives to consumers have more followers or fans, as well as a higher level of engagement. An empirical study by Ryu and Feick (2007) using a student sample finds that incentives increase likelihood of generating referral by existing customers. On the other hand, Berger and Schwartz (2011) find that although non-monetary rewards such as promotional giveaways, product samples, and augmented products such as hats, mugs and wristbands associated with the actual product could increase overall WOM, monetary incentives such as coupons and rebates do not result in increased WOM. Verlegh *et al.*, (2013) demonstrate that providing reward for a referral has a negative impact on the receiver. In an unrewarded referral, the

receiver is more likely to perceive the recommendation as genuine and unbiased, triggered by the recommender's knowledge and/or positive experience. However, Verlegh *et al.*, (2013) show that in order to eliminate this negative effect, both the referral provider and receiver need to be incentivised. The negative impact of an incentivised referral could also be reduced if it is solicited by the receiver (Verlegh *et al.*, 2013).

3.4 Theoretical foundation: The crowding-out effect

Research in the fields of economics and business indicate that incentives, both monetary and non-monetary rewards, can effectively stimulate people to undertake a task or change behaviour (Beltramini, 2000; Kalra & Shi, 2010; Mazursky, Labarbera, & Aiello, 1987; Raghurir, 2004; So *et al.*, 2005). Studies show that incentives and performance (or level of effort) are positively associated, so that the greater the incentive the greater the performance. In contrast to economists, psychologists focus more on human motives, and find that even without offering any incentives, many tasks are enjoyed by people for the task's own sake (Fehr & Falk, 2002). Although some studies report positive results from offering incentives, opponents believe that, under certain situations, offering incentives conflicts with individuals' internal motives, resulting in *crowding-out* of their intrinsic motivations (Dubé, Xueming, & Zheng, 2017; Gneezy, Meier & Rey-Biel, 2011). Incentives may reduce the level of effort that individuals make for a particular task. If the reward affects people negatively, then a larger reward reduces performance (or level of effort) even more (Gneezy & Rustichini, 2000b). Offering monetary incentives in order to, for example, shape a good behaviour, such as reducing or stopping smoking, or encouraging exercise, may even crowd-out individuals' motivations that are crucial for forming the desired behaviour (Gneezy, Meier & Rey-Biel,

2011). Monetary incentives, especially a large monetary reward, may be encouraging in the short-term, however they will weaken or even destroy an individual's extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in the long-term (Gneezy, Meier & Rey-Biel, 2011). Dubé, Xueming, & Zheng (2017) note how monetary incentives, such as price discounts bundled with a charitable donation, impact the demand for the underlying product and suggest that price discounts have negative effects on consumers' self-inference of altruism, as well as how consumers feel about themselves. The crowding-out effect occurs especially in conditions where the individual feels that the monetary incentive is offered as a result of mistrust or underestimating the individual's intrinsic motivation (Frey, 1993). Existing studies demonstrate that incentives, especially monetary rewards, reduce the performance of altruistic activities because they clash with intrinsic altruistic motivations (Dubé, Xueming, & Zheng, 2017; Cui *et al.*, 2014). Cui *et al.*, (2014) find a negative effect from offering monetary incentives on altruism, and self-enhancement motives.

Jin and Huang (2014) extend the theory on the detrimental effect of monetary incentives to the context of social interactions in which individuals are offered money to perform a task that has an impact on others such as their friends and acquaintances. In particular Jin and Huang (2014) note the demotivating effect of monetary incentives when individuals need to send positive identity-signals about themselves. Thus the detrimental impact of a monetary reward is higher when the referral has consequences on others such as friends and family. However, under certain circumstances, the effectiveness of a monetary reward could be improved for example by enhancing the financial benefit (offering larger monetary rewards) or decreasing the perceived social costs related to it (Jin & Huang, 2014).

Lacetera and Macis (2010a) find that individuals participating in pro-social behaviour are not unwilling in general to receive a reward, however, a considerable number of them state

they would discontinue their participation if offered cash prizes. Interestingly there is no such effect if they are offered value-equivalent rewards such as vouchers. Lacetera and Macis (2010a) note that no study so far has investigated the effect of offering both monetary and non-monetary incentives, therefore comparison between these two is not possible. In another study Lacetera and Macis (2010b) investigate the interaction between incentives and social image concern as an extrinsic motivation on performing pro-social activities in blood donors. They assess the impact of non-monetary symbolic rewards, either privately assigned or publicly recognised, on blood donors' performance and find that the social recognition component attached to publicly announced rewards plays a very significant role.

Few studies have examined the influence of non-monetary incentives in the context of e-WOM. Michalski, Jankowski and Kazienko (2012) conduct a viral marketing campaign within a social network platform available in Poland and show that non-monetary incentives can actually result in negative outcomes. Although the number of unique senders is similar in the incentivised and non-incentivised campaigns, a significantly greater number of messages are initially sent in the incentivised campaign but a greater proportion of messages are successfully received and further transmitted in the non-incentivised campaign. Based on the existing literature on the influence of incentives on online consumer engagement, we argue that offering monetary incentive demotivates individuals through diminishing their extrinsic and intrinsic motivations and thus decreases the level of online engagement for social marketing messages. Non-monetary incentives however, may encourage consumer engagement behaviour by reinforcing individuals' intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. This paper develops the following hypotheses on the effects of incentives on generating online consumer engagement for social marketing messages:

Hypothesis 1: Publicly rewarded incentives reduce the level of online consumer engagement through the crowding-out effect (weakening an individual's intrinsic and extrinsic motivations) for social marketing messages.

H1a: Offering monetary incentives generates a lower level of online consumer engagement for social marketing messages, compared to offering no incentives.

H1b: Offering tangible non-monetary incentives generates a higher level of online consumer engagement for social marketing messages compared to offering monetary incentives.

H1c: Offering intangible non-monetary incentives generates a lower level of online consumer engagement for social marketing messages compared to offering no incentives.

H1d: Offering others-oriented incentive generates a higher level of online consumer engagement for social marketing messages compared to offering a self-oriented incentive.

3.5 Message appeal and online consumer engagement

Message appeal is another critical factor affecting online consumer engagement which is examined in this paper. Perceived attractiveness and appeal of a message impacts the message recipient's decision on whether to further spread the message within their network (Bampo *et al.*, 2008; Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004). The decision made by the message recipient about who they share a message with is very critical for effectiveness of online message diffusion, since it facilitates preferential and customised forwarding (Iribarren & Moro, 2011). This use of

preferential forwarding results in recipients' increased tendency to forward the message to others who are also likely to continue spreading the message.

Online messages are framed differently by marketers. Marketers, for instance, use positive versus negative and rational versus emotional framed messages to get people's attention. Woerndl *et al.*, (2008) emphasise the importance of message content as a critical factor for success of viral marketing campaigns and demonstrate that messages which have imagination, fun and intrigue, are easy to use and are engaging have a greater potential to go viral. Berger and Milkman (2012) refer to work by Brooks and Schweitzer (2011) and Heilman (1997) to explain that people are more active when in a state of excitement. Arousal remains important even when the message content is surprising, interesting or practical. Messages that include negative emotions such as anger and fear are more likely to go viral compared to messages that are sad (Berger & Milkman, 2012). Berger (2014) provides some suggestion on how emotion regulation affects what people share. He believes that emotion regulation drives people to share more emotional content such as a fear appeal message, either to increase the valence of the content they share, or to share more psychologically arousing content. Berger and Milkman (2012) also find that the likelihood of sharing a message with positive content is higher than a message with negative content. Other studies confirm the use of positively framed messages as an influential message appeal in health promotion (e.g. Schneider *et al.*, 2001).

In social marketing, message appeal plays a critical role in developing effective social marketing campaigns (Devin *et al.*, 2007; Michaelidou, Dibb & Ali, 2008). Negative, fear and emotional appeals are commonly used in social marketing to communicate with the target audience. For instance, fear appeals are used to convey fearful and alarming information about negative health consequences (Brennan & Binney, 2010; Devin *et al.*, 2007). Noble, Pomeroy & Johnson (2014) classify message appeals as rational, positive emotional or negative

emotional and find that, overall, emotional appeals are more effective than rational appeals for social marketing ads. Existing studies examine the success of scare tactics in social marketing and public health and report varying results: some argue that application of scare tactics is ineffective in particular for influencing younger people (Hastings *et al.*, 2004; Duke, Pickett & Grove, 1993), while other studies find positive outcomes (Witte & Allen, 2000; Biener, McCallum-Keeler & Nyman, 2000). Other studies explore the effectiveness of negative versus positive appeals in social marketing and find inconsistent outcomes. For instance, Wong and McMurray (2002) report negatively framed message are more successful, however Schneider *et al.*, (2001) argue that positively framed messages are more effective. The attractiveness of social marketing online messages has not been well researched, despite its importance.

In this research, we explore the effectiveness of fear appeal, as a message appeal overused in developing social marketing campaigns. This paper also studies the influence of a promotion-focused appeal as a positively framed appeal versus a prevention-focused appeal as a negatively framed appeal on generating consumer engagement behaviour for health messages. This paper examines effectiveness of fear appeal versus informative appeal in study 1 and study 2, and promotion-focused appeal versus prevention-focused appeal in study 3. Taken together with the existing literature, we propose the following hypotheses for testing message appeal in our three studies:

H2: Fear appeal (versus informative appeal) generates a greater level of online consumer engagement for social marketing messages, within social media networks.

H3: Promotion-focused (versus prevention-focused) appeal generates a greater level of online consumer engagement for social marketing messages, within social media networks.

3.6 Study 1 (pilot study): Consumer engagement behaviour in fear versus informative message appeals under monetary versus non-monetary incentive conditions

The first study uses a laboratory experiment on Facebook to test hypotheses H1a, H1b and H1c for incentives, and hypothesis H2 for message appeal. We argue that offering monetary rewards diminishes individuals' intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, which are essential for stimulating online engagement. Non-monetary rewards, however, may stimulate consumer engagement behaviour by boosting individuals' intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. The role of consumers' motivations is especially critical for engaging in or promoting pro-social behaviours. Many researchers show that offering incentives, especially monetary incentives, demotivates people and decreases online engagement. We thus anticipate a higher level of engagement under the no incentive control condition, compared to the monetary, whereas a lower level of online engagement in control condition, compared to no-monetary—both tangible and intangible rewards.

This study controls for a social marketing health-related product (smoking), one message framed with a fear appeal, and one with an informative appeal. We suggest that fear appeal generates a greater level of engagement compared to informative appeal, and therefore expect to see more engagement on our smoking fear ad, comparing to the smoking informative ad. Overall, our aim is to observe whether subjects randomly assigned to each condition behave differently under each incentive condition on the two ad appeals.

3.6.1 Study 1: Method

A 4 x 2 mixed experimental design conducted on Facebook manipulated four incentive conditions (monetary, non-monetary tangible, non-monetary intangible and no incentive) as between-subjects factors, and message appeal (fear versus informative) as within-subject factors, while controlling for a health issue (smoking). The monetary condition offered a chance to win a \$50 gift card, the non-monetary tangible condition was a chance to win two movie tickets and the non-monetary intangible condition presented the opportunity for social recognition by being featured on a ‘wall of fame’ (see Appendix G).

The study was advertised to university students aged between 18 and 24 years in two marketing subjects—one undergraduate and one postgraduate subject. We recruited volunteer students to take part in our study in return of receiving some course credits (5%), as well as, a chance of winning different incentives. The study received ethics approval from Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee on 28 August 2015. Over two rounds of experiments, 294 undergraduate and postgraduate student subjects were randomly assigned to one of four Facebook groups—three incentive groups and one control group. The group size of each condition ranged from 72 to 74. The Facebook group was a public group which allows Facebook shares and other activities to be visible by the participants’ Facebook friends outside the experiment, however, the group privacy settings were set up to prevent people outside the experiments joining the groups. Subjects in each group were simultaneously exposed to the same two messages on the negative effects of smoking, one message framed with an informative appeal and one with a fear appeal. Subjects were instructed to take part in the online discussion by sharing, commenting and liking posts on their Facebook group page, with no moderation or intervention performed by the researchers. During a two-week period, the

number of likes, comments, shares and other activities such as liking and replying to others' comments and mentioning others, were recorded for each ad posted in each group. These detailed statistics on interactions with the posts were used to show different types of engagement as our dependent variables (Lim *et al.*, 2017). A summation of all Facebook activities, each given an equal weighting, generated total consumer engagement behaviour as another dependent variable.

3.6.2 Study 1: Results and discussion

Repeated measures ANOVA, comparing incentives as a between-subjects factor, finds no significant main effect for incentives ($F=0.803$, $p=0.493$) but reveals a significant main effect for message appeal as a within-subject factor ($F=12.56$, $p=0.000$). Repeated measures ANOVA does not find a significant interaction effect between incentives and message appeal ($F=0.554$, $p=0.646$).

Figure 3.1 and Table 3.1 provide a comparison of total consumer engagement by incentive and message appeal conditions. Overall, the highest level of total engagement ($n=255$) is produced in the monetary condition ($n=138$ on the fear ad and $n=117$ on the informative ad). Both Figure 3.1 and Table 3.1 show the monetary incentive condition, regardless of message appeal, encourages the greatest level of total engagement whereas the no incentive control group generates the lowest engagement for the fear appeal and the wall of fame condition results in the least engagement for the informative appeal. Figure 3.1 also shows a difference between the fear and informative message appeals with the fear condition consistently generating greater total engagement regardless of incentive condition.

To examine online engagement in more detail, Table 3.1 also provides information on liking, commenting and sharing activities on Facebook. Table 3.1 suggests that different types of incentives influence different types of Facebook activities. For instance, in the monetary incentive condition subjects engaged in more commenting and sharing activities which arguably require substantially more effort and involve higher risk than simply clicking the like button which occurs more frequently in the no incentives control condition. Overall, regardless of message appeal, the control group received the highest number of likes by participants ($n=91$), whereas the highest number of shares ($n=13$) and comments ($n=77$) occurred in the monetary condition. For instance, post-hoc tests (LSD) show there are significant mean differences for liking the fear message ($p=0.035$) between control ($n=49$, $\text{mean}=0.67$) and monetary conditions ($n=35$, $\text{mean}=0.49$), as well as significant mean differences ($p=0.019$) between control ($n=49$, $\text{mean}=0.67$) and non-monetary conditions ($n=35$, $\text{mean}=0.47$). Further analyses indicate significant mean differences for liking the comments made by other participants in the informative message condition across the four incentive groups ($F=4.747$, $p=0.003$). Post-hoc tests (LSD) show significant mean differences ($p\text{-value}=0.003$) between monetary ($\text{mean}=0.66$) and control ($\text{mean}=0.21$), as well as significant mean differences ($p\text{-value}=0.024$) between monetary ($\text{mean}=0.66$) and non-monetary ($\text{mean}=0.32$) conditions.

Overall, total engagement in the two non-monetary incentive conditions of two-movie tickets ($n=215$) and wall of fame ($n=212$) is consistent with the control group ($n=213$), while total engagement in the monetary group ($n=255$) is considerably higher than in the control group ($n=213$). Although findings in study 1 demonstrate that different incentives encourage different Facebook activities in each group, we do not find the crowding-out effect for total engagement under any of the monetary or non-monetary incentive conditions. In contrast, the monetary incentives encouraged the highest level of engagement. A possible clarification is that all the participants in this experiment were younger people, university students aged

between 18 and 24 years, who seem to value monetary incentives (Ryu & Feick, 2007), possibly due to their less established financial circumstances. Also, the subjects in each condition were aware of the high odds for winning the prize. We address this issue in our next experimental designs through targeting people who do not belong to a particular age group which enables us to explore whether people, in general, appreciate monetary rewards or not.

Table 3.1: Mean scores for different activities for ad appeals by incentive conditions

Study 1		Monetary (\$50 gift card)	Non-monetary (two-movie tickets)	Non-monetary (wall of fame)	None	Total
		N (Mean)	N (Mean)	N (Mean)	N (Mean)	N (Mean)
Informative appeal ad	Likes	26 (.36)	32 (.44)	35 (.47)	42 (.58)	135 (.46)
	Comments	35 (.49)	24 (.32)	28 (.38)	34 (.47)	121 (.41)
	Shares	7 (.10)	4 (.05)	5 (.07)	4 (.05)	20 (.07)
	Total ¹	117 (1.63)	95 (1.28)	84 (1.14)	98 (1.34)	394 (1.34)
Fear appeal ad	Likes	35 (.49)	35 (.47)	44 (.59)	49 (.67)	163 (.56)
	Comments	42 (.58)	29 (.39)	40 (.54)	39 (.53)	150 (.51)
	Shares	6 (.08)	4 (.05)	4 (.05)	5 (.07)	19 (.06)
	Total ¹	138 (1.92)	120 (1.62)	128 (1.73)	115 (1.58)	501 (1.71)
Total Engagement	Likes	61 (.85)	67 (.92)	79 (1.07)	91 (1.25)	298 (1.02)
	Comments	77 (1.07)	53 (.72)	68 (.92)	73 (1.00)	271 (.92)
	Shares	13 (.18)	8 (.11)	9 (.12)	9 (.12)	39 (.13)
	Total ¹	255 (3.54)	215 (2.91)	212 (2.86)	213 (2.92)	895 (3.06)

¹Total includes all the other types of Facebook activities, in addition to like, comment and share (such as liking comment, replying to comment, mentioning others).

Mean = mean activities per person

Sample size: n=294.

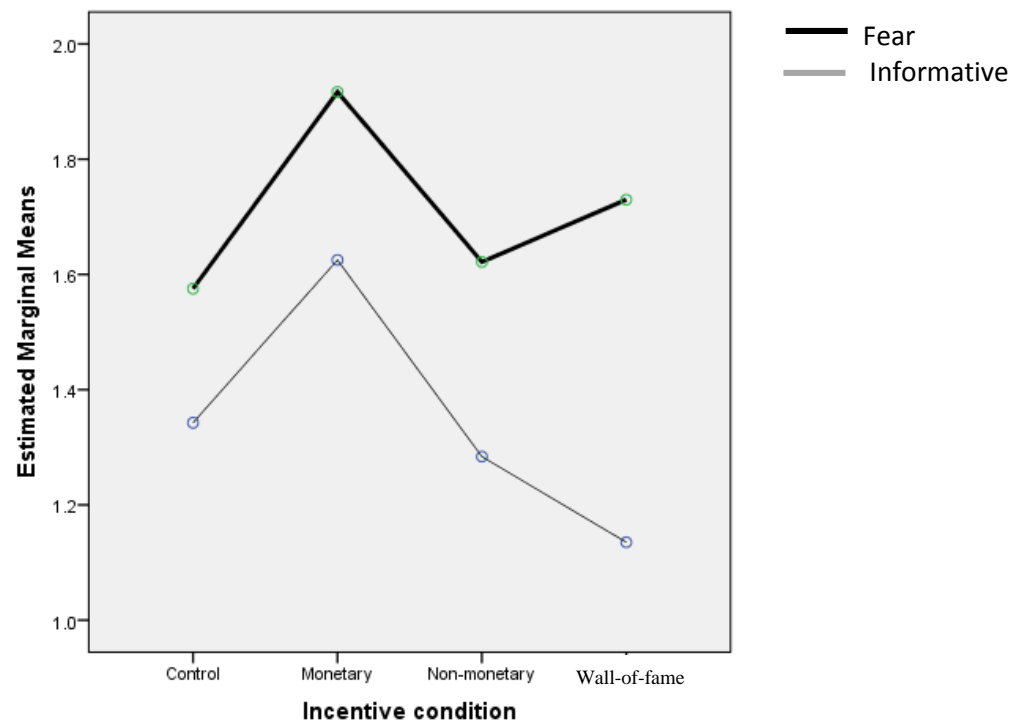


Figure 3.1: Mean differences in total engagement behaviour for message appeal by incentive condition

3.7 Study 2: Consumer engagement behaviour in fear versus informative messages under self-oriented versus others-oriented incentive conditions

The second study uses a field experiment on Facebook to test hypothesis H1d for incentives, and hypothesis H2 for message appeals. We argue that offering others-oriented incentive generates a higher level of online consumer engagement for social marketing messages compared to offering a self-oriented incentive. Therefore, we anticipate a higher level of engagement under others-oriented (social good) condition, comparing to the self-oriented (\$50 gift card) condition. The social good condition aims at encouraging individuals to contribute towards *the social good* by engaging in and spreading the study's messages through a short statement "participate in the project and contribute towards our social good" (see Appendix G). This study uses the same message appeals as study 1, however it tests them on two health issues, smoking and heavy drinking. We therefore suggest that a fear appeal generates a greater level of engagement compared to an informative appeal, and expect to see more engagement on the two fear ads, comparing to the informative ads for both smoking and alcohol use. Overall, the aim is to observe whether the people on Facebook exposed to our ads engage and behave differently under each incentive condition, on the four ad appeals.

In this study, we perform further analysis to find out whether and how demographic factors such as gender and age play a role in stimulating individuals to react to the study's messages. In particular, this study explores any possible gender and age differences to understand if females or males or consumers in a particular age range behave differently under different experimental conditions. This will assist marketers and social marketers to achieve effective audience segmentation and targeting, and design more tailored and customised content to appeal to each segment.

3.7.1 Study 2: Method

Study 2 is a 3 x 2 online experiment on Facebook manipulating three incentive conditions (self-oriented, others-oriented incentive and no incentive) and two message appeal conditions (fear versus informative), while controlling for two health issues (smoking and alcohol use). Study 2 thus uses the same message appeals as study 1, but examines the effects of different incentive conditions. The *self-oriented* incentive condition aims to stimulate people on Facebook to get involved and spread the study's messages by offering them the chance of winning a \$50 gift card with the short statement "participate in the project and you have a chance to win a \$50 gift card". The *others-oriented* social good condition aims to encourage people to contribute towards 'the social good' by spreading the study's messages through a short statement "participate in the project and contribute towards our social good". The no incentive control condition, however, only uses a short statement "participate in the project".

A different Facebook page was set up for each incentive condition in which the study's four messages were posted. Each of the four posts was promoted through Facebook advertising, featured as 'sponsored' ads by Facebook, and all were allocated the same budget (\$32 per ad), running for the same duration of time (three days). The target audience was Facebook users living in Australia, United States, United Kingdom and New Zealand, who were aged over 18 years. Similar to study 1, the number of likes, comments, shares and other Facebook activities such as liking and replying to others' comments and mentioning friends were recorded for each participant. Participants' gender was also recorded to perform further analysis. Detailed statistics on interactions with the posts (such as likes, comments and shares) were used to show different types of engagement such as likes, comments and shares as the dependent variables (Lim *et al.*, 2017). A summation of all Facebook activities, with each given an equal weighting, was generated for total consumer engagement behaviour for two informative and two fear ads

as the dependent variables. Facebook Adverts tools also provide some collective insights on participants' demographics such as age and country which enables us to perform further analysis to investigate whether consumers' age plays a role in engagement.

3.7.2 Study 2: Results and discussion

Table 3.2 and Figure 3.2 show the number of people engaged in each ad under each incentive condition in study 2. Overall, of the n=1087 Facebook users who engaged in study 2, n=422 (38.3%) engaged in the no incentive control condition, n=328 (30.2%) engaged in the monetary condition and n=337 (31.0%) in the social good condition, regardless of message appeal conditions. Also, the highest number of people engaged in the fear smoking ad, under the no incentive control condition (n=126, 11.6%), while the smoking informative ad attracted the lowest number of participants under the monetary condition (n=38, 3.5%). As shown in Table 3.2, regardless of message appeal, the no incentive control condition attracted the highest number of people (n=422, 38.8%), as well as the largest number of males (n=257, 45.6%), while the largest number of females engaged under the social good condition (n=132, 36.2%)—slightly higher than the control group (n=127, 34.8%). Results indicate that the social good condition attracted more females (36.2%) than males (23.0%), and appealed to a higher proportion of older people (aged over 45 years, at 55.0%) compared to other conditions (control: 31%, monetary: 17%).

Table 3.2: Number of people engaged in each ad under different incentive conditions,
by gender

Study 2		Fear Smoking ad			Informative Smoking ad			Fear Alcohol ad			Informative Alcohol ad			Total		
Incentive Condition		Gender		Total	Gender		Total	Gender		Total	Gender		Total	Gender		Total
		F	M		F	M		F	M		F	M		F	M	
Monetary	N	19	50	70	5	33	38	42	37	103	40	57	117	106	177	328
	% of total	5.2%	8.9%	6.4%	1.4%	5.9%	3.5%	11.5%	6.6%	9.5%	11.0%	10.1%	10.8%	29.0%	31.4%	30.2%
Social Good	N	45	33	92	27	21	75	28	45	89	32	31	81	132	130	337
	% of total	12.3%	5.9%	8.5%	7.4%	3.7%	6.9%	7.7%	8.0%	8.2%	8.8%	5.5%	7.5%	36.2%	23.0%	31.0%
Control	N	22	89	126	48	38	98	21	70	102	36	60	96	127	257	422
	% of total	6.0%	15.8%	11.6%	13.2%	6.7%	9.0%	5.8%	12.4%	9.4%	9.9%	10.6%	8.8%	34.8%	45.6%	38.8%
Total	N	86	172	288	80	92	211	91	152	294	108	148	294	365	564	1087
	% of total	23.6%	30.5%	26.5%	21.9%	16.3%	19.4%	24.9%	27.0%	27.0%	29.6%	26.2%	27.0%	100%	100%	100%

Note: 'Gender' in this table includes some missing data, as some participants' information could not be accessed due to their Facebook privacy settings.

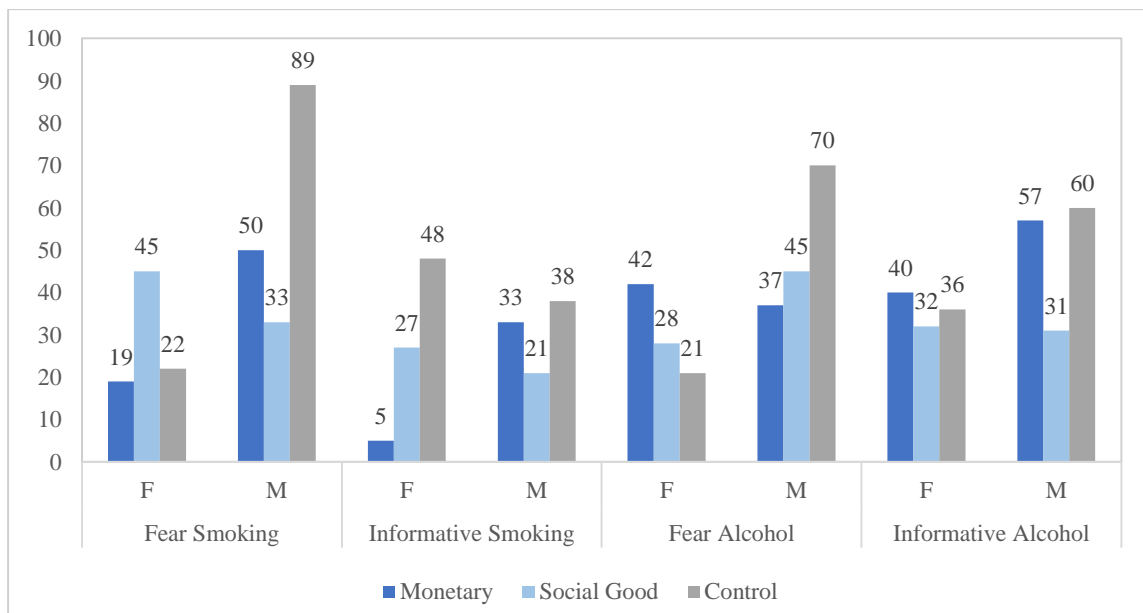


Figure 3.2: Number of people engaged in each ad under different incentive conditions,
by gender

Chi-square tests show significant association between incentive and message appeal ($\chi^2 = 36.756$, $p\text{-value} = 0.000$). Further analysis indicates gender differences. Chi-square tests reveal significant association between incentive and message appeal based on gender: $\chi^2 = 56.003$ ($p\text{-value} = 0.000$) for females, and $\chi^2 = 12.552$ ($p\text{-value} = 0.51$) for males.

Results in Table 3.2 and Figure 3.2 indicate that a monetary incentive discourages male participants across all ads (especially fear ads). The number of males engaged under the control condition is 257 (45.6%), compared to 177 males (31.4%) under the monetary condition, regardless of message appeals. The discouraging effect of a monetary incentive is seen particularly for fear ads (fear smoking ad: $n=89$, 15.8% dropped to $n=50$, 8.9%, and alcohol fear ad: $n=70$, 12.4% dropped to $n=37$, 6.6%). The social good condition also demotivates males across all ads—the number of males engaged under the control condition ($n=257$, 45.6%) dramatically decreases under the social good condition ($n=130$, 23.0%). Table 3.2 shows that, regardless of message appeals, the behaviour of females is relatively more consistent across incentive conditions compared to males: 127 females engaged under the control condition (34.8%), 132 females engaged under the social good condition (36.2%), and 106 females under the monetary condition (29.0%). Overall, although regardless of message appeals, a monetary reward demotivates females as well, the crowding-out effect is lower than for males (5.8% versus 14.2%) in study 2. There are situations in which females engaged more under the monetary condition (versus control condition): females engaged in the fear alcohol ad ($n=42$, 11.5% versus $n=21$, 5.8%) and in the informative alcohol ad ($n=40$, 11.0% versus $n=36$, 9.9%) (see Table 3.2).

As shown in Table 3.3, two-way ANOVA tests find a significant main effect for incentives ($F=6.30$, $p\text{-value}=0.002$), and also a significant main effect for message appeals ($F=5.37$, $p\text{-value}=0.001$) for total engagement. Two-way ANOVA tests also reveal a significant between-subject interaction effect for incentive and message appeal ($F=4.84$, $p\text{-value}=0.000$) for total engagement as the dependent variable.

Multivariate ANOVA tests for each Facebook activity such as likes, comments and shares as the dependent variables, and incentive and message appeal as independent variables indicate some significant main effects and interaction effects. For instance, considering *likes* as the dependent variable, Table 3.3 shows a significant main effect for incentive ($F=16.54$, $p\text{-value}=0.000$), but an insignificant main effect for message appeal ($F=1.57$, $p\text{-value}=0.194$). There is also a significant interaction effect between incentive and message appeal ($F=2.18$, $p\text{-value}=0.043$) for liking as the dependent variable. There are also significant interaction effects for incentive and message appeal across all activities—liking the ads ($F=2.18$, $p\text{-value}=0.043$), commenting ($F=10.84$, $p\text{-value}=0.000$) and sharing ($F=6.73$, $p\text{-value}=0.000$).

Table 3.3: Tests of between-subjects effects (two-way ANOVA)

Study 2	Dependent variable	F-value	p-value
Overall Model	Likes	4.21***	.000
	Comments	7.64***	.000
	Shares	7.92***	.000
	Total engagement	3.90***	.000
Incentive main effect	Likes	16.54***	.000
	Comments	5.36***	.005
	Shares	25.57***	.000
	Total engagement	6.30***	.002
Message appeal main effect	Likes	1.57	ns (.194)
	Comments	10.00***	.000
	Shares	1.09	ns (.353)
	Total engagement	5.37***	.001
Incentives * Message appeal interaction effect	Likes	2.18**	.043
	Comments	10.84***	.000
	Shares	6.73***	.000
	Total engagement	4.84***	.000

*** Significant at the 0.01 level

** Significant at the 0.05 level

*Significant at the 0.1 level.

ns: not significant

Sample size: n=1087

To examine online engagement in more detail, Table 3.4 provides information on number of likes, comments and shares on Facebook. This table also provides mean scores for level of activities performed in each ad under incentive conditions. Regardless of message appeal, the monetary condition has the highest mean score for total engagement (1.10), indicating each person undertook on average 1.10 activities under the monetary condition. Also, regardless of incentives, the fear alcohol ad has the highest mean score (1.11), indicating each person engaged on average in 1.11 activities on the fear alcohol ad. Taking into account both incentive and message appeal conditions, the informative smoking ad receives the highest mean score for average total engagement under the monetary condition (1.45), whereas the fear smoking ad has the lowest mean score again under the monetary condition (1.00), indicating that each person performed 1.45 activities on the informative smoking ad, whereas each person undertook only 1 activity on the fear smoking ad, both under the monetary condition.

Table 3.4: Mean scores for different activities performed on each ad under incentive conditions

Study 2		Monetary N (Mean)	Social Good N (Mean)	Control N (Mean)	Total N (Mean)
Fear Smoking ad	Likes	65 (.93)	63 (.68)	101 (.80)	288 (.80)
	Comments	1 (.01)	12 (.13)	6 (.05)	19 (.07)
	Shares	4 (.06)	24 (.26)	22 (.17)	50 (.17)
	Total engagement	70 (1.00)	99 (1.08)	129 (1.02)	298 (1.03)
Informative Smoking ad	Likes	33 (.87)	39 (.52)	81 (.83)	153 (.73)
	Comments	21 (.55)	6 (.08)	5 (.05)	32 (.15)
	Shares	1 (.03)	34 (.45)	13 (.13)	48 (.23)
	Total engagement	55 (1.45)	79 (1.05)	99 (1.01)	233 (1.10)
Fear Alcohol ad	Likes	74 (.72)	60 (.67)	79 (.77)	213 (.72)
	Comments	15 (.15)	12 (.20)	18 (.18)	45 (.17)
	Shares	29 (.28)	20 (.22)	14 (.14)	63 (.21)
	Total engagement	108 (1.15)	98 (1.10)	111 (1.09)	317 (1.11)
Informative Alcohol ad	Likes	91 (.78)	54 (.67)	83 (.86)	228 (.78)
	Comments	6 (.05)	9 (.11)	12 (.12)	27 (.09)
	Shares	22 (.19)	24 (.30)	2 (.03)	48 (.17)
	Total engagement	119 (1.02)	87 (1.07)	98 (1.02)	304 (1.03)
Total Engagement	Likes	263 (.80)	216 (.64)	422 (.82)	1087 (.76)
	Comments	43 (.13)	39 (.13)	41 (.10)	123 (.12)
	Shares	66 (.17)	102 (.30)	51 (.12)	219 (.19)
	Total engagement	352 (1.10)	363 (1.08)	437 (1.04)	1152 (1.07)

Note: Number of Likes in this table includes both liking the ads, and liking the comments made by others on the ads. Comments also includes both commenting on ads and replying to comments.

Mean = mean activities per person.

Sample size: n=1087.

Further analysis was conducted to reveal any significant differences for mean scores shown in Table 3.4. As shown in Table 3.5, post-hoc tests (LSD) find significant mean differences between monetary and control conditions ($MD=0.171$, $p\text{-value}=0.000$) for total engagement, suggesting that a monetary incentive encourages significantly more activities for each person engaged, on average (compared to the control condition). Post-hoc tests (LSD) also reveal significant mean differences between monetary and social good conditions ($MD=0.187$, $p\text{-value}=0.000$), as well as control and social good conditions ($MD=0.180$, $p\text{-value}=0.000$) for liking the ads, suggesting that both a monetary incentive and the control condition encourage significantly more liking for each person engaged, on average (compared to the social good condition).

Also, regardless of incentives, the fear alcohol ad stimulates a higher level of activities than the fear smoking ad, as well as more than the informative alcohol ad for total engagement, indicating that those who are attracted to the fear alcohol ad performed more activities per person, on average (see Table 3.5).

Table 3.5: Significant mean differences for the level of Facebook activities performed on each ad under incentive conditions

Study 2	Dependent variable	Significant mean differences Post-hoc (LSD)
Incentive conditions	Likes	Monetary > Social good *** Control > Social good***
	Comments	ns
	Shares	Social good > Monetary** Social good > Control**
	Total engagement	Monetary > Control**
Message conditions	Likes	Fear smoking ad > Fear alcohol ad*
	Comments	Fear alcohol ad > Fear smoking ad*** Fear alcohol ad > Informative alcohol ad*** Informative smoking ad > Fear smoking ad**
	Shares	Informative smoking > informative alcohol ad*
	Total engagement	Fear alcohol ad > Fear smoking ad** Fear alcohol ad > Informative alcohol ad** Informative smoking ad > Fear smoking ad * Informative smoking ad > Informative alcohol ad*

*** Significant at the 0.01 level

** Significant at the 0.05 level

*Significant at the 0.1 level.

ns: not significant

Sample size: n=1087.

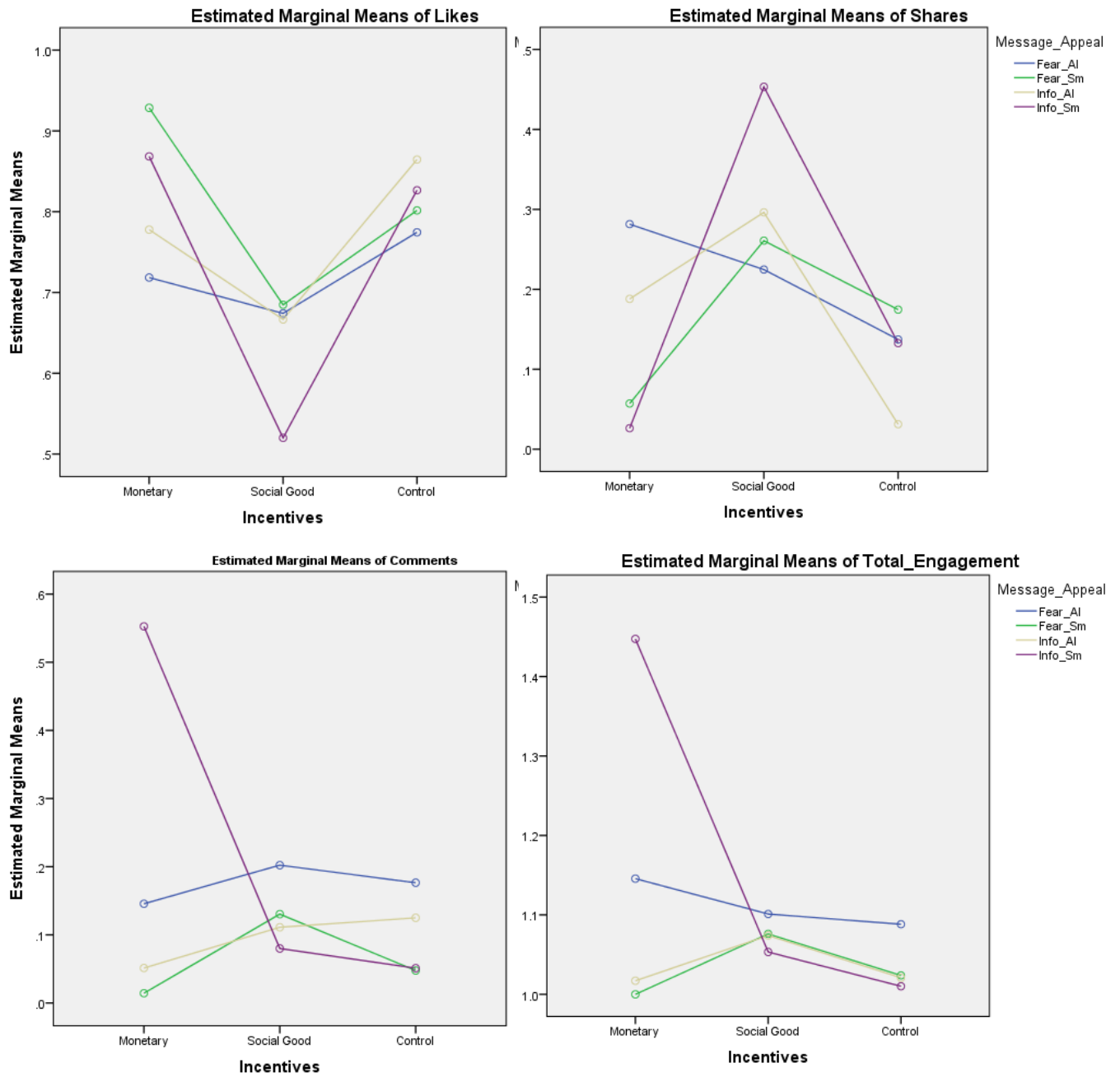


Figure 3.3: Mean differences for likes, comments, shares and total engagement for each ad by incentive conditions

Taking into account the participants' age, obtained from Facebook Advertising tools, enables us to clarify some of the differences found in the experiment results. A key difference in results between study 2 and study 1 is that there is no crowding-out effect in study 1, especially for the monetary incentives which, in contrast, encourage the highest level of engagement. One possible explanation is that all the participants in study 1 were younger people (university students aged between 18 and 24 years) who seem to value the experiment's monetary reward of a \$50 gift card due to their less established financial situations. Other studies on e-WOM and consumer engagement which use a student sample as the experiment participants also report positive outcomes from monetary incentives (e.g. Hinz *et al.*, 2014; Ryu & Feick, 2007). In study 1 the winning odds were also higher and subjects were aware that they had a high chance of winning the prize due to the sample size, which we believe contributed to the outcome. Study 2 also confirms this, as age insights indicate that of those who chose to participate in the monetary condition, 61% were aged 18-24 years, while 50% of the control, and only 19% of those who participated in the social good condition were aged 18-24 years. This confirms that the monetary incentive attracted more younger people belonging to the same age range as study 1.

3.8 Study 3: Consumer engagement behaviour in promotion-focused versus prevention-focused messages under self-oriented versus others-oriented incentive conditions

The third study replicates study 2 with a new stimuli of message appeal. Study 3 thus tests hypothesis H1d for incentives, and hypothesis H3 for message appeal. We argue that offering others-oriented incentive generates a greater amount of online consumer engagement for social marketing messages comparing to a self-oriented incentive. Therefore, we expect a higher level of engagement under social good condition, comparing to the self-oriented (\$50 gift card) condition. For message appeal, we propose that positive promotion-focused messages produce greater engagement compared to negative prevention-focused messages. Overall, the main purpose of the study 3 experiment is to examine how offering different types of incentive influences online consumer engagement in the four ads—two promotion-focused ads providing some detailed information about the positive effect of quitting smoking, and two prevention-focused ads providing detailed information about the negative effects of smoking.

Similar to study 2, study 3 also includes further analysis to examine any possible gender and age differences to understand whether basic demographic factors such as gender and age affect the way people react and engage in the study's messages under each incentive condition.

3.8.1 Study 3: Method

Study 3 is a 3 x 2 experimental design on Facebook, manipulating three incentive conditions (self-oriented, others-oriented and no incentive), and message appeal (promotion-focused

versus prevention-focused messages), while controlling for a health issue (smoking). Incentive conditions are the same as study 2. The self-oriented incentive offers the chance of winning a \$50 gift card, and others-oriented incentive aims to encourage people to contribute towards the social good by spreading the study's messages. However, study 3 uses different message appeal conditions—two ads are framed with a promotion-focused appeal (male version and female version), and two ads are framed with a prevention-focused appeal (male version and female version).

The promotion-focused ads, both female and male versions, aim to promote the positive outcomes of quitting smoking through a tagline “every cigarette you don’t smoke is doing you good”. The promotion-focused ads also provide some specific information about the positive changes that each organ will go through when someone quits, for instance: “your lung function has increased 30% in 3 months”, “your risks of cancers of the mouth and throat are halved in 5 years” and “stopping smoking can improve natural fertility in a year”. The prevention-focused ads, in contrast, communicate the negative effects of smoking cigarettes through the tagline “every cigarette you smoke is doing you damage”, and provide more specific information such as “smoking causes cancers affecting the mouth and throat”, “9 out of 10 lung cancers are caused by smoking” and “smoking reduces fertility” (see Appendix G)¹.

Three Facebook pages were set up, one for each incentive condition, in which four ads were posted. The four ads were advertised through sponsored ads by Facebook, with all allocated the same budget of \$32 each ad and promoted for the same length of time of three days. Over a two-week period, the number of likes, shares, comments and replying to comments was recorded. Consumer engagement for the two promotion-focused ads and the

¹ The licence agreements for the original ads were obtained from Australian Government National Tobacco Campaign, “QuitNow”, however the ads were revised and mocked up for the purpose of this research.

two prevention-focused ads, as the dependent variables, are calculated by summation of all types of Facebook activities, such as liking, commenting and sharing, with each given an equal weighting. Participants' age data obtained from Facebook Adverts tools enables us to further analyse the results.

3.8.2 Study 3: Results and discussion

Table 3.6 and Figure 3.4 show the number of people engaged in each ad under each incentive condition in study 3. Overall, 468 Facebook users, including 134 females and 240 males², engaged in study 3. Although, the study 3 experiment allocated the same budget of \$32 to each ad as study 2, and the ads were promoted for the same period of time of three days as study 2, results indicate that the number of people attracted and engaged in study 3 (n=468) is much lower than study 2 (n=1087), as is the level of total engagement.

As shown in Table 3.6, the greatest number of people engaged under the control condition (n=238, 50.9%), followed by the monetary condition (n=117, 25%) which is slightly higher than the social good condition (n=113, 24.1%), regardless of message appeal. Also, regardless of incentive conditions, people show a higher propensity to engage in the promotion-focused ads (56.9% versus 43.1% for prevention-focused ads), both male version (n=145, 31%) and female version (n=121, 25.9%). Table 3.6 shows that overall, a greater number of identified males engaged in this study (n=240 versus n=134 for females), and more males also engaged under the control condition compared to females (n=75, 31.3% of males, versus n=23, 17.2%

² Data regarding females and males engagement includes some missing data, as some participants information could not be accessed due to their Facebook privacy settings.

of females). Overall, female participants chose to engage in the promotion-focused (female version) ad the most ($n=35$, 39.6% of females), while male participants preferred the promotion-focused (male version) ad the most ($n=81$, 33.8% of males).

The lowest number of people engaged in the promotion-focused (female version) ad under the monetary condition, the same as the prevention-focused ad (female version) under the social good condition, both at $n=14$, which is only 3% of total participants each. Overall, Table 3.6 demonstrates that both promotion-focused ads under the social good condition work better (female version: $n=44$ and male version: $n=39$) compared to prevention-focused ads under the social good condition (female version: $n=14$ and male version: $n=16$), suggesting that the combination of a positively framed promotion-focused ad with a social good condition would be more effective in attracting engagement.

Chi-square tests find significant association between incentive and message appeal conditions ($\chi^2=61.09$, $p\text{-value}=0.000$). Chi-square tests also reveal significant association between incentive and message appeal conditions for each gender ($\chi^2= 21.392$, $p\text{-value}=0.000$ for females, and $\chi^2= 16.150$, $p\text{-value}=0.013$ for males).

Table 3.6 clearly shows that both monetary and social good conditions demotivate participants regardless of their gender and ad appeal (monetary condition: $n=117$, 25% and social good condition: $n=113$, 24.1%, compared to the control condition: $n=238$, 50.9%). Further analysis reveals that monetary and social good conditions discourage males (monetary condition: $n=75$, 31.3% and social good condition: $n=63$, 26.3%, compared to control condition: $n=102$, 42.5%), as well as females (monetary condition: $n=23$, 17.2% and social good condition: $n=30$, 22.4%, compared to control condition: $n=81$, 60.4%). Thus study 3 results suggest that offering any type of incentive discourages females more than males.

As shown in Table 3.6 and Figure 3.4, offering incentives reduces the motivation of both females and males to engage in prevention-focused ads. The largest proportion of both females and males were attracted to the two prevention-focused ads under the control condition, therefore we observe that the crowding-out effect is higher for prevention-focused ads versus promotion-focused ads. We do not find the crowding-out effect for males engaged in promotion-focused ads.

Table 3.6: Number of people engaged in each ad under different incentive conditions,
by gender

Study 3		Promotion- focused ad (female version)			Promotion- focused ad (male version)			Prevention- focused ad (female version)			Prevention – focused ad (male version)			Total		
Incentive Condition		Gender		Total	Gender		Total	Gender		Total	Gender		Total	Gender		Total
		F	M		F	M		F	M		F	M		F	M	
Monetary	N	1	13	14	9	33	61	6	11	17	7	18	25	23	75	117
	% of total	0.7%	5.4%	3.0%	6.7%	13.8%	13.0%	4.5%	4.6%	3.6%	5.2%	7.5%	5.3%	17.2%	31.3%	25.0%
Social Good	N	17	16	44	6	24	39	5	9	14	2	14	16	30	63	113
	% of total	12.7%	6.7%	9.4%	4.5%	10.0%	8.3%	3.7%	3.8%	3.0%	1.5%	5.8%	3.4%	22.4%	26.3%	24.1%
Control	N	35	15	63	11	24	45	13	29	60	22	34	70	81	102	238
	% of total	26.1%	6.3%	13.5%	8.2%	10.0%	9.6%	9.7%	12.1%	12.8%	16.4%	14.2%	15.0%	60.4%	42.5%	50.9%
Total	N	53	44	121	26	81	145	24	49	91	31	66	111	134	240	468
	% of total	39.6%	18.3%	25.9%	19.4%	33.8%	31.0%	17.9%	20.4%	19.4%	23.1%	27.5%	23.7%	100%	100%	100%

Note: ‘Gender’ in this table includes some missing data, as some participants’ information could not be accessed due to their Facebook privacy settings.

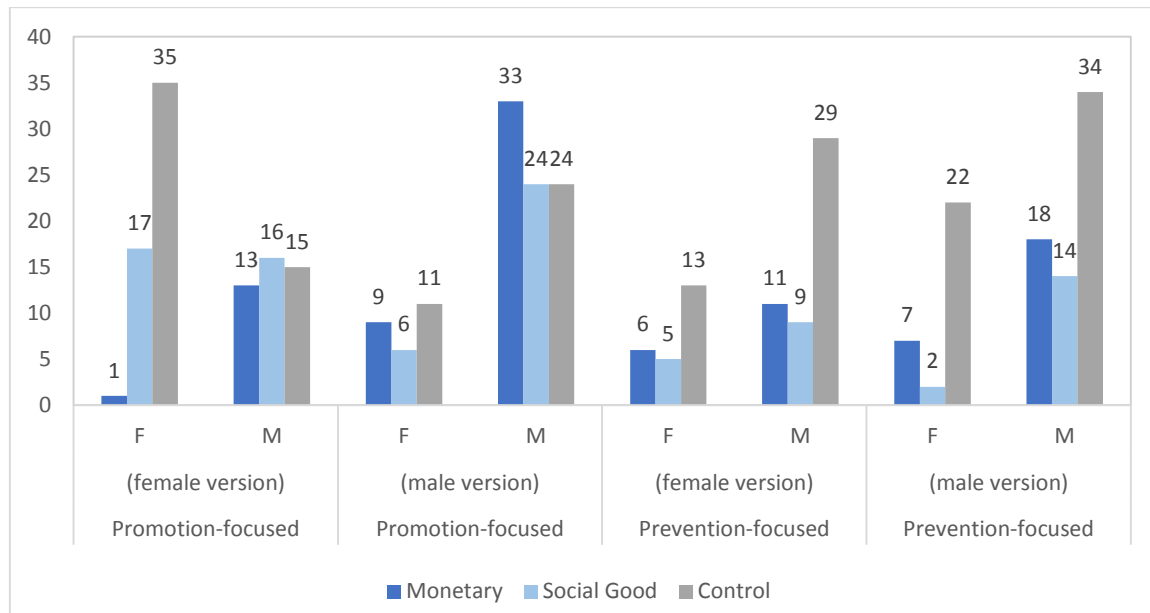


Figure 3.4: Number of people engaged in each ad under different incentive conditions,
by gender

As shown in Table 3.7 two-way ANOVA tests find no significant main effect for the incentive condition in study 3 ($F=2.00$, $p\text{-value}=0.135$), however, there is a significant main effect for the message appeal condition ($F=8.67$, $p\text{-value}=0.000$) for total engagement. There is also a significant interaction effect between incentives and message appeals ($F=6.25$, $p\text{-value}=0.000$) for total engagement. For instance, using liking as the dependent variable, two-way ANOVA tests reveal a significant main effect for the incentive condition ($F=3.83$, $p\text{-value}=0.022$), as well as a significant main effect for the message appeal condition ($F=3.35$, $p\text{-value}=0.019$). There is also a significant interaction effect between incentive and message appeal ($F=2.42$, $p\text{-value}=0.026$) for liking the ads. See Table 3.7 for further significant main effects, and interaction effects for commenting and sharing.

Table 3.7: Tests of between-subjects effects (two-way ANOVA)

Study 3	Dependent variable	F-value	p-value
Overall model	Likes	2.00**	0.027
	Comments	4.62***	0.000
	Shares	2.25**	0.012
	Total engagement	4.87***	0.000
Incentive main effect	Likes	3.83**	0.022
	Comments	2.34*	0.097
	Shares	2.85*	0.059
	Total engagement	2.00	ns (.135)
Message appeal main effect	Likes	3.35**	0.019
	Comments	7.28***	0.000
	Shares	4.24***	0.006
	Total engagement	8.67***	0.000
Incentives * Message appeal interaction effect	Likes	2.42**	0.026
	Comments	6.51***	0.000
	Shares	2.26**	0.037
	Total engagement	6.25***	0.000

*** Significant at the 0.01 level

** Significant at the 0.05 level

*Significant at the 0.1 level.

ns: not significant

Sample size: n=468.

To examine online engagement in more detail, Table 3.8 provides information on number of likes, comments and shares for each ad. This table also provides mean scores for level of activities performed by those who were attracted to each ad, on average. Regardless of message appeal, the control condition receives the highest mean score for total engagement (1.10), indicating each person undertook on average 1.10 activities under the control condition. Also, regardless of incentives, the prevention-focused ad (male version) obtains the highest mean score (1.18), indicating each person performed on average 1.18 activities on the prevention-focused ad (male version).

Taking into account both incentive and message appeal conditions, the prevention-focused ad (male version) has the highest mean score for total engagement under the social good condition (mean of 1.75 activities), showing that each person who was attracted to the prevention-focused ad (male version) under the social good condition performed 1.75 activities, on average. On the other hand, the promotion-focused (female version) ad receives the lowest mean score (1.00) under both the monetary and social good conditions, as well as the prevention-focused ad (female version) under the social good condition (1.00), indicating that each person only undertook 1 activity on each of these ads (see Table 3.8).

Table 3.8: Mean scores for different Facebook activities performed on each ad under incentive conditions

Study 3		Monetary N (Mean)	Social Good N (Mean)	Control N (Mean)	Total N (Mean)
Promotion- focused ad (female version)	Likes	11 (.78)	17 (.38)	33 (.52)	61 (.50)
	Comments	2 (.14)	10 (.23)	15 (.24)	27 (.22)
	Shares	1 (.07)	14 (.31)	17 (.27)	32 (.26)
	Total engagement	14 (1.00)	44 (1.00)	66 (1.05)	124 (1.02)
Promotion- focused ad (male version)	Likes	28 (.46)	19 (.48)	21 (.30)	68 (.47)
	Comments	7 (.11)	7 (.17)	12 (.20)	26 (.17)
	Shares	22 (.36)	14 (.36)	12 (.20)	48 (.33)
	Total engagement	64 (1.05)	40 (1.02)	48 (1.06)	152 (1.05)
Prevention- focused ad (female version)	Likes	14 (.82)	12 (.86)	24 (.40)	50 (.55)
	Comments	6 (.35)	1 (.07)	22 (.36)	29 (.31)
	Shares	1 (.06)	1 (.07)	21 (.35)	23 (.25)
	Total engagement	21 (1.23)	14 (1.00)	72 (1.20)	107 (1.17)
Prevention – focused ad (male version)	Likes	14 (.56)	10 (.62)	34 (.46)	58 (.52)
	Comments	7 (.28)	17 (1.06)	14 (.20)	38 (.34)
	Shares	3 (.12)	1 (.06)	15 (.21)	19 (.17)
	Total engagement	27 (1.08)	28 (1.75)	76 (1.08)	131 (1.18)
Total engagement	Likes	67 (.57)	58 (.51)	110 (.46)	211 (.45)
	Comments	22 (.19)	35 (.31)	63 (.26)	138 (.29)
	Shares	27 (.23)	30 (.26)	65 (.27)	122 (.26)
	Total engagement	126 (1.08)	116 (1.02)	262 (1.10)	514 (1.10)

Note: Number of Likes in this table includes both liking the ads, and liking the comments made by others on the ads. Comments also includes both commenting on ads and replying to comments.

Mean= mean activities per person.

Sample size: n=468.

Further analysis was conducted to reveal any significant differences for mean scores shown in Table 3.8. As shown in Table 3.9, post-hoc tests (LSD) reveal significant mean differences between monetary condition and control condition regarding liking the ads at the 0.01 level, indicating people who attracted to social good condition performed a higher level activities per person, on average, compared to those who engaged in control condition. People who attracted to social good condition produced significantly more comments than monetary condition, as well as those who attracted to control condition performed significantly more sharing than monetary condition on average, both at the 0.05 level.

Post-hoc tests (LSD) also find significant mean differences between the prevention-focused (male version) and promotion-focused (male version) ads on total engagement, at the 0.01 level of significance, suggesting that the prevention-focused (male version) ad encourages significantly more activities for each person engaged, on average. Post-hoc tests also reveal significant mean differences between the prevention-focused (female version) and promotion-focused (female version) ads, at the 0.01 level of significance, indicating that those who engaged in the prevention-focused (female version) ad performed significantly more activities on the ad on average (see Table 3.9 for further post-hoc analysis).

Table 3.9: Significant mean differences for the level of Facebook activities performed on each ad under incentive conditions

Study 3	Dependent variable	Significant mean differences Post-hoc tests (LSD)
Incentive conditions	Likes	Monetary > Control***
	Comments	Social good > Monetary **
	Shares	Control > Monetary**
	Total engagement	Social good > Control *
Message appeal conditions	Likes	Prevention-focused (female version) ad > Promotion-focused (male version) ad*
	Comments	Prevention-focused (male version) ad > Promotion-focused (male version) ad***
		Prevention-focused (female version) ad > Promotion-focused (male version) ad***
	Shares	Promotion-focused (male version) ad > Prevention-focused (male version) ad***
	Total engagement	Prevention-focused (male version) ad > Promotion-focused (male version) ad***
		Prevention-focused (male version) ad > Promotion-focused (female version) ad***
		Prevention-focused (female version) ad > Promotion-focused (male version) ad***
		Prevention-focused (female version) ad > Promotion-focused (female version) ad***

*** Significant at the 0.01 level

** Significant at the 0.05 level

*Significant at the 0.1 level.

ns: not significant

Sample size: n=468.

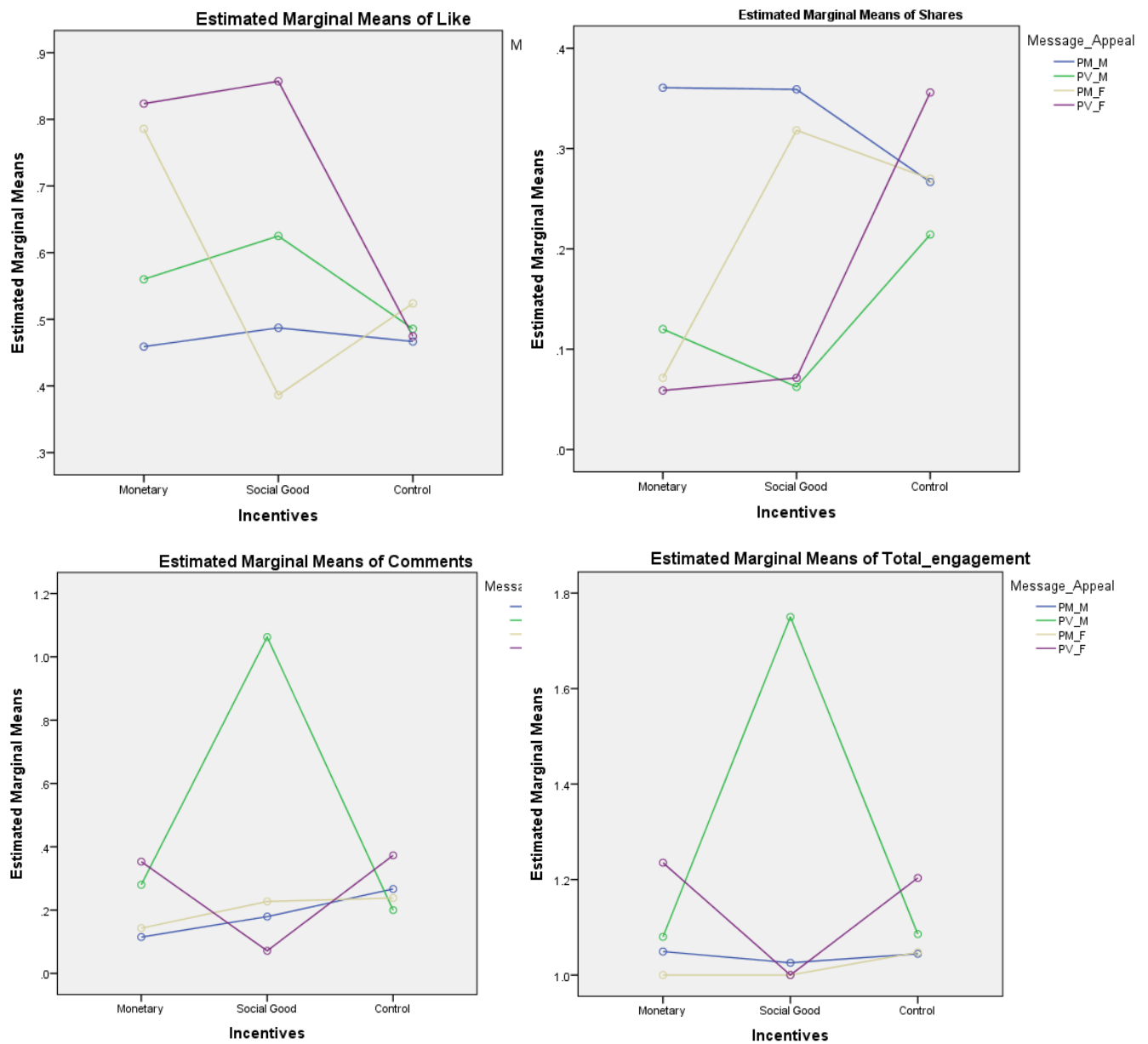


Figure 3.3: Mean differences for likes, comments, shares and total engagement for message appeal by incentive conditions

3.9 Conclusion, recommendations and future research

This paper uses a series of three experiments designed to investigate the extent to which different types of incentives and message appeals influence consumer engagement for social marketing messages within the social media network of Facebook. Table 3.10 summarises the three studies' findings. Study 1 findings suggest that the monetary incentive condition encourages the greatest level of total engagement. Study 1 also indicates that the fear appeal condition generates a higher level of total engagement regardless of the incentive condition. Repeated measures ANOVA, comparing incentives as a between-subjects factor, shows an insignificant main effect for incentives but a significant main effect for message appeal in study 1. Repeated measures ANOVA also finds a significant main effect for incentives, and message appeal with liking the ads as the dependent variable, as well as a significant main effect for message appeal with commenting as a dependent variable (see Table 3.10).

However in study 2, two-way ANOVA tests find significant main effects for incentives and message appeals, as well as significant interaction effects between incentives and message appeals. Study 2 uses the same message appeals as study 1—fear appeal and informative appeal, on two health issues of smoking and heavy drinking. In study 2, the control condition generate the greatest total engagement and likes, while the monetary incentive encourage the greatest number of comments and shares. Thus, study 2 finds the discouraging effect of incentives for total engagement, and liking the ads. The more comments and shares produced under the monetary condition in study 2 confirms the study 1 findings that a monetary incentive engages people in activities which require more effort and involve higher risks. Similar to study 1, fear ads outperform informative ads in study 2 in engagement.

Study 3 replicates study 2 with a new stimuli, message appeal. Study 3 uses the same incentive conditions as study 2, but tests the effects of the incentives on different message appeals—promotion-focused versus prevention-focused ads. This study finds significant main effects for incentives on liking the ads, but an insignificant effect for commenting, sharing and total engagement. On the other hand, study 3 finds significant main effects for message appeal for liking, commenting, sharing and total engagement as dependent variables. It also finds significant interaction effects between incentives and message appeal for liking, commenting, sharing and total engagement. In study 3, the control condition stimulates the highest level of total engagement, as well as the most liking, commenting and sharing. It therefore finds the crowding-out effect under monetary and social good incentive conditions. In terms of ad appeals, promotion-focused ads encourage more total engagement, liking and sharing. There is an exception for commenting—the most comments were generated by prevention-focused ads. Compared to the first two studies, study 3 had a high level of ‘customised sharing’ in the form of ‘tagging’ Facebook friends on the ads. The ads used in study 3 provide useful information, which can justify the high level of customised sharing as the person may find the ads worthwhile to share with a friend.

In contrast to studies 2 and 3, study 1 did not find a crowding-out effect for incentives—especially for the monetary incentive, which generated the greatest total engagement. However, the experiment settings in study 1 were different from studies 2 and 3 as study 1 ran under a laboratory condition, in which volunteer university students had already agreed to join the experiment, whereas studies 2 and 3 were field experiments performed in a real-life situation using Facebook advertising to promote ads as Facebook sponsored posts to a random target audience. In addition, study 1 participants came from a relatively homogenous sample of university students aged 18-24 years, compared to studies 2 and 3 which used the general public aged 18 years and older on Facebook.

This research suggests that younger people, aged 18-24 years, will be either less discouraged or not discouraged when offered monetary incentives compared to older people. Therefore, study 1 which uses university aged students as participants (aged 18-24 years) did not find a crowding-out effect. However, the other studies where participants were all Facebook users aged over 18 years and not in a particular age range showed the demotivating effects of incentives. Where the number of younger people engaged in the ads is higher, the results show a relatively higher level of engagement under the monetary condition. For example, in study 2 the informative alcohol ad received the highest level of engagement under the monetary condition (n=117; 10.8% of total engagement), where 63% of the participants were aged 18-24 years old.

Another key result in our studies that consumers show greater response to emotional appeals such as fear rather than to factual informative appeals endorses previous literature on the power of emotional appeals (Dobele *et al.*, 2007). Research shows consumers do not need to like an advertisement in order for it to be effective (Zeitlin & Westwood 1986), and although there are circumstances in which it may be appropriate for social marketing messages to deliberately try and evoke negative emotions such as fear, we do not know if higher online engagement based on fear leads to positive behaviour change. We also do not know the effect of fear appeals on group interaction. Do fear appeals unite group members around a common purpose creating feelings of solidarity and cohesion or are fear appeals a source of friction, weakening social relationships and producing factions? Further research is needed to examine group dynamics and ensure there are no negative, unexpected consequences from using fear appeals.

Furthermore, this paper finds gender influences consumer engagement behaviour. A significantly different amount of females and males reacted to different ads, under different

incentive types. For instance, study 2 shows a slightly higher number of females engaged in the social good condition than the control condition, compared to males who are significantly demotivated and engage less in the social good condition. Considering demographics factors such as age and gender differences enables marketers to develop more successful social media strategies through crafting tailored messages which appeal to specific priority groups and encourage customised sharing within social media.

To date, few studies specifically for social marketing messages focus on the factors influencing consumer online engagement and message diffusion. Social media marketing is regarded as an effective promotional channel, but its use requires consumers to engage. Our research provides some evidence on the role of social media in encouraging consumers to become more engaged in discussing and disseminating social marketing messages. Additional research is needed to validate study results using different online platforms for other health issues and to overcome study limitations of sample size and engagement length.

We call for future research examining factors influences consumer engagement behaviour for social marketing messages, in particular how to engage consumers in a positive light. This will assist organisations working in this field to take huge advantage of the power of consumers as their social media ambassadors to promote positive e-WOM.

Table 3.10: Summary of findings from the three studies

Paper II findings	Dependent Variable	Main effect		Interaction effect	Findings
		Incentives	Message appeals	Incentive * Message appeal	
Study 1: (pilot study) Laboratory experiment n=294	Likes	F=3.18, p-value=.024	F=9.69, p-value=.002	ns	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No significant main effect for incentive, but a significant main effect for messages appeal for total engagement. - No significant interaction effect between incentive and message appeal for total engagement. - Monetary condition generates the highest level of total engagement, comments and shares. - Control condition generates the highest level of likes. - Fear ad outperforms informative ad.
	Comments	ns	F=8.13, p-value=.005	ns	
	Shares	ns	ns	ns	
	Total Engagement	ns	F=12.56, p-value=.000	ns	
Study 2: Field experiment n= 1087	Likes	F=16.54, p-value = .000	ns	F=2.18, p-value = .043	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A significant main effect for incentive, as well as a significant main effect for messages appeal for total engagement. - Significant interaction effect between incentive and message appeal for total engagement. - Control condition generates the highest level of total engagement and likes. - Monetary incentive encourages the highest level of comments and shares. - Study 2 finds crowding-out effect for total engagement, and liking the ads under monetary and social good conditions. - Fear ad, both smoking and alcohol use, outperform informative ads.
	Comments	F=5.36, p-value = .005	F=10.00, p-value = .000	F=10.83, p-value = .000	
	Shares	F=25.57, p-value = .000	ns	F=6.73, p-value = .000	
	Total Engagement	F=6.29, p-value = .002	F=5.37, p-value = .001	F=4.84, p-value = .000	
Study 3: Field experiment n=468	Likes	F=3.83, p-value=.022	F=3.35, p-value=.019	F=2.41, p-value=.026	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - No significant main effect for incentive, but a significant main effect for messages appeal for total engagement. - Significant interaction effect between incentive and message appeal for total engagement. - Control condition generates the highest level of total engagement, likes, comments and shares. - Study 3 finds crowding-out effect for total engagement, liking, commenting and sharing the ads, under monetary and social good conditions. - Promotion-focused ads, both female and male versions, outperform prevention-focused ads in total engagement, likes and shares. - There is an exception: prevention-focused ads encourage more commenting, which may not necessarily show liking or supporting the ads. - Study 3 has the highest level of 'customised sharing' in the form of 'tagging' friends on ads.
	Comments	F=2.34, p-value=.097	F=7.28, p-value=.000	F=6.51, p-value=.000	
	Shares	F=2.85, p-value=.059	F=4.24, p-value=.006	F=2.26, p-value=.037	
	Total Engagement	ns	F=8.68, p-value=.000	F=6.25, p-value=.000	

3.10 References

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CHAPTER 4: PAPER III

The Third paper in the thesis, **How Consumers' Characteristics, Personality Traits and Involvement Affect Consumer Engagement Behaviour and Intention on Social Media**, is an investigation on the role of individual factors on online consumer engagement behaviour and intention. This paper seeks to investigate the influence of individual factors, specifically regulatory focus, personality, product involvement, and social media involvement on different dimensions of engagement, including emotional, cognitive, online engagement intention, and WOM intention. This paper assists marketers to understand how individual characteristics may affect consumers' online behaviour and preferences. Findings from this work enable those working in social marketing and health promotion to undertake more effective audience segmentation, audience selection and targeting.

How Consumers' Characteristics, Personality Traits and Involvement Affect Consumer Engagement Behaviour and Intention on Social Media evolved from a paper presented at Australian and New Zealand Marketing Academy Conference 2016, authored by Helen Siuki, and Associate Professor Cynthia M. Webster (the conference paper is included in appendix C). Paper III contribution ratio outlined in Acknowledgments on page 5.

**How Consumers' Characteristics, Personality Traits and Involvement
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Abstract

This paper investigates the impacts of individuals' characteristics such as regulatory focus, personality and involvement, termed *individual factors*, on consumer engagement behaviour and intention within social media. This paper reports two studies. Study 1 is a laboratory experiment on Facebook with a follow-up online survey, using a student sample to measure engagement behaviour. Study 1 experimental design manipulates four incentive conditions (monetary, tangible non-monetary, intangible non-monetary and none) and two message appeal conditions (fear and informative appeal). Our aim is to investigate whether consumers engage differently with health-related messages (smoking) under different incentive and message appeal conditions. The design of study 1 enables us to link survey responses to participants' actual behaviour and reactions to the study's health messages under different experimental conditions, to explore whether individuals' characteristics play a role in encouraging online engagement. Study 2 uses an online survey to investigate the role of individual factors across dimensions of engagement such as emotional, cognitive and consumer engagement intention and word of mouth (WOM) intention. Our main purpose is to investigate whether regulatory focus (promotion-focus versus prevention-focus), personality traits (Big Five: extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, openness) and involvement influence consumer engagement behaviour and intention in social marketing messages about smoking and heavy drinking.

Study 1 reveals that participants engage significantly higher in fear appeal messages regardless of their personality and incentive condition. Further analyses show that tangible non-monetary rewards generate the greatest level of engagement, for high extroverted and high conscientiousness individuals. Study 2 finds strong positive association between promotion-

focus and all dimensions of engagement. ANOVA tests reveal promotion-focus as a key driver of online engagement intention and WOM intention across all ads. Among personality traits, extroversion is the only variable which is positively correlated with almost all dimensions of engagement, as extroversion is a significant driver of online engagement intention and WOM intention. For involvement factors, ANOVA tests reveal a significant positive association between time spent on Facebook and online engagement intention, as well as WOM intention. Surprisingly, those who classify themselves as regular smokers show significantly higher intention than non-smokers and social smokers to engage in the smoking ads. However, those who classify themselves as heavy drinkers do not indicate higher intention to react to alcohol messages. We therefore suggest that product type matters, high product involvement in social marketing may not necessarily lead to a higher level of consumer engagement.

4.1 Introduction

Social media marketing is now one of the most widespread marketing strategies applied by organisations. Organisations can benefit from an approach which is not only cost effective but also provides a diverse and broad audience, exponential diffusion and a longer lasting effect (Dobele, Toleman, & Beverland, 2005; Van der Lans *et al.*, 2010; Woerndl *et al.*, 2008; Yang *et al.*, 2015). Organisations working in health promotion and social marketing are also taking advantage of social media as a communication channel to reach their target audience and disseminate their messages (Lim *et al.*, 2017). Consumers on social media using their own promotional tactics become active participants in the co-creation and dissemination of product and brand messages (Thackery *et al.*, 2008). Encouraging online consumer engagement is more challenging for social marketing messages as social marketing addresses difficult lifestyle changes, and sometimes sensitive and confronting topics that may be unpleasant for people to discuss. This thus negatively impacts consumers' willingness to produce e-WOM. Even outgoing, conscientious, confident consumers may not prefer to engage with social marketing messages and spread electronic e-WOM.

To stimulate online engagement it is crucial to know what factors drive consumers on social media to pay attention, engage and positively react to a message. Online consumer engagement has received extensive attention in commercial marketing in recent years (Malthouse *et al.*, 2016; Marbach, Lages & Nunan, 2016; Solem & Pedersen, 2016), while less research examines factors that facilitate consumer engagement for brand and product message engagement, especially in the context of social marketing. Studies in e-WOM examine the influence of different aspects of the marketing mix such as product type, message content and the use of varying communication channels (Aral & Walker, 2011; Berger & Milkman, 2011;

Chiu *et al.*, 2014). Other research focuses on seeding strategies and the importance of social network structure (Bampo *et al.*, 2008; Hinz *et al.*, 2011; Libai, Muller & Peres, 2005; Watts & Dodds, 2007). A handful of studies look at the role of incentives in generating online engagement and e-WOM, but report mixed results (Hinz *et al.*, 2011; Michalski, Jankowski & Kazienko, 2012; Schulze, Scholer & Skiera, 2014; Wirtz & Chew, 2002). Consumers' motivations are suggested in some studies as another main reason driving people to engage in WOM (Berger 2014; Sundaram, Mitra & Webster, 1998) and e-WOM (Cheung & Lee, 2012). Some recent studies (e.g. Solem & Pederen, 2016) look at the effects of individual characteristics, such as regulatory focus, on consumer engagement in social media and report positive results. Studies that consider personality traits such as extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness (McCrae & Costa, 1997) as influencing factors for individuals' social media behaviour show inconsistent results (Picazo-Vela *et al.*, 2010; Ross *et al.*, 2009).

Despite substantial attention on consumer engagement research in recent years, this field remains underexplored (Leckie, Nyadzayo & Johnson, 2016). The role of consumers' characteristics and the influence of consumer-related factors in generating online consumer engagement need further investigation. Studies that examine individual behaviours within social media networks mainly focus on individuals' social media involvement and behaviour in general, and report varying and inconsistent results (e.g. Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Marbach, Lages & Nunan, 2016; Ross *et al.*, 2009; Ryan & Xenos, 2011). Furthermore, marketing research in this area is mainly limited to the online shopping, and commercial products. To the best of our knowledge, this research is the first study which specifically explores the impacts of individual characteristics and personality in stimulating online consumer engagement in social marketing.

This paper investigates online consumer engagement, emphasising and focusing on the role of consumer-related factors such as regulatory focus, personality and involvement. Our main goal is to explore whether individuals with particular characteristics, preferences and personality traits are more likely to react to and engage in spreading social marketing messages. We also examine the extent to which involvement factors, both product involvement and social media involvement, influence consumers' level of engagement in health messages.

Also, most research in this area investigates people's *intention* as opposed to their *actual* online behaviour (e.g. Cheung & Lee, 2012). In study 1, we take a behavioural approach and look at social marketing consumer engagement by examining the impact of personality traits and social media involvement on consumers' engagement behaviour under different incentive conditions (monetary, non-monetary tangible, non-monetary intangible: wall-of-fame, and none) and message appeal (fear versus informative) conditions. In study 1, we conduct a series of online experiments on Facebook, manipulating four incentive and two message appeal conditions, to measure consumer engagement behaviour under different experimental conditions. We then conduct a follow-up online survey with the same participants asking questions about their personality traits, preferences and involvement. This enables us to examine whether there are any associations between survey responses and their actual behaviour towards our messages in the Facebook phase of the study.

Study 2 investigates the role of individual factors on different dimensions of consumer engagement including intentional engagement, emotional engagement, cognitive engagement and WOM intention (Solem & Pedersen, 2016) across four different health messages—two framed with a fear appeal, and two framed with an informative appeal. Study 2 conducts an online survey, recruiting participants from an online panel, to examine the extent to which individual factors influence *intentional* consumer engagement on social media. The next

section reviews the individual factors proposed in this research, discussing the ways in which these factors may impact people's online engagement within social media.

4.2 Individual factors and online consumer engagement

This research examines the effects of consumer-related factors, termed *individual* factors in this research, among the factors proposed in the existing literature such as *product type* (Berger & Schwartz, 2011; Berger, 2011; Wangenheim & Bayon, 2007; Sundaram, Mitra & Webster, 1998), *message content* (Barger, Peltier & Schultz, 2016; Berger, 2014; Berger & Milkman, 2012; Chen & Berger, 2013; Devin *et al.*, 2007; Michaelidou, Dibb & Ali, 2008), *consumer involvement* (Leckie, Nyadzayo & Johnson, 2016; Malär *et al.*, 2011), individuals' *intrinsic motivation* (Arnold & Reynolds, 2003; Berger, 2014; Cui *et al.*, 2014; Lu & Su, 2009; Shang, Chen & Shen, 2005; Smith, Fischer & Yongjian, 2012), and *personality* (Acar & Polonsky, 2007; Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Ryan & Xenos, 2011; Seidman, 2013). In particular, this paper focuses on consumer-related factors, investigates whether individual factors of regulatory focus, personality traits and involvement influence consumer online engagement for social marketing messages.

4.2.1 Personality traits

Previous research shows that there is an association between individuals' personality and their social media behaviour (Acar & Polonsky, 2007; Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Marbach, Lages & Nunan, 2016; Ryan & Xenos, 2011; Ross *et al.*, 2009). Seidman (2013)

uses the Big Five personality traits of extroversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, conscientiousness and openness (McCrae & Costa, 1997) to examine personality effects on individuals' Facebook use. Extroversion is the personality trait of seeking fulfilment from sources outside the self or in the community. Extroverted people tend to be very social while introverted individuals prefer to be alone and work on their own. Research shows extroverts are more outgoing and sociable within online platforms and more likely to voice their opinions (Amiel & Sargent, 2004; Correa, Willard & Zúniga, 2010; Ross *et al.*, 2009). Agreeableness reflects how friendly an individual is and how much they adjust their behaviour to suit others (Costa & McCrae, 1992b). Research shows that agreeable people are more likely to engage in pro-social behaviours since they care about the well-being of others. Agreeable people are also more likely to appreciate others' comments in online platforms, as well as produce e-WOM (Marbach, Lages & Nunan, 2016). Conscientiousness is the personality trait of being honest and hardworking, and high scorers tend to be precise, organised, follow rules and work ethic (Costa & McCrae, 1992a; Marbach, Lages & Nunan, 2016). Conscientious individuals may show a higher propensity to engage in pro-social behaviours, and may feel more obligated to engage in social marketing messages (Stutzer, Goette, & Zehnder, 2011). Neuroticism is the personality trait of being emotional, where neurotic individuals use online platforms to avoid loneliness (Butt & Phillips, 2008; Ryan & Xenos, 2011). Openness is the personality trait of seeking new experiences and intellectual pursuits. Those with a high score in openness are more flexible, sociable and open-minded, and are therefore expected to engage in a greater range of activities through a wider variety of means (Butt & Phillips, 2008; Ross *et al.*, 2009).

Extrovert and narcissistic individuals are more likely to be Facebook users compared to socially lonely individuals (Ryan & Xenos, 2011). Extroverted people are more likely to have a greater number of network connections and thus maintain a broader social network (Acar & Polonsky, 2007). Seidman (2013) finds that agreeable individuals have strong

belongingness motivations and Facebook is a tool which helps them meet their needs. Facebook is also beneficial for neurotic individuals, who often suffer from social difficulties, by providing them a way to meet their self-presentation needs which are not sufficiently met offline (Seidman, 2013). Picazo-Vela *et al.*, (2010) find neuroticism and conscientiousness as significant drivers of e-WOM intention. In another study, Marbach, Lages and Nunan (2016) find that introverted and disagreeable people are less likely to be engaged with Facebook brand pages, whereas openness is positively related to online engagement. On the other hand, Ross *et al.*, (2009) find that personality traits are related to some aspects of Facebook use, however, the role of personality characteristics on social media use is not as significant as found by previous research. Ross *et al.*, (2009) argue that although extroverts belong to significantly more groups on Facebook, the number of Facebook friends they are connected to is not significantly greater than others.

To more effectively segment, evaluate and manage audience targeting, and to better stimulate consumers' online engagement through tailored messages and customised targeting, it is crucial to understand what personality traits motivate individuals to be engaged on social media. In particular, this paper explores the way in which personality traits affect online consumer engagement for social marketing messages. Taken together, we suggest that individuals' personality traits influence how they engage and react to health-related social marketing messages.

Besides personality, incentives and the type of message appeal are among the important factors to take into account in order to encourage online engagement and stimulate positive e-WOM. Many studies show that incentives can effectively stimulate people to undertake a task or change behaviour, the greater the incentive the greater the performance or level of effort. Other studies indicate that offering incentives, under certain situations, comes into conflict with

individuals' internal motives, resulting in a crowding out effect and lower performance (Gneezy, Meier & Rey-Biel, 2011). We argue that offering monetary incentives demotivates people, which may be contingent on certain personality traits. Non-monetary incentives, in contrast, may encourage consumers to engage and react to online messages.

H1: Personality traits affect online consumer engagement behaviour in social marketing health messages within social media networks.

H1a: Individuals high in extroversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, conscientiousness and openness are more likely to engage in social marketing health messages within social media.

H1b: *Monetary* incentives demotivate individuals who are highly extroverted, agreeable, neurotic, conscientious and open to engage in social marketing health messages within social media.

H1c: *Non-monetary* incentives, both *tangible* and *intangible* rewards, encourage individuals who are highly extroverted, agreeable, neurotic, conscientious and open to engage in social marketing health messages within social media.

H2: Personality traits affect consumer engagement intention in social marketing health messages within social media networks.

H2a: Individuals high in extroversion, agreeableness and neuroticism report higher *intention* to engage in social marketing health messages within social media.

4.2.2 Regulatory focus

This paper examines how, based on regulatory focus theory, promotion-focus versus prevention-focus individuals react to the study's health messages. "Regulatory focus can be seen as a general worldview and has cognitive, emotional and behavioural consequences for how individuals respond to the world" (Higgins, 1998 cited in Stekelenburg, 2006, p. 3). Promotion-focus is represented by needs, values and goals such as nurturance needs, self-direction and stimulation values, ideal goals, gain/no gain and eagerness. Prevention-focus is represented by security needs, tradition and conformity values, no-loss/loss, and vigilance (Higgins, 1997; Higgins, 1998). Promotion-focus can be defined as motivation to achieve aspirations or accomplishments, while prevention-focus is motivation to meet responsibilities and obligations and obtain protection and safety (Werth & Forster, 2007).

Promotion-focused individuals are willing to make effort and move forward to obtain their desired outcomes, whereas prevention-focused individuals want to ensure that they avoid mistakes in achieving their favourite outcomes (Werth & Forster, 2007). Solem and Pedersen (2016) find regulatory fit as a key driver of consumer brand engagement in social media, and investigate how regulatory fit explains different dimensions of emotional, cognitive, intentional and behavioural engagement. They argue that prevention-oriented brand activities best evoke both intentional and cognitive engagement, whereas promotion-oriented activities evoke emotional engagement. Roy and Ng (2012) show that promotion-focused consumers are affectively-driven and react more positively towards products or ads when the hedonic features are highlighted whereas prevention-focused people are more cognitively-driven and demonstrate more positive reaction to products or ads with utilitarian features.

People are more likely to react to the information that is consistent with their regulatory goals. They also experience more positive feelings when adopting a strategy that fits their regulatory focus (Aaker & Lee, 2006; Avnet & Higgins, 2006). Zhao and Pechmann (2007) demonstrate that anti-smoking advertisements' persuasiveness is enhanced when the ads are framed to match individuals' regulatory focus. Motyka *et al.*, (2014) believe that important marketing factors such as evaluation, intentional behaviour and actual behaviour are influenced differently by regulatory fit, and call for further research on the effects of regulatory fit as an independent factor with behavioural outcomes. In this paper, we examine the ways in which people's regulatory focus (promotion-focus versus prevention-focus) influences different dimensions of engagement for social marketing messages:

H3: Promotion-focus is positively associated with emotional engagement for social marketing health messages.

H4: Prevention-focus is positively associated with cognitive engagement, as well as WOM intention for social marketing health messages.

H5: Promotion-focused individuals (versus prevention-focused individuals) are more likely to report their intention to engage in emotional messages such as fear appeals.

H6: Prevention-focused individuals (versus promotion-focused individuals) are more likely to report their intention to engage in rational, informative messages.

4.2.3 Product involvement

Product involvement with regards to knowledge, experience and familiarity can lead to a high customer engagement in terms of both positive and negative WOM. The excitement or satisfaction generated by using a product, or even simply personal interest in a specific product, stimulates positive WOM and e-WOM (Berger, 2011; Casaló, Flavián & Guinalíu, 2008; Finn, Wang & Frank, 2008; Sundaram, Mitra & Webster, 1998; Wangenheim & Bayon, 2007; Wolny & Mueller, 2013). Cui *et al.* (2014) suggest that high product involvement has a positive influence on e-WOM intention. Berger (2011) further clarifies that high product involvement leads to e-WOM either intentionally or unintentionally. Wolny and Mueller (2013) find that product involvement influences consumers' propensity to engage in e-WOM. The amount of product use by former consumers has an impact on information contagion (Iyengar, Van Den Bulte & Valente, 2011).

We therefore propose product involvement as another individual factor that may influence consumers' behaviour in social media networks. The distinctive nature of social marketing products, such as behavioural or lifestyle changes, may play an even more crucial role, which needs to be taken into account. It is unknown whether product involvement in the context of social marketing energises consumer engagement and e-WOM. Social marketing typically addresses difficult behavioural and lifestyle changes such as smoking cessation, healthy eating, exercising, or drinking in moderation. Therefore, unlike product involvement in commercial marketing, people who are highly involved in these types of harmful activities might not react to messages that encourage consumers to stop or change their behaviour. Research shows that this is especially true when the activity is highly controversial and engaging in the activity is not socially accepted (Chen & Berger, 2014). For instance, someone

who smokes may not be willing to pay attention to or get engaged in a message that is trying to tell them that smoking is not good for their health, and they may choose simply to ignore the message. Alternately, if a smoker views the social marketing message as threatening their personal or social identity, they may be motivated to justify their behaviour. This research examines the following hypothesis on the impact of product involvement in social marketing message engagement:

H7: Consumers who are highly involved in the behaviour change product are more likely to report higher intention to engage in social marketing messages within social media networks.

4.3 Study 1: A 4 x 2 laboratory experiment, followed by an online survey

Study 1 tests hypothesis H1a investigating whether consumers with high versus low scores in a particular personality traits react differently to health-related message. This study also tests hypotheses H1b and H1c examining the interaction between personality traits and incentives on generating consumer engagement behaviour. We argue that offering monetary incentives demotivate individuals with high scores in each personality trait. On the other hand, we suggest non-monetary incentives both tangible and intangible stimulate those with high score in a particular personality trait to engage in health-related online messages. Therefore, we anticipate a lower level of total engagement behaviour by those who score high (versus average or low) in each personality trait under monetary condition, while a higher level of engagement under non-monetary conditions. The main purpose is to examine whether people with different

personality traits engage and react differently to fear and informative ads in the Facebook phase, as well as whether there is an interaction effect between incentive conditions and personality traits. Personality traits are self-reported variables, measured through a follow-up online survey with the same participants who participated in the Facebook phase of this study.

4.3.1 Study 1: Method

The study 1 experiment is a 4 x 2 mixed experimental design conducted on Facebook, which manipulates incentive conditions (monetary, tangible non-monetary, intangible non-monetary and none) and message appeal conditions (informative versus fear), while controlling for a health issue (smoking) (see Appendix G). The monetary condition offered a chance to win a \$50 gift card, the non-monetary condition was a chance to win two movie tickets and the non-monetary intangible condition presented the opportunity to be featured on a ‘wall of fame’ (see Appendix G). Over two rounds of experiments, 254 undergraduate and postgraduate student subjects were randomly assigned to one of four Facebook groups: three incentive groups and one control group. The group size of each condition ranged from 60 to 65. Subjects in each group were simultaneously exposed to the same two messages on the negative effects of smoking, with one message framed as a fear appeal and one as an informative appeal. Subjects were instructed to take part in the online discussion by sharing, commenting and liking posts on their Facebook group page.

Over a two-week period, the number of likes, comments, shares and other activities such as liking and replying to others’ comments, and mentioning others was recorded for each message posted in each group. Detailed statistics on interactions with the ads, such as likes, comments and shares, were used to show different types of engagement behaviour (Lim *et al.*,

2017). A summation of all Facebook activities, each given an equal weighting, generated total engagement for the fear ad and informative ad as dependent variables.

The second stage of data collection required the same participants to take part in the study's online survey, answering questions about their social media use, and their personality traits. Following the approach used in previous studies (e.g. Seidman, 2013), this study incorporated Saucier's (1994) 5-point Likert Scale 40-Item Mini-Markers Set, a brief version of Goldberg's (1990) unipolar Big-Five Markers, to measure the five major personality dimensions of extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness (McCrae & Costa, 1991; Costa & McCrae, 1992). The online survey also included some questions about each respondent's social media use, such as the frequency of Facebook use, time spent at every login (Gainsbury *et al.*, 2016) and the number of Facebook connections, to measure social media involvement as another independent variable. Social media involvement is measured by factors such as duration, frequency and amount of use by network members, and also their top activities and topics engaged (Chu & Kim, 2011). This research examines whether a higher use of social media networking sites in general positively influences online consumer engagement.

4.3.2 Study 1: Results and discussion

Table 4.1 compares online consumer engagement behaviour for both informative and fear appeals across incentive conditions regardless of personality factors. As Table 4.1 illustrates, overall the monetary incentive condition outperforms the other incentive conditions and encourages the greatest level of total engagement. The most engagement is generated for the fear appeal ad under the monetary condition (n=138, mean score of activities per participant:

1.92), whereas the least engagement is generated for the informative ad under the wall of fame incentive condition (n=84, mean score: 1.14). Repeated measures ANOVA considering incentives as between-subject factors and message appeal as within-subject factors reveals a significant main effect for message appeal ($F=5.489$, $p=0.020$), whereas there is an insignificant main effect for incentive conditions across the informative ad ($F=1.20$, $p\text{-value}=0.308$), and fear ad ($F=0.398$, $p\text{-value}=0.755$).

Table 4.1: Mean scores for ad appeals by incentive conditions regardless of personality traits

Study 1		Monetary (\$50 gift card)	Non-monetary (two-movie tickets)	Non-monetary (wall of fame)	None	Total
		N (Mean)	N (Mean)	N (Mean)	N (Mean)	N (Mean)
Informative appeal ad	Likes	26 (.36)	32 (.44)	35 (.47)	42 (.58)	135 (.46)
	Comments	35 (.49)	24 (.32)	28 (.38)	34 (.47)	121 (.41)
	Shares	7 (.10)	4 (.05)	5 (.07)	4 (.05)	20 (.07)
	Total ¹	117 (1.63)	95 (1.28)	84 (1.14)	98 (1.34)	394 (1.34)
Fear appeal ad	Likes	35 (.49)	35 (.47)	44 (.59)	49 (.67)	163 (.56)
	Comments	42 (.58)	29 (.39)	40 (.54)	39 (.53)	150 (.51)
	Shares	6 (.08)	4 (.05)	4 (.05)	5 (.07)	19 (.06)
	Total ¹	138 (1.92)	120 (1.62)	128 (1.73)	115 (1.58)	501 (1.71)
Total Engagement	Likes	61 (.85)	67 (.92)	79 (1.07)	91 (1.25)	298 (1.02)
	Comments	77 (1.07)	53 (.72)	68 (.92)	73 (1.00)	271 (.92)
	Shares	13 (.18)	8 (.11)	9 (.12)	9 (.12)	39 (.13)
	Total ¹	255 (3.54)	215 (2.91)	212 (2.86)	213 (2.92)	895 (3.06)

¹Total includes all the other types of Facebook activities, in addition to like, comment and share (i.e. liking comment, replying to comment, mentioning others).

Mean= mean activities per participants.

Sample size: n=294.

Taking into account personality traits, a comparison of mean number of engagement activities reveals that non-monetary rewards work best for individuals with high extroversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness scores regardless of the ad appeals, with the only exception being high agreeableness individuals who are more engaged in an informative message with a monetary reward. To examine engagement behaviour across personality traits, Table 4.2 compares the fear and informative engagement behaviour for participants with high versus low personality scores in extroversion and conscientiousness (as the two personality traits that show stronger results) across incentive conditions.

Following Ross *et al.*'s (2009) approach, we compare participants who scored in the highest third versus those who scored in the lowest third on a particular personality dimension. Table 4.2 suggests that individuals with different types of personalities engage differently in informative ads versus fear ads, as well as behave differently across incentive conditions. As shown in Table 4.2, the highest level of engagement is by high conscientiousness people on the fear ad (mean score=2.67), while the lowest level of engagement is by low conscientiousness people on the informative ad (mean score=0.96), both under the non-monetary condition. To generate online engagement for an informative ad, monetary rewards work best for people with a low extroversion score (mean=2.17 versus mean=1.00 under the control condition), while non-monetary rewards work for people with a high extroversion score (mean=2.42 versus mean=1.48 under the control condition).

Table 4.2: Engagement behaviour for personality traits across incentives and appeals

Personality Traits			Monetary Mean	Non-monetary Mean	Wall of fame Mean	None Mean
Informative Engagement Behaviour	Extroversion	Low	2.17 (n=24)	1.08 (n=24)	1.16 (n=19)	1.00 (n=25)
		High	1.26 (n=19)	2.42 (n=19)	1.04 (n=25)	1.48 (n=21)
	Conscientiousness	Low	1.68 (n=22)	0.96 (n=27)	1.16 (n=32)	1.61 (n=23)
		High	2.00 (n=26)	2.33 (n=15)	1.20 (n=15)	1.13 (n=23)
Fear Engagement Behaviour	Extroversion	Low	2.17 (n=24)	1.83 (n=24)	1.37 (n=19)	1.48 (n=25)
		High	1.37 (n=19)	2.37 (n=19)	2.08 (n=25)	1.81 (n=21)
	Conscientiousness	Low	1.64 (n=22)	1.89 (n=27)	2.16 (n=32)	1.83 (n=23)
		High	2.35 (n=26)	2.67 (n=15)	1.47 (n=15)	1.43 (n=23)

Mean= mean activities per participants.
Sample size: n= 140.

Two-way ANOVA tests do not find any significant main or interaction effects for incentives and personality traits for the fear ad. Our findings therefore suggest that to stimulate online engagement behaviour on a fear ad, there is no need to incentivise people, as incentives do not significantly increase consumers' level of online engagement on a fear ad.

However to stimulate engagement behaviour on an informative ad, the interaction between incentives and personality traits of extroversion and conscientiousness matters. Two-way ANOVA tests examining incentives and personality trait of extroversion as the independent variables, and engagement behaviour on the informative ad as the dependent variable, find insignificant main effects for incentives ($F=1.67$, $p\text{-value}=0.175$), and insignificant main effects for extroversion ($F=0.601$, $p\text{-value}=0.439$), however there is a significant interaction effect between incentives and extroversion ($F=3.36$, $p\text{-value}=0.020$). The overall model is also significant ($F=2.2.7$, $p\text{-value}=0.031$) (see Table 4.3).

Therefore, as Figure 4.1 illustrates, to engage low extroverted people (introverts) monetary incentives work best, however to engage high extroverted individuals non-monetary incentives work best. Offering a social recognition incentive through featuring individuals on a wall of fame produces the worst outcome on stimulating online engagement for social marketing messages. In further analysis on low extroversion, ANOVA tests show a significant main effect for incentives ($F=3.28$, $p\text{-value}=0.024$). Post-hoc analysis reveals significant mean differences between monetary and control conditions (mean difference=1.17, $p\text{-value}=0.007$), between monetary and non-monetary conditions (mean difference=1.08, $p\text{-value}=0.013$), and between monetary and wall of fame conditions (mean difference=1.01, $p\text{-value}=0.029$). A monetary incentive therefore generates a significantly higher level of total engagement on the informative ad compared to the other three incentive conditions.

Table 4.3: Two-way ANOVA for incentives and extroversion

Study 1	Dependent variable	F-value	p-value
Overall Model	Engagement Behaviour -Informative ad	2.27**	0.031
Incentive main effect	Engagement Behaviour- Informative ad	1.67	0.175
Extroversion main effect	Engagement Behaviour -Informative ad	0.60	0.439
Incentives * Extroversion interaction effect	Engagement Behaviour -Informative ad	3.36**	0.200

**significant at the 0.05 level.

Sample size: n= 140.

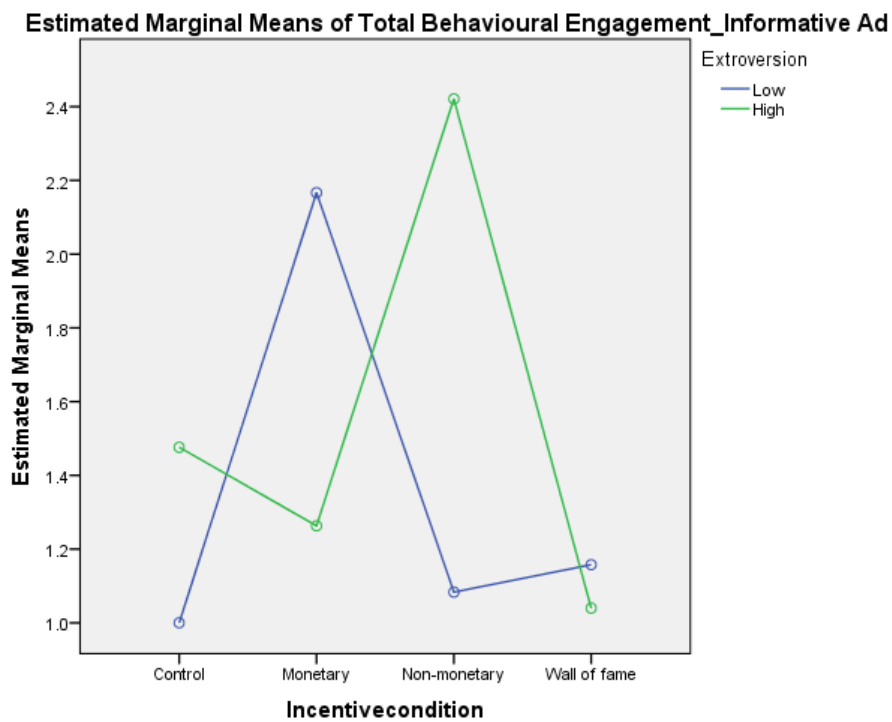


Figure 4.1: Engagement behaviour by high versus low extroversion under incentive conditions

Although two-way ANOVA tests examining incentives and the personality trait of conscientiousness as the independent variables and engagement behaviour on the informative ad as the dependent variable reveal insignificant main effects for incentives ($F=1.44$, $p\text{-value}=0.233$) and insignificant main effects for conscientiousness ($F=1.60$, $p\text{-value}=0.207$). A significant interaction effect between incentives and conscientiousness is found at the 10% level of significance ($F=2.37$, $p\text{-value}=0.072$). The overall model is also significant at the 10% level of significance ($F=1.83$, $p\text{-value}=0.083$) (see Table 4.4). Post-hoc tests find significant mean differences between monetary and wall of fame conditions (mean difference=0.68, $p\text{-value}=0.041$).

As Figure 4.2 illustrates, to engage low conscientiousness people monetary incentives work best, however a non-monetary incentive is more effective in engaging high conscientiousness individuals. Similar to extroversion, the wall of fame condition generates the lowest level of online engagement for social marketing messages. Although ANOVA tests show an insignificant main effect across incentives for total engagement by low conscientiousness people ($F=1.52$, $p\text{-value}=0.214$), post-hoc analysis reveals significant mean differences between monetary and non-monetary conditions at the 10% level of significance ($MD=0.72$, $p\text{-value}=0.079$). Low conscientiousness people therefore prefer a monetary reward to a non-monetary reward to be stimulated and engaged in social marketing e-WOM.

Similarly, ANOVA tests do not find a significant main effect for incentive for high conscientiousness individuals, but post-hoc tests reveal significant mean differences between non-monetary and control conditions at the 10% level of significance ($MD=1.20$, $p\text{-value}=0.055$).

Table 4.4: Two-way ANOVA for incentives and conscientiousness

Study 1	Dependent variable	F-value	p-value
Overall Model	Engagement Behaviour-Informative ad	1.83*	0.083
Incentive main effect	Engagement Behaviour-Informative ad	1.44	0.233
Conscientiousness main effect	Engagement Behaviour- Informative ad	1.60	0.207
Incentives * Conscientiousness interaction effect	Engagement Behaviour-Informative ad	2.37*	0.072

*Significant at the 0.1 level.

Sample size: n= 140.

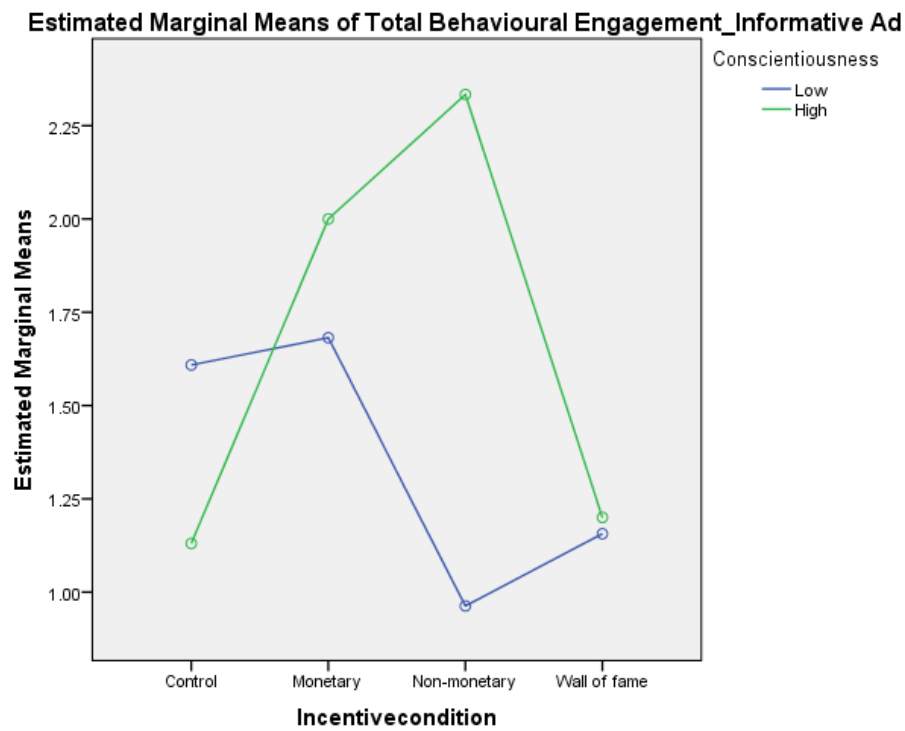


Figure 4.2: Engagement behaviour by high versus low conscientiousness under each incentive conditions

4.4 Study 2: An online survey

Study 2 tests hypothesis H2a investigating the effects of personality traits, as well as hypotheses H3, H4, H5 and H6 investigating the impact of regulatory focus on people's intention to engage in health messages. We argue that promotion-focus is positively associated with emotional engagement, while prevention-focus is positively associated with cognitive engagement and WOM intention. We also suggest that promotion-focused individuals (versus prevention-focused) are more likely to indicate their intention in engaging in emotional fear messages, whereas prevention-focused individuals engage in rational informative messages. This study also tests hypothesis H7 on product involvement, arguing that individuals who are highly involved with social marketing behavioural product show higher propensity to engage in social marketing online messages.

This study uses the same message appeals as study 1, but tests them on two health issues, smoking and heavy drinking. We suggest that, overall, a fear appeal attracts a greater level of intentional engagement compared to an informative appeal, and therefore expect individuals to indicate higher intention in engaging in the two fear ads, compared to the informative ads for both smoking and alcohol use. Overall, the aim is to observe whether people with different regulatory focus approaches react differently to the study's four ads.

4.4.1 Study 2: Method

Study 2 uses an online survey to explore the impact of individual factors on different dimensions of engagement—online intentional engagement, emotional, cognitive and WOM

intention. This study uses respondents from an online panel at findparticipants.com, offering them a chance of winning one of the 5 x \$50 gift card. Study 2's online survey exposes respondents to the four different ads and asks questions to measure their intention to react to the ads by liking, commenting or sharing if they see the ads as Facebook posts in their Facebook Newsfeed. Two of the four ads are about negative aspects of smoking cigarettes, one framed with a fear appeal and the other one with an informative appeal, and two ads are about negative effects of heavy drinking, one framed with a fear appeal and the other with an informative appeal (see Appendix G). This study measures three dimensions of psychological engagement of emotional engagement, cognitive engagement and WOM intention as dependent variables (Solem & Pedersen, 2016) on the four ads. As another dependent variable intentional online engagement is computed as the average score of how likely respondents are to like, share, comment, react (using Facebook reactions), read through or reply to others' comments already made on the ads. A 5-point Likert scale, ranging from completely disagree to completely agree, measures the likelihood of online engagement intention on the ads (see Appendix H). The online engagement intention construct contains six items with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.921 for Ad1 (smoking fear), 0.934 for Ad2 (smoking informative), 0.940 for Ad3 (alcohol fear) and 0.940 for Ad4 (alcohol informative). Following Solem and Pedersen (2016), emotional engagement is measured by the item "this ad evokes my feelings", cognitive engagement is measured by the item "this ad evokes my interest" and WOM intention by the item "this ad is so special that it makes me want to talk about it to others".

To measure our first independent variable, regulatory focus, we use the short version of the RFQ-proverb scale, developed by Stekelenburg (2006). This scale contains 14 items with seven promotion proverbs and seven prevention proverbs requiring respondents to answer the following question "to what extent do the following sayings apply to you", on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'not at all' to 'very much'. To examine the construct validity of the RFQ-

proverb scale in our study, we run Cronbach's Alpha for the two subscales of RFQ-proverb, promotion-focus and prevention-focus, each including seven items. Cronbach's Alpha for the subscale promotion-focus is 0.803, and 0.819 for the subscale prevention-focus (see Appendix H).

Personality traits, as independent variables, are measured similarly to study 1, incorporating Saucier's (1994) 5-point Likert Scale 40-Item Mini-Markers Set to measure the three (out of five) major personality dimensions of extroversion, agreeableness and neuroticism (Costa & McCrae, 1992; McCrae & Costa, 1991). Each personality construct contains eight items, with Cronbach's Alpha of 0.823 for extroversion, 0.768 for agreeableness and 0.765 for neuroticism. The online survey also includes some questions on each respondent's social media use, such as the frequency of Facebook use, time spent every login and the number of Facebook connections, to measure *social media involvement* as another individual variable. The online survey also contains questions to measure product involvement as an independent variable, whether the respondent is a smoker or heavy drinker. The 140 respondents are from an international online panel (www.findparticipants.com) who are aged 18 years or older and have a Facebook account.

4.4.2 Study 2: Results and discussion

Table 4.5 provides correlations (Pearson) between individual factors as independent variables and different dimensions of consumer engagement as dependent variables across the four ads (fear smoking, informative smoking, fear alcohol and informative alcohol). As shown in Table 4.5, there are strong positive correlations between promotion-focus and all dimensions of engagement across ads, at the 1% level of significance. The prevention-focus variable,

however, is only associated with intentional online engagement across the four ads, at the 1% level of significance. Prevention-focus is also associated with WOM intention for the fear smoking ad (at the 10% level of significance), the informative smoking ad (at the 5% level of significance) and the fear alcohol ad (at the 10% level of significance). Prevention-focus is not significantly correlated with emotional and cognitive engagement, with the exception of the fear alcohol ad.

Looking at personality traits, extroversion is positively associated with almost all dimensions of engagement, except for the informative alcohol ad. Agreeableness, however, is not significantly correlated with engagement variables, with some exceptions in which there is not strong correlation (emotional engagement for the fear smoking ad, at the 10% level of significance; and cognitive and WOM intention for the fear alcohol ad, at the 10% level of significance). In terms of product involvement, smoking consumption for the individual is positively correlated with informative smoking ad intentional engagement, cognitive and WOM intention—at the 10% level of significance. However, alcohol consumption is not significantly correlated to level of engagement on the fear or informative alcohol ads. With social media involvement, frequency of using Facebook is not significantly correlated with any dimensions of consumer engagement across the four ads, while there are strong significant associations between time spent (every time they login to Facebook) and some dimensions of engagement. For instance, there is strong correlation between time spent on Facebook and intentional online engagement at the 1% level of significance for the two smoking ads, and at the 5% level of significance for the two alcohol ads. Age is positively associated with level of engagement for some dimensions of engagement; for the fear smoking ad, age is correlated with intentional online engagement and cognitive engagement (both at the 5% level) and WOM intention (at the 1% level). The correlation analyses show no significant association between gender or number of Facebook connections and level of engagement across the four ads.

Table 4.5: Correlations between independent and dependent variables

Correlations (Pearson)		Regulatory Focus		Personality Traits		Product Involvement	Social media involvement	Age
		Promotion-focus	Prevention-focus	Extroversion	Agreeableness	Smoking Consumption	Time spent	
Fear Smoking	Intentional Online Engagement	.298***	.343***	.204**	ns	ns	.270***	.214**
	Emotional Engagement	.322***	ns	.178*	.197**	ns	ns	ns
	Cognitive Engagement	.308***	ns	.275***	ns	ns	ns	.232**
	WOM Intention	.242***	.180*	.304***	ns	ns	.205**	.240***
Informative Smoking	Intentional Online Engagement	.307***	.324***	.213**	ns	.163*	.254***	.220**
	Emotional Engagement	.302***	ns	.330***	ns	ns	ns	.163*
	Cognitive Engagement	.278***	ns	.295***	ns	.162*	ns	ns
	WOM Intention	.315***	.226**	.256***	ns	.157*	.206**	.159*
Fear Alcohol	Intentional Online Engagement	.299***	.294***	.193**	ns	-	.180**	ns
	Emotional Engagement	.370***	.192**	.186**	ns	-	ns	ns
	Cognitive Engagement	.317***	.161*	.219**	.155*	-	ns	ns
	WOM Intention	.348***	.169*	.308***	.182*	-	ns	ns
Informative Alcohol	Intentional Online Engagement	.278***	.322***	ns	ns	-	.218**	.168*
	Emotional Engagement	.342***	ns	ns	ns	-	ns	ns
	Cognitive Engagement	.241***	ns	ns	ns	-	ns	ns
	WOM Intention	.254***	ns	.171*	ns	-	ns	ns

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

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.1 level (2-tailed).

Ns: Not statistically significant

Regulatory focus

Following Ross *et al.*'s (2009) approach, scores in regulatory focus are divided into three different groups: high, average and low. Analysis of variances (ANOVA) is then performed to investigate whether individuals with high, average and low scores on promotion-focus behave differently in indicating their intention to engage in the study's ads. One-way ANOVA shows significant main effects for promotion-focus across almost all dimensions of engagement for the four ads (see Table 4.6). Promotion-focus is a significant driver of intentional online engagement and WOM intention across all ads. Post-hoc tests (LSD) indicate that promotion-focused individuals are significantly more likely to show their intention to engage in social marketing health messages, regardless of message appeal and product type. As shown in Table 4.5, promotion-focused people are also more likely to emotionally engage in informative ads regardless of product type. In cognitive engagement, promotion-focused individuals have a higher propensity to engage in smoking ads, especially the informative smoking ad.

One-way ANOVA tests find significant main effects for prevention-focus and intentional engagement, while there are no significant mean differences for other dimensions of engagement across the four ads. Post-hoc tests (LSD) reveal that individuals with a high score in prevention-focus (versus low and average scores) are more likely to show their intention in engaging in the four ads, regardless of product type and message appeal. There are no significant differences between prevention-focused categories for emotional or cognitive engagement, as well as WOM intention (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6: On-way ANOVA and post-hoc (LSD) analyses for regulatory focus across dimensions of engagement

One-way ANOVA		Regulatory focus			
		Promotion-focus		Prevention-focus	
		F-value	Significant mean differences (post-hoc)	F-value	Significant mean differences (post-hoc)
Intentional Online Engagement	Fear Smoking ad	5.05***	High > Low ***	7.64***	High > Low *** High > Average ***
	Fear Alcohol ad	5.96***	High > Low *** Average > Low**	4.16**	High > Low ** High > Average **
	Informative Smoking ad	7.08***	High > Low *** Average > Low**	5.99***	High > Low *** High > Average **
	Informative Alcohol ad	5.08***	High > Low *** Average > Low**	4.72**	High > Low *** High > Average **
Emotional Engagement	Fear Smoking ad	2.37*	High > Low **	ns	ns
	Fear Alcohol ad	ns	High > Low *	ns	ns
	Informative Smoking ad	7.27***	High > Low *** Average > Low***	ns	High > Average *
	Informative Alcohol ad	6.08***	High > Low *** Average > Low***	ns	ns
Cognitive Engagement	Fear Smoking ad	2.87*	High > Low **	ns	ns
	Fear Alcohol ad	ns	High > Low *	ns	ns
	Informative Smoking ad	6.34***	High > Low *** Average > Low**	ns	ns
	Informative Alcohol ad	ns	ns	ns	ns
WOM Intention	Fear Smoking ad	3.22**	High > Low ** High > Average *	ns	High > Low *
	Fear Alcohol ad	5.43***	High > Low *** Average > Low***	ns	ns
	Informative Smoking ad	6.88***	High > Low *** Average > Low** High > Average *	ns	High > Low *
	Informative Alcohol ad	3.49***	High > Low ** Average > Low**	ns	ns

*** ANOVA test is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

** ANOVA test is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

* ANOVA test is significant at the 0.1 level (2-tailed).

Ns: Not statistically significant.

Sample size: n=140.

Personality traits

Following Ross *et al.* (2009), each personality trait is divided into three different categories: high, average and low scores. One-way ANOVA tests are implemented to examine whether those with high, average and low scores on a particular personality trait engage differently in the study's four ads. As shown in Table 4.7, one-way ANOVA tests show significant main effects for extroversion across almost all dependent variables for the four ads. Extroversion is a significant driver of WOM intention, especially for fear ads regardless of product type. However, one-way ANOVA tests find no significant main effect for extroversion and intention for online engagement across all ads. For cognitive engagement, extroversion shows a significant main effect only for the smoking ads, regardless of message appeal. There is a significant main effect for extroversion for emotional engagement only on the informative smoking ad (see Table 4.7). Post-hoc tests (LSD) reveal significant mean differences between high extroversion and low extroversion categories across most of the dependent variables, except for intention to engage in the informative alcohol ad as well as emotional and cognitive engagement for the informative ads (see Table 4.7).

Looking into the personality trait of agreeableness, one-way ANOVA tests find significant main effects only for the fear alcohol ad on emotional engagement, cognitive engagement and WOM intention. There is also a significant main effect for extroversion on cognitive engagement of the fear smoking ad. Post-hoc tests (LSD) find no significant mean differences between agreeableness categories on intention to engage online, and intention to produce WOM (except for WOM intention for the fear alcohol ad).

Table 4.7: One-way ANOVA and post-hoc (LSD) analyses for personality traits across dimensions of engagement

One-way ANOVA		Personality traits			
		Extroversion		Agreeableness	
		F-value	Mean differences (post-hoc)	F-value	Mean differences (post-hoc)
Intentional Online Engagement	Fear Smoking ad	ns	High > Low**	ns	ns
	Fear Alcohol ad	ns	High > Low*	ns	ns
	Informative Smoking ad	ns	High > Low*	ns	ns
	Informative Alcohol ad	ns	ns	ns	ns
Emotional Engagement	Fear Smoking ad	ns	High > Low**	2.40*	High > Average**
	Fear Alcohol ad	2.74*	High > Low** Average > Low*	7.30***	High > Average*** High > Low**
	Informative Smoking ad	4.00**	High > Low*** Average > Low*	ns	ns
	Informative Alcohol ad	ns	ns	ns	High > Average*
Cognitive Engagement	Fear Smoking ad	4.32**	High > Low***	3.79**	High > Average*** Low > Average*
	Fear Alcohol ad	ns	High > Low*	5.54***	High > Low** High > Average***
	Informative Smoking ad	3.38**	High > Low** Average > Low**	ns	ns
	Informative Alcohol ad	ns	ns	ns	ns
WOM Intention	Fear Smoking ad	4.89***	High > Low*** Average > Low**	ns	ns
	Fear Alcohol ad	5.86***	High > Low*** Average > Low***	5.96***	High > Low** High > Average***
	Informative Smoking ad	3.29**	High > Low** Average > Low**	ns	ns
	Informative Alcohol ad	2.37*	High > Low* Average > Low*	ns	ns

*** ANOVA test is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

** ANOVA test is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

* ANOVA test is significant at the 0.1 level (2-tailed).

Ns: Not statistically significant.

Product involvement

As indicated in Table 4.8, one-way ANOVA tests reveal significant main effects for product involvement (smoking consumption) and online engagement intention in the fear smoking ad (F-value=4.43, p-value=0.002), and online engagement intention in the informative smoking ad (F-value=3.49, p-value=0.010). Post-hoc tests reveal those who never smoked cigarettes (non-smokers) are significantly more likely to show their intention to engage in the smoking ads than those who smoke cigarettes occasionally (social or occasional smokers), regardless of message appeal. Former smokers and light smokers (smoking at least 5-15 cigarettes per day) also show significantly higher propensity to engage in the smoking ad than social smokers, regardless of message appeal. Those who classify themselves as regular smokers (smoking at least 15-20 cigarettes a day) also show significantly higher intention to engage in social marketing smoking messages than both social smokers and non-smokers. We therefore argue that those who are highly involved with the product by smoking are more likely to engage in social marketing messages within social media. We further argue that product type matters, since analyses do not show similar results for high alcohol consumption and higher intention to engage in alcohol ads.

One-way ANOVA tests find significant main effects for smoking consumption and intention for generating WOM for smoking ads, especially for the informative smoking ad (F-value=2.45, p-value=0.050)—the fear smoking ad is significant at the 10% level of significance (F-value=2.042, p-value=0.093). Post-hoc tests reveal that former smokers and regular smokers are significantly more likely to indicate their WOM intention on the informative smoking ad, rather than non-smokers and social smokers (see Table 4.8). Overall, social smokers show consistently significantly lower intention to engage in smoking ads and to generate WOM.

Table 4.8: One-way ANOVA and post-hoc (LSD) analyses for product involvement
across dimensions of engagement

One-way ANOVA		Product Involvement (Smoking Consumption)	
		F-value	Mean differences (post-hoc)
Online Engagement intention	Fear Smoking ad	4.43***	Non-smokers > Social smokers*** Former smokers > Social smokers** Light smokers > Social smokers*** Regular smokers > Social smokers*** Regular smokers > Non-smokers**
	Informative Smoking ad	3.49***	Non-smokers > Social smokers** Former smokers > Social smokers* Light smokers > Social smokers*** Regular smokers > Non-smokers** Regular smokers > Social smokers***
Emotional Engagement	Fear Smoking ad	ns	Regular smokers > Non-smokers* Regular smokers > Former smokers* Regular smokers > Social smokers** Regular smokers > Light smokers*
	Informative Smoking ad	ns	Regular smokers > Non-smokers** Regular smokers > Former smokers** Regular smokers > Social smokers** Regular smokers > Light smokers**
Cognitive Engagement	Fear Smoking ad	ns	Regular smokers > Non-smokers** Regular smokers > Former smokers* Regular smokers > Social smokers** Regular smokers > Light smokers**
	Informative Smoking ad	2.06*	Regular smokers > Non-smokers*** Regular smokers > Former smokers** Regular smokers > Social smokers*** Regular smokers > Light smokers**
WOM Intention	Fear Smoking ad	2.04*	Non-smokers > Social smokers** Light smokers > Social smokers* Regular smokers > Social smokers**
	Informative Smoking ad	2.45**	Former smokers > Non-smokers** Former smokers > Social smokers** Regular smokers > Non-smokers** Regular smokers > Social smokers**

*** ANOVA test is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

** ANOVA test is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

* ANOVA test is significant at the 0.1 level (2-tailed).

Ns: Not statistically significant.

Sample size: n=140.

Social media involvement

Table 4.9 provides one-way ANOVA and post-hoc (LSD) analyses for social media involvement (time spent on Facebook) and intention to engage in the four ads in social media. One-way ANOVA tests find significant main effects for time spent on Facebook and intention for online engagement in the fear smoking ad (F-value=4.87, p-value=0.000), and intention for online engagement in the fear alcohol ad (F-value=3.45, p-value=0.006), the informative smoking ad (F-value=4.60, p-value=0.001) and the informative alcohol ad (F-value=4.00, p-value=0.002).

Post-hoc tests (LSD) reveal those who spend either 30 minutes to 1 hour or 1-2 hours every time they login to Facebook are significantly more likely to engage in the ads, compared to those who spent less than 30 minutes or more than 2 hours. We therefore suggest that time spent on social media is a driver of stimulating online consumer engagement, regardless of message appeal and product type. However, there is a turning point for amount of time consumers spend online and their intention to engage in messages. Those who spent more than 2 hours online every time are less likely to show their intention in engaging in the ads compared to those who spend between 30 minutes to 2 hours online.

Table 4.9: One-way ANOVA and post-hoc (LSD) analyses for social media involvement
(time spent online) across dimensions of engagement

One-way ANOVA		Social Media Involvement (Time spent on Facebook every time)	
		F-value	Mean differences (post-hoc)
Online Engagement Intention	Fear Smoking ad	4.87***	30 mins-1 hour > Less than 5 mins*** 30 mins-1 hour > 5-15 mins*** 30 mins-1 hour > 15-30 mins*** 30 mins-1 hour > 2-3 hours* 1-2 hours > Less than 5 mins*** 1-2 hours > 5-15 mins*** 1-2 hours > 15-30 mins*** 1-2 hours > 2-3 hours**
	Fear Alcohol ad	3.45***	30 mins-1 hour > Less than 5 mins* 30 mins-1 hour > 5-15 mins*** 30 mins-1 hour > 15-30 mins*** 30 mins-1 hour > 2-3 hours* 1-2 hours > Less than 5 mins** 1-2 hours > 5-15 mins*** 1-2 hours > 15-30 mins*** 1-2 hours > 2-3 hours**
	Informative Smoking ad	4.60***	30 mins-1 hour > Less than 5 mins** 30 mins-1 hour > 5-15 mins*** 30 mins-1 hour > 15-30 mins** 30 mins-1 hour > 2-3 hours** 1-2 hours > Less than 5 mins** 1-2 hours > 5-15 mins*** 1-2 hours > 15-30 mins*** 1-2 hours > 2-3 hours**
	Informative Alcohol ad	4.00***	30 mins-1 hour > Less than 5 mins** 30 mins-1 hour > 5-15 mins*** 30 mins-1 hour > 15-30 mins** 30 mins-1 hour > 2-3 hours* 1-2 hours > Less than 5 mins** 1-2 hours > 5-15 mins*** 1-2 hours > 15-30 mins*** 1-2 hours > 2-3 hours**

*** ANOVA test is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

** ANOVA test is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

* ANOVA test is significant at the 0.1 level (2-tailed).

Ns: Not statistically significant.

Sample size: n=140.

As shown in Table 4.10, two-way ANOVA tests examining extroversion and promotion-focus as independent variables, and intentional online engagement as the dependent variable, find insignificant main effects for extroversion, while there are significant main effects for promotion-focus across the four ads. There are significant interaction effects between extroversion and promotion-focus on intention for engaging in informative ads, regardless of product type.

Two-way ANOVA tests examining extroversion and promotion-focus as independent variables, and WOM intention as the dependent variable, reveal significant main effects for extroversion for the two fear ads, while there are insignificant main effects for extroversion and the two informative ads. The promotion-focus main effect, however, is significant across the four ads, regardless of message appeal and product type. The interaction effect between extroversion and promotion-focus on WOM intention is insignificant.

There are no significant or strong interaction effects on emotional and cognitive engagement, considering extroversion and promotion-focus as independent variables (see Table 4.10). Two-way ANOVA tests find no significant interaction effects between extroversion and prevention-focus as the independent variables across any of the engagement dimensions as the dependent variables.

Table 4.10: Two-way ANOVA for extroversion and promotion-focus across dimensions of intentional engagement

Two-way ANOVA		Overall Model	Extroversion main effect	Promotion-focus main effect	Extroversion * Promotion-focus interaction effect
Online Engagement Intention	Fear Smoking ad	2.84***	ns	4.43**	ns
	Fear Alcohol ad	3.23***	ns	5.92***	2.40*
	Informative Smoking ad	3.48***	ns	6.20***	2.45**
	Informative Alcohol ad	3.01***	ns	5.04***	2.80**
Emotional Engagement	Fear Smoking ad	ns	ns	ns	ns
	Fear Alcohol ad	ns	ns	ns	ns
	Informative Smoking ad	3.25***	2.94*	6.01***	ns
	Informative Alcohol ad	2.67**	ns	7.27***	ns
Cognitive Engagement	Fear Smoking ad	2.47**	3.74**	2.68*	ns
	Fear Alcohol ad	ns	ns	ns	ns
	Informative Smoking ad	3.19***	2.71*	4.77***	ns
	Informative Alcohol ad	ns	ns	ns	2.48**
WOM Intention	Fear Smoking ad	3.26***	4.31**	2.47*	2.38*
	Fear Alcohol ad	2.89***	3.20**	4.05**	ns
	Informative Smoking ad	2.88***	ns	5.41***	ns
	Informative Alcohol ad	2.28**	ns	3.26**	ns

*** The interaction effect is significant at the 0.01 level.

** The interaction effect is significant at the 0.05 level.

* The interaction effect is significant at the 0.1 level.

Ns: Not statistically significant.

Sample size: n=140.

Table 4.11: Significant interaction effects across dimensions of engagement intention

Interaction Effects		Interaction Effect	F-value	p-value
Fear Smoking ad	Online Engagement Intention	Extroversion * Promotion-focus	3.39**	.015
		Extroversion * Agreeableness * Promotion-focus	4.55**	.015
	Emotional Engagement	-	-	-
	Cognitive Engagement	Extroversion * Promotion-focus	2.13*	.090
		Extroversion * Prevention-focus	2.43*	.059
		Promotion-focus * Prevention-focus	3.39**	.015
		Extroversion * Agreeableness * Promotion-focus	6.63***	.003
	WOM Intention	Extroversion * Agreeableness * Promotion-focus	4.20**	.020
Informative Smoking ad	Online Engagement Intention	Extroversion * Promotion-focus	3.29**	.017
		Agreeableness * Promotion-focus	2.32*	.069
	Emotional Engagement	-	-	-
	Cognitive Engagement	Extroversion * Promotion-focus * Prevention-focus	3.90**	.026
	WOM Intention	-	-	-
Fear Alcohol ad	Online Engagement Intention	Extroversion * Promotion-focus	2.29*	.071
	Emotional Engagement	Extroversion * Promotion-focus	2.43*	.059
		Extroversion * Agreeableness * Prevention-focus	2.61*	.061
	Cognitive Engagement	Extroversion * Agreeableness * Prevention-focus	3.27**	.028
	WOM Intention	-	-	-
Informative Alcohol ad	Online Engagement Intention	Extroversion * Promotion-focus	3.52**	.013
		Agreeableness * Promotion-focus	2.66**	.042
	Emotional Engagement	Extroversion * Promotion-focus	3.50**	.013
		Promotion-focus * Prevention-focus	2.24*	.078
		Extroversion * Promotion-focus * Prevention-focus	2.85*	.067
		Extroversion * Agreeableness * Prevention-focus	2.32*	0.86
	Cognitive Engagement	Extroversion * Agreeableness * Prevention-focus	3.41**	.024
		Agreeableness * Promotion-focus	2.15*	.088
	WOM Intention	Extroversion * Prevention-focus	2.21*	.080
		Agreeableness * Promotion-focus	2.64**	.044

*** The interaction effect is significant at the 0.01 level.

** The interaction effect is significant at the 0.05 level.

* The interaction effect is significant at the 0.1 level.

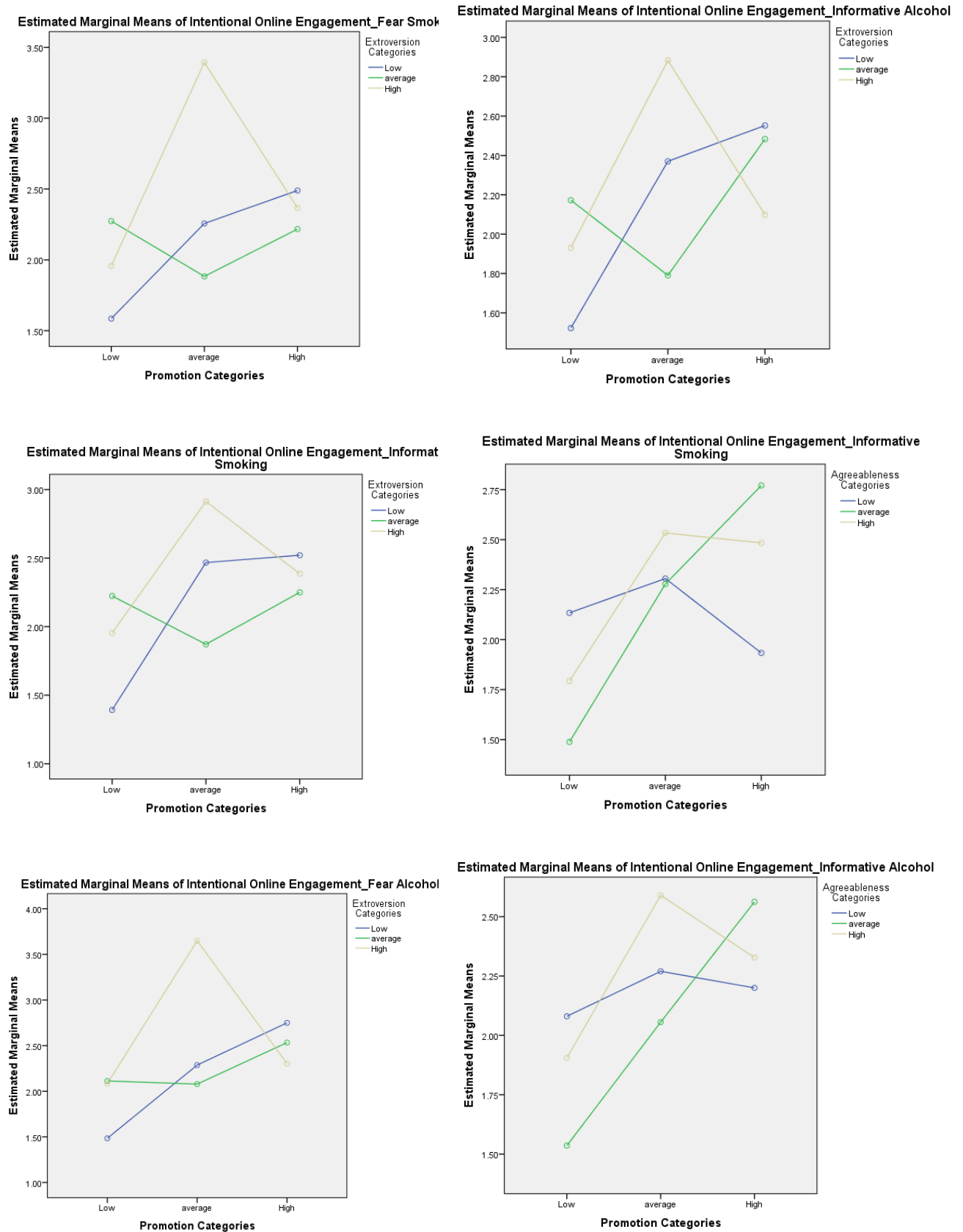


Figure 4.3: Estimated marginal means of intentional engagement across different ads

4.5 Conclusion, recommendations and future research

Study 1 investigates the extent to which personality, message appeal and incentives influence consumer engagement behaviour for health-related social marketing messages (about negative effects of smoking and heavy drinking). While most studies use attitudinal measures as the dependent variable, study 1 examines online consumer engagement behaviour including likes, shares and comments. Taking into account participants' personality traits (extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness), comparison of mean level of engagement activities shows that a non-monetary tangible reward (movie tickets) works better for people with high scores in extroversion and conscientiousness. However, a monetary reward stimulates engagement for individuals with low scores in extroversion and conscientiousness. In study 1, a repeated measures ANOVA reveals a significant main effect for message appeal with fear appeals stimulating greater engagement compared to informative appeals. The results of study 1 also indicate that, regardless of personality type, monetary rewards generate the greatest level of engagement across both informative and fear ads.

Study 2 results show strong positive correlations between promotion-focus and all dimensions of engagement—emotional and cognitive engagement, online engagement intention and WOM intention. Prevention-focus, however, only shows strong association with online engagement intention. ANOVA tests suggest promotion-focus as a key driver for online engagement intention and WOM intention across all four ads. Among personality traits, extroversion is the only variable positively correlated with almost all dimensions of engagement. Extroversion is a key driver for WOM intention, as post-hoc tests demonstrate significant mean differences between high extroverted and low extroverted individuals on WOM intention. ANOVA tests also reveal significant mean differences for time spent on

Facebook and online engagement intention, as well as WOM intention. Involvement is also significant with regular smokers showing significantly higher intention than both non-smokers and social smokers to engage in the smoking ads.

We suggest that the positive impacts of high product involvement endorsed in previous research for commercial products, may not be necessarily the case for social marketing products. Although high product involvement in smoking positively affects consumers' intention to engage in smoking online messages, as well as to produce WOM, this is not the case for alcohol. Regular smokers, smoking at least 15-20 cigarettes a day, are significantly more likely to report their intention to engage in smoking ads compared to non-smokers and those who smoke occasionally. Whereas heavy drinkers, drinking alcohol at least 4-5 days a week, do not report a higher propensity to engage with alcohol messages. We therefore recommend further research be conducted examining consumer product involvement and online engagement within social media networks.

Furthermore, this research finds that time spent on Facebook is positively associated with consumer engagement intention, those who spend between 30 minutes to 2 hours on Facebook every time they login are significantly more likely to engage than those who spend less than 30 minutes. There is, however, a turning point for time spent on Facebook, consumers who spend more than 2 hours on Facebook are not more likely to engage with social marketing health messages within social media.

The findings contribute to a better understanding of how different people with different individual characteristics may need to be approached to more effectively stimulate online engagement. The findings assist social marketers to develop more successful social media strategies, through designing messages for the priority group, taking into account consumers' personal differences. Results also can assist social marketers with finding who they need to

approach as their ambassadors or spokesperson to communicate with the target audience and promote their messages. We suggest personality trait of extroversion and promotion-focus as key drivers of consumer engagement.

4.6 References

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THESIS CONCLUSION

5.1 Thesis conclusion, recommendations and future research

Social media marketing enables companies to exploit the power of consumers allowing them to broadcast product and brand messages throughout their social media networks. Social media marketing offers tremendous benefits to today's companies. The potential to reach a broad and diverse range of consumers, creating awareness, interest and engagement, both quickly and cost effectively (Dobele, Toleman, & Beverland, 2005; Woerndl *et al.*, 2008), makes the application of social media even more captivating. Organisations working in the fields of social marketing, health promotion and disease prevention are also investing in social media campaigns to address various public health, social and environmental concerns. Stimulating online consumer engagement however is not easy, especially for social marketing messages which typically deal with sensitive issues and difficult and unappealing behavioural and lifestyle changes such as HIV testing, smoking cessation and alcohol reduction. As such, it is crucial to know what factors drive consumers on social media to pay attention, engage and ideally react positively to messages by liking, commenting or sharing the message with their network friends.

This thesis is a multi-faceted investigation of determinants of consumer engagement within social media, in particular for social marketing health-related messages. Paper 1 proposes a conceptual framework of influencing factors facilitating social marketing messages e-WOM. The proposed framework identifies product type and message appeal as independent factors, incentives and the online context as moderators, with consumer motivation as a mediator influencing e-WOM. This thesis places emphasis on the impacts of incentives, and their interaction with consumers' extrinsic and intrinsic motivations which are critical for undertaking a task or engaging in an activity.

Paper 2 uses a series of online laboratory and field experiments to empirically investigate the extent to which different types of incentives and message appeals influence consumer engagement behaviour for social marketing messages on Facebook. Findings of the laboratory experiment using a student sample suggest that the monetary incentive condition encourages the greatest level of total engagement and that fear appeals stimulate more engagement than informative appeals. This experiment reveals a significant main effects for message appeals, but does not find a significant main effect for incentives and no significant interaction effect between incentives and message appeals.

The two field experiments targeting the general public on social media reveal a different result, with the no incentive control condition generating the highest level of total consumer engagement. There are significant main and interaction effects for incentives and message appeals across almost all Facebook engagement activities. Findings from the two field experiments confirm existing literature suggesting the detrimental effects of monetary incentives on individuals' motivation. However, this research does not find the encouraging effects of non-monetary incentives endorsed by previous research. This thesis argues that incentives, both monetary and non-monetary, and self-oriented and others-oriented demotivate consumers through crowding out their extrinsic and intrinsic motivations.

This research suggests that younger people will be either less discouraged or not discouraged when offered monetary incentives compared to older people. In the laboratory experiment, which uses a relatively homogenous sample of university students as participants (aged 18-24 years), does not find a crowding-out effect. However, the two field experiments where participants do not belong to a particular age range find the demotivating effects of incentives. Also, where a higher number of younger people attracted to the ads in the field experiments, results show a relatively higher level of engagement under the monetary condition.

Moreover, this thesis notes that consumers engage differently in health-related messages under different incentive conditions. The social good condition for instance encourages significantly more Facebook shares, while the control no incentive condition generates significantly higher amounts of liking the ads, in fear appeals experiment. Those attracted to the monetary condition perform a significantly greater number of activities on average compared to those in the control condition. In the promotion versus prevention-focused experiment, however, consumers attracted to the control condition perform significantly higher amounts of liking, commenting, sharing and total engagement compared to the two other incentive conditions. This confirms the demotivating effects of different types of incentives resulting in lower levels of consumer engagement behaviour, which suggests that there is no need to incentivise.

With regards to message appeals, the fear appeal ad consistently produces significantly higher amounts of engagement compared to the informative ad in all experiments. Thesis results indicate that with social marketing messages about smoking and alcohol consumers show greater response to emotional appeals such as fear rather than to factual informative appeals which endorses previous literature on the power of emotional appeals (Dobele *et al.*, 2007). Research shows consumers do not need to like an advertisement in order for it to be effective (Zeitlin & Westwood 1986), and although there are circumstances in which it may be appropriate for social marketing messages to deliberately try and evoke negative emotions such as fear, we do not know if higher online engagement based on fear leads to positive behaviour change. Furthermore, although this thesis finds fear appeals as a more engaging message frame, further research is needed to investigate whether the greater level of engagement is in a positive light. We also do not know the effect of fear appeals on group interaction. Do fear appeals unite group members around a common purpose creating feelings of solidarity and cohesion or are fear appeals a source of friction, weakening social relationships and producing factions. Further

research is needed to examine group dynamics and to discover whether there are negative, unexpected consequences using fear appeals.

Positive promotion-focused appeals outperform negative prevention-focused appeal. Experiments that used promotion versus prevention-focused messages had the highest level of ‘customised sharing’ in the form of ‘tagging’ Facebook friends on the ads. Both promotion-focused and prevention-focused ads provide useful detailed information, which can justify the high level of customised sharing as the person may find the ads worthwhile to share with a friend. Promotion-focused messages stimulate a higher level of liking, sharing and total engagement versus prevention-focused messages, regardless of incentives, which again confirms existing literature on the effectiveness of positive framed messages versus negatively framed messages. There is an exception for commenting, where the most comments generated are for prevention-focused ads. The greater amount of commenting on prevention-focused ads may not necessarily indicate that people like or engage positively with the ads, in contrast, more commenting (versus liking and sharing) could demonstrate a negative reaction towards the ad. This thesis calls for future research on consumer sentiment examining the circumstances in which consumers react positively versus negatively to social marketing messages.

This thesis focuses on the importance of product type and whether people react differently to smoking and alcohol messages. For instance, monetary incentives encourage more liking, shares, and total engagement for alcohol messages. However, for smoking ads the control condition encourages more likes and total engagement, monetary more comments, and social good more shares. Furthermore, this research finds gender differences in consumer engagement behaviour. A significantly different amount of females and males reacted to different ads, under different incentive types. For instance, results show a higher amount of females engage under the social good condition than the control condition, compared to males who are significantly demotivated under the social good condition. Considering demographic factors, such as age and

gender differences, enables marketers to develop more successful social media strategies through crafting tailored messages which appeal to certain priority groups and encourage customised sharing within social media.

Another main focus of this thesis is on the role of consumer-related factors such as regulatory focus, personality and involvement on both consumer engagement behaviour and intention. While most studies use attitudinal measures as the dependent variable, this research examines online consumer engagement behaviour through consumers' actual behavioural reactions to the ads, including likes, shares and comments. Taking into account participants' personality traits (extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness), comparison of mean level of engagement activities shows that a non-monetary tangible reward (movie tickets) works better for people with high scores in extroversion and conscientiousness. This is consistent with previous research suggesting the positive outcomes from offering non-monetary incentives. However, a monetary reward stimulates engagement for individuals with low scores in extroversion and conscientiousness. The results also indicate that, regardless of personality type, monetary rewards generate the greatest level of engagement across both informative and fear ads.

The current thesis suggests promotion-focus as a key driver for online engagement intention and WOM intention for health-related ads. Among personality traits, extroversion is the only variable positively correlated with almost all dimensions of engagement, extroversion is also a key driver for WOM intention.

With regards to product involvement, interestingly high product involvement with smoking positively affects consumers' intention to engage in smoking online messages, as well as to produce WOM. Regular smokers, smoking at least 15-20 cigarettes a day, are significantly more likely to show their intention to engage in smoking ads compared to non-smokers and

social smokers who smoke occasionally. On the other hand, heavy drinkers, drinking alcohol at least 4-5 days a week, do not show a higher propensity to engage with alcohol ads. This research thus indicates that unlike commercial marketing in which high product involvement results in WOM or e-WOM, in social marketing product type matters.

Furthermore, this research finds that time spent on Facebook is positively associated with intention for consumer engagement. People who spend on average between 30 minutes to 2 hours on Facebook every time they login, indicate a significantly greater intention to engage compared to those who spend less than 30 minutes. There is, however, a turning point for time spent on Facebook, consumers who spend more than 2 hours on Facebook are not more likely to engage with social marketing health messages within social media.

The overall findings contribute to a better understanding of how different people with different individual characteristics and preferences may need to be approached to encourage a greater amount of consumer engagement. The findings assist social marketers to employ more successful social media strategies, through crafting tailored messages for the target audience, taking into consideration their personal differences. Findings also enable social marketers to better find the appropriate person as the ambassadors or spokesperson to promote their messages more effectively.

Social media marketing is regarded as an effective promotional channel, but its use requires consumers to engage. Our research provides some evidence on the role of social media in encouraging consumers to become more engaged in discussing and disseminating social marketing messages. To date, few studies specifically for social marketing messages focus on the factors influencing consumer online engagement and message diffusion. However, the distinctive nature of social marketing behavioural offerings as well as its unique product characteristics justify future research looking specifically into effective approaches to

encourage consumer dealings with social marketing messages. From this base, the research outlines potential factors that affect online message diffusion and proposes a comprehensive framework for investigating online social marketing message diffusion with several propositions for future research. This thesis suggests the following propositions for influence of incentives on e-WOM in the context of social marketing:

P1: Monetary incentives diminish consumers' intrinsic motivation and extrinsic image motivation to spread e-WOM for social marketing messages. **P2:** Non-monetary incentives enhance consumers' extrinsic social bonding motivation to disseminate e-WOM for social marketing messages. **P3:** Non-monetary incentives outperform monetary incentives in encouraging e-WOM for social marketing messages. **P4:** Mixed incentive bundles, providing both self-oriented and other-oriented reward options, increase e-WOM for social marketing messages.

Since this thesis concentrates on the impacts of rewards on 'e-WOM sender', the influence of incentives on the 'message recipient' needs to be investigated in future research. Verlegh *et al.*, (2013) demonstrate that offering incentives to both referral provider and receiver may reduce the negative effects caused by an incentivised referral programme. Moreover, the negative impact of an incentivised referral could be reduced if it is solicited by the receiver (Verlegh *et al.*, 2013).

This thesis also suggests the following propositions and encourages future research on social marketing message diffusion, taking into consideration the distinctive nature of social marketing behavioural products:

P5: Social marketing messages featuring accessible behaviours frequently cued by the environment facilitate e-WOM. **P6:** Social marketing messages promoting publicly visible behaviours with tangible results encourage e-WOM. **P7:** Social marketing messages that

include personal and social identity relevant behaviour encourage e-WOM. **P8:** Social marketing messages promoting controversial behaviours that threaten social acceptance discourage online message diffusion.

One of the other potential factors suggested in this research influencing message diffusion for social marketing is message appeal, this thesis therefore proposes the following propositions and calls for future research in regards to effectiveness of message appeal in social marketing:

P9: Social marketing messages that promote useful, unique, interesting or entertaining information facilitate message diffusion. **P10:** Social marketing messages including emotional, arousing content encourage e-WOM compared to messages with rational content. **P11:** Positively framed social marketing messages result in greater e-WOM compared to negatively framed messages.

This thesis finally calls for future research investigating the impact of network factors on facilitating message diffusion for social marketing messages. This research argues that online platforms dedicated to more specialised topics allowing for anonymous, more thoughtful discussions such as online communities, websites, and forums may provide a more appropriate platform for social marketing message diffusion.

P12: Online platforms with public, asynchronous written communication discourage consumers' intrinsic motivation and extrinsic image motivation to spread e-WOM for social marketing messages. **P13:** Online communities, websites, forums facilitate social marketing e-WOM.

Additional research is needed to validate research results using different online platforms, different incentive types and structure, for other health issues and to overcome study limitations of sample size and engagement length. This research uses Facebook as a popular

social media platform to run the experiments, however, calls for future research investigating message diffusion within other online platforms specifically, specialised online forums and online communities which appear more appropriate for social marketing messages (Johnson & Lowe, 2015).

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APPENDIX A: Paper presented at World Social Marketing Conference 2015

Incentivizing Online Social Marketing Message Diffusion:

A Conceptual Framework

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Abstract

In recent years social marketers have taken advantage of social media networks to promote positive social, environmental and health messages. With considerable research in viral marketing, few studies examine the impact of incentives for online message diffusion, also referred to here as electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM). More specifically, the crucial role of intrinsic motivations needs further investigation to fully understand online sharing behaviour within social media networks. This paper develops a conceptual framework to identify the main marketing, individual and network factors affecting online message diffusion and to clarify the role of incentives.

Keywords: Social Media Networks, Social Marketing, Incentives, Diffusion.

Introduction

Viral marketing and social media campaigns enable companies to exploit the power of electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM) allowing consumers to disseminate product and brand messages throughout their online social networks (Hanson & Kalyanam, 2006). The potential to reach a broad range of consumers creating awareness and interest, both quickly and cost effectively (Dobele, Toleman, & Beverland, 2005; Woerndl *et al.*, 2008), makes viral marketing even more attractive. Not surprisingly, social marketers are also investing in social media campaigns to address various public health and social concerns from obesity (Swinburn, Gill & Kumanyika, 2005) to tobacco and alcohol abuse (Wolburg, 2006), unsafe sex (Price, 2001; Bull *et al.* 2012), asthma (Baptist *et al.*, 2011), violence (Austin *et al.*, 2009) and racism (Madill & Abele, 2007). The increasing use of social media opens future opportunities to study e-WOM and investigate the factors that facilitate online diffusion (Nickels & Dimov, 2012).

Studies in e-WOM examine the influence of different aspects of the marketing mix such as product type, message content and the use of varying communication channels (Aral and Walker, 2011; Berger & Milkman, 2011; Chiu *et al.*, 2014). Other research focuses on seeding strategies and the importance of social network structure on the success of message diffusion (Bampo *et al.*, 2008; Hinz *et al.*, 2011; Libai, Muller & Peres, 2005; Watts & Dodds, 2007).

One factor in need of further research is the role of incentives. Even though previous research incorporates one or more types of incentives, few studies examine the impact of incentives and those that do report mixed results (e.g. Hinz *et al.*, 2011; Michalski, Jankowski & Kazienko, 2012; Schulze, Scholer & Skiera, 2014). To bring together this fast growing body of research, we develop a conceptual framework to propose ways in which incentives influence the message diffusion process, particularly for social marketing messages within social media

networks. In this paper we use the terms e-WOM and online message diffusion interchangeably. We classify incentives into intrinsic versus extrinsic and further divide extrinsic incentives into monetary and non-monetary. We also highlight the use of intrinsic incentives for conducting effective viral campaigns to promote social marketing messages.

Incentives and Online Message Diffusion

Studies in e-WOM and online message diffusion typically use extrinsic, or economic, incentives involving some tangible monetary or non-monetary reward. Monetary incentives, such as discounts, coupons and rebates are attractive to consumers as they provide direct economic savings (Campbell & Diamond, 1990). Non-monetary incentives, such as prizes, gifts, and loyalty schemes tend to be more experiential and relationship-based leading to enjoyment and enhanced status (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Few studies explicitly examine intrinsic, or psychological, incentives such as social approval, reciprocity and self-image, despite their potential importance in promoting online message diffusion. Rather than offering some type of tangible reward, intrinsic incentives play a significant role in encouraging effort and performance because they fulfil basic psychological needs such as the desire to work on interesting tasks, the desire to try new things and the need for social approval and self-esteem (Fehr & Falk, 2002; Hossain, Shi, & Waiser, 2014).

Research examining the impact of extrinsic incentives on intrinsic motivation suggests that offering monetary incentives may be effective in the short-term but actually weakens or even destroys an individual's intrinsic motivation in the long-term. Through a series of experiments, Gneezy, Meier & Rey-Biel (2011) examine which types of incentives work better in terms of influencing positive behaviour change such as encouraging undergraduate students

to exercise. They find intrinsic motivation is crucial for sustained behaviour change. They argue that a “crowding-out” effect occurs where monetary incentives drive down intrinsic motivation. The crowding-out effect occurs especially in conditions under which an individual feels the monetary incentive is offered as a result of mistrust or underestimating the individual’s will to change (Frey, 1993). Fehr and Falk (2002) explain that monetary incentives change social interactions into transactions which can reduce voluntary cooperation and lead to feelings of entitlement allowing people to purchase poor behaviour. Implications for noncompliance are especially critical for social marketing.

As little work to date considers incentives and results are not straightforward, clearly further research examining incentives within e-WOM message diffusion is open. Despite the importance of intrinsic motivation on behaviour change, little is known about the influence of intrinsic incentives on online message diffusion through social media networks. Given that consumer repeatedly use social networking sites primarily to maintain social and business relationships, more needs to be done on intrinsic motivation. The following section proposes a conceptual framework incorporating the role of incentives in online social marketing message diffusion.

Conceptual Model of Message Diffusion

Figure 1 identifies four independent factors and three moderating factors that influence online message diffusion within social media networks. The independent variables are the marketing factors that can be managed and adjusted by marketers. For example, marketers have control over the incentives offered and how to make a message more appealing. Marketing factors that have important effects on e-WOM and the success of online message diffusion include

incentives offered, message appeal, online context and seeding strategies. Moderators, on the other hand, are out of control of marketers, but need to be considered since these factors undeniably influence individuals' online behaviour. Product type is typically difficult to change and individual factors such as personality, product involvement, and social media involvement are also out of the control of marketers. Network factors such as cohesion, centralisation, clustering, network roles and positions are a third set of influences which need to be investigated in studying the process of online message diffusion. Due to space limitations, only the independent marketing factors are discussed in detail with a brief overview provided for each of the moderators.

Independent Factors

Recent work examining incentives shows mixed results. The influence of extrinsic incentives is contingent on a number of factors and not consistent across studies. For example, Hinz *et al.*, (2011) find monetary incentives strongly influence the likelihood of e-WOM whereas Michalski, Jankowski and Kazienko (2012) report negative effects from non-monetary incentives. Michalski, Jankowski and Kazienko (2012) find that although participants send a significantly greater number of messages for incentivised campaigns, fewer are successfully received and further transmitted in comparison to non-incentivised campaigns. Moreover, receivers in the incentivised campaigns view the messages negatively as spam. Very little research examines intrinsic incentives and online message diffusion. Studies of online shopping find that intrinsic incentives such as entertainment and enjoyment significantly increase customer purchase intention, but do not examine message diffusion through e-WOM (Lu & Su, 2009; Shane *et al.*, 2005). Hinz *et al.* (2011) use a funny video to stimulate

individuals' intrinsic motivation to have fun and connect with others increasing their participation in spreading online messages; however, they do not test the impact of the intrinsic incentive on message sharing.

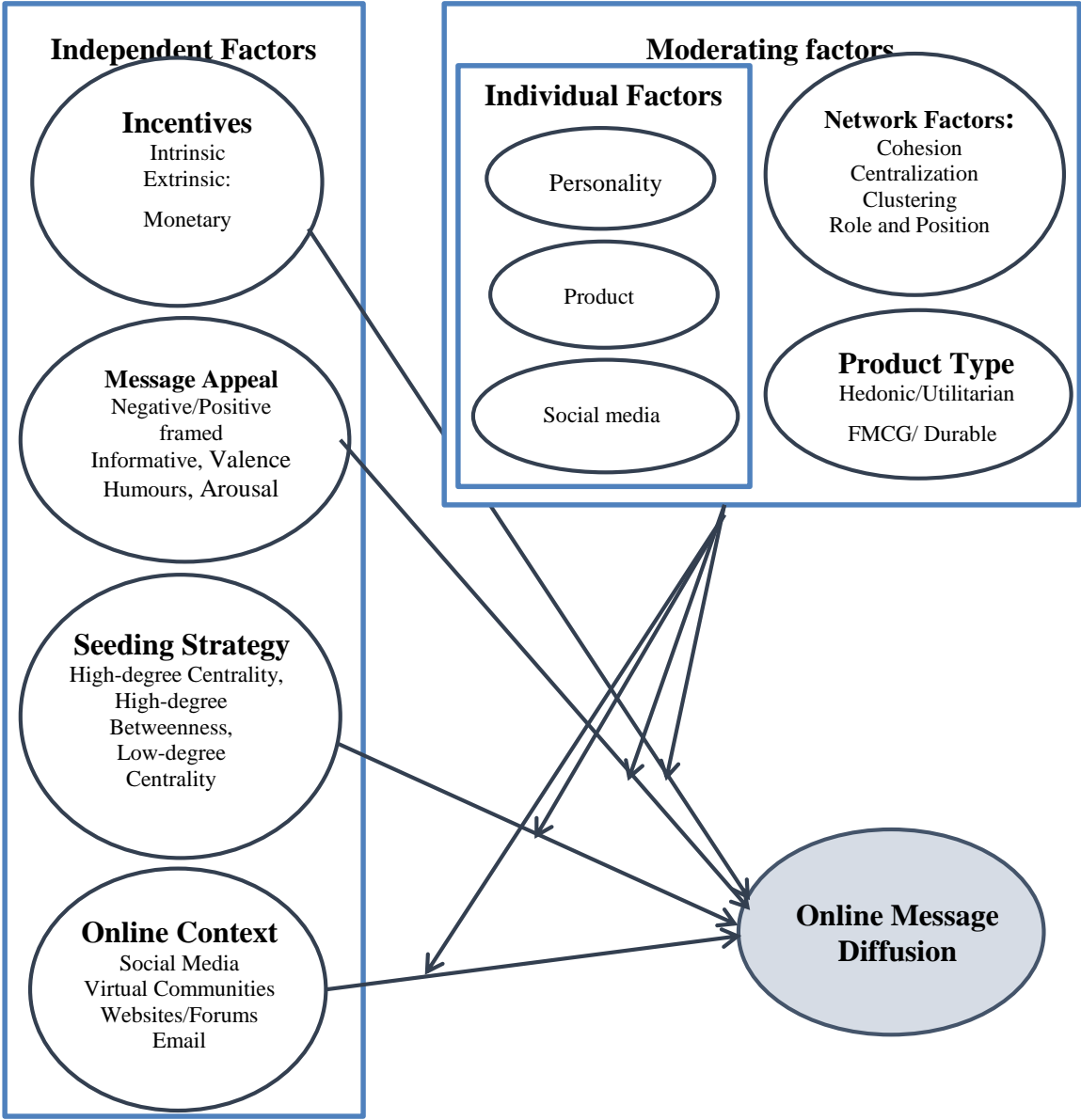


Figure 1: Framework for Message Diffusion within Social Media Networks

Message appeal is another independent factor influencing online communication. Berger and Milkman (2012) examine what makes certain online content go viral. They find that in general a message containing positive content is more viral than messages with negative content, but that arousal also is important. Regardless of valence, messages that are more arousing are more likely to be shared. Messages that evoke negative emotions such as anger are more viral than ones that are sad. They refer to work by Brooks and Schweitzer (2011) and Heilman (1997) to explain that people are more active when in a state of excitement. Arousal remains important even when the message content is surprising, interesting, or practical. Recent work by De Angelis *et al.*, (2012) compares online message generation with transmission and their research shows individuals tend to post more positive messages about their own experiences but pass on the more negative experiences of others.

Seeding strategies to ensure rapid diffusion within online networks typically target opinion leaders as they are well-connected (Iyengar, Van Den Bulte & Valente, 2011). In a simulation study Watts and Dodd (2007) show that rather than the ‘influentials’ being the critical factor in diffusion, instead diffusion requires a significant level of easily influenced individuals. Such a finding suggests that seeding online campaigns can succeed even targeting less central individuals. Empirical results by Hinz *et al.*, (2011), however, find that indeed seeding “hubs” and “bridges” is the most successful strategy as long as the campaign is at the awareness phase. Further empirical work by Iribarren and Moro (2011) suggest that decisions made by participants in regards to forwarding an online message to their immediate neighbours depends on whether the sender thinks the receiver has an affinity towards the content of message. These findings call for more research examining the effects of participant behaviour (i.e., personality traits, product involvement and social media involvement) in spreading information throughout the social network structure. Reaction of recipients, whether to transmit

the message further, to whom and for how long, is another critical factor in success of spreading online messages in need of further investigation (Iribarren & Moro 2011).

Recent studies are beginning to examine the influence of different online contexts for message diffusion including microblogging sites like Twitter, social networking sites such as Facebook and content communities like Youtube. Most studies look at email message diffusion or message sharing on Facebook, but more and more studies are comparing different formats (Smith, Fischer & Yongjian, 2012). For example, Leung *et al.*, (2013) compare Facebook and Twitter and report no difference in hotel customers' intentions to spread e-WOM. In a study of e-WOM about physical activity on Twitter, Zhang *et al.*, (2013) find that chatting and providing opinions or information are the most common types of tweets and suggest that people are using other e-WOM channels such as Facebook to seek information and support.

Moderating Factors

Product type is particularly important for social marketing as social marketing products are arguably utilitarian in nature. Research by Schulze, Scholer & Skiera (2014) finds non-monetary extrinsic incentives are effective for message diffusion regarding hedonic products but ineffective in promoting e-WOM for more utilitarian products. Schulze, Scholer & Skiera (2014) look at 751 Facebook viral marketing campaigns, 233 considered as utilitarian and 518 less utilitarian. They find unsolicited messages with non-monetary incentives are the least effective for high utilitarian products. They explain that users go on Facebook expecting to have fun not to be useful, and therefore, pay little attention to such messages.

Individual factors also are important. Research shows personality affects online behaviour. Seidman (2013) in a study of the Big Five and Facebook use finds extraverted individuals use Facebook more frequently to communicate with others. Other characteristics such as product involvement, knowledge, experience and familiarity can lead to strong feelings stimulating discussion and generating both positive and negative WOM (Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004). Social media involvement, typically measured by duration, frequency and amount of use also influences the success of message diffusion (Chu & Kim, 2011).

Network structural factors such as the presence of “hubs” and “bridges” and the level of cohesion, centralization and clustering can facilitate or obstruct the speed and extent of online message diffusion. For example, dense networks allow for direct communication, but tend to contain less innovative information as network members are connected to one another with few external ties. Small world networks however are quite sparse yet contain dense local clusters connected to one another through bridging ties which assist the diffusion process (Watts, 1999). Based on this brief review, the following research propositions are proposed for social marketing messages within social media networks:

Proposition 1: Intrinsic incentives result in greater e-WOM and message sharing than extrinsic incentives.

Proposition 2: Negatively framed messages result in greater online message diffusion than positively framed messages.

Proposition 3: Messages that are more arousing are more likely to be shared.

Proposition 4: Seeding active, well-connected ‘hubs’ results in greater online message diffusion than using a random seeding strategy.

Proposition 5: Social media networking sites such as Facebook, Twitter and Instagram result in greater message sharing than other online contexts such as websites, forums, and email.

Proposition 6: Product type, individual characteristics and network structure moderate online message diffusion. Hedonic products, extroverted individuals, high product involvement, active social media involvement and small world networks positively influence e-WOM and online message sharing.

Discussion and Managerial Implications

As work to date considers a limited number of factors and results are not straightforward, clearly further research examining incentives within e-WOM message diffusion is open. Given that people frequently use social networking sites primarily to maintain social and business relationships, it is important to study the ways in which incentives, in particular intrinsic incentives, can influence network members' sharing behaviour. The psychology and economic literatures suggest that extrinsic and intrinsic incentives may reinforce each other, but unintended consequences may also arise. Some studies show that introducing extrinsic rewards may actually reduce performance levels and weaken intrinsic motivation (e.g. Deci, 1971; Gneezy, Meier & Rey-Biel, 2011), especially if the extrinsic reward is seen as displacing social approval and recognition (Gneezy & Rustichini, 2000a; 200b).

Much of the previous research on viral marketing focuses on sales (Godes & Mayzlin 2004). Less work focuses on incentives driving people to share content, especially social messages. Our review provides an overview of the factors that impact online message diffusion, with focusing on the role of incentives. Social media marketing is regarded as an effective

promotional channel, but its use requires successful diffusion (reach, speed, emotion, etc). If individuals within social networks do not share content in a positive light, there is no benefit. As such, organisations need to understand how to incentivise people to encourage them more effectively to share content.

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APPENDIX B: Paper presented at 2016 International Social Marketing Conference

Incentives and Diffusion of Social Marketing Messages on Social Media:

An Experimental Study

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Abstract

Today companies take advantage of social media to engage consumers and excite electronic word-of-mouth. Benefits of social media campaigns are not limited to commercial marketing, and social marketers are also investing in such campaigns to tackle sensitive issues and difficult lifestyle changes. Offering incentives and using different message appeals are common promotional tactics, yet little is known about how these come together to influence consumer engagement and message diffusion. This paper is based on data from two rounds of experiments on Facebook with 293 student subjects, manipulating four incentive (monetary, non-monetary, social recognition and none) and 2 message appeal (fear versus informative) conditions. Findings suggest that the monetary incentive condition encourages the greatest level of total engagement. Our study also indicates that the fear appeal condition generates a higher level of engagement regardless of incentive condition. Repeated measures ANOVA, comparing incentives as a between subjects factor, shows an insignificant main effect for incentives but a significant main effect for message appeal. This study provides some evidence for the importance of social media in engaging consumers in discussing and disseminating social marketing messages. Additional research is needed to overcome study limitations of sample size and engagement length.

Introduction

We live in an increasingly connected world where information can be disseminated ‘virtually’ instantly. Today companies take advantage of online social networks by using social media marketing tools to engage consumers and excite electronic word-of-mouth. Companies benefit by allowing consumers to comment, like and share product and brand messages throughout their online social networks (Hanson and Kalyanam, 2006). Benefits of social media campaigns are not limited to commercial marketing, and social marketers are also investing in such online campaigns to tackle different social marketing issues (e.g. Swinburn, Gill & Kumanyika, 2005; Wolburg, 2006; Price, 2001; Bull *et al.* 2012; Baptist *et al.* 2011; Austin *et al.*, 2009; and Madill and Abele, 2007). Stimulating online engagement is challenging especially for social marketing messages, since social marketing messages typically deal with sensitive issues and difficult lifestyle changes such as HIV testing, smoking cessation and alcohol reduction. Offering incentives and using different message appeals are common promotional tactics, yet little is known about how these come together to influence consumer engagement and message diffusion. Studies that look at the influence of incentives on online engagement and message diffusion, report mixed and sometimes opposite results (e.g. Michalski, Jankowski & Kazienko 2012; Schulze, Scholer & Skiera, 2014; Dayama, Karnik, & Narahari, 2012; Hinz *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, research in the area of incentives mainly focuses on extrinsic incentives (e.g. Hinz *et al.*, 2011; Michalski, Jankowski & Kazienko, 2012; Schulze, Scholer & Skiera, 2014) while the importance of people’s intrinsic motivations is neglected. Beside the lack of research on incentives, little is known about the influence of message appeals and more specifically what makes social marketing messages go viral. In this paper we examine the way in which

incentives (divided to monetary, non-monetary and social recognition), as well as message appeals (fear appeal versus informative) influence consumer engagement and message diffusion process, in particular for social marketing messages within social media networks. Specifically, we address the following two questions. What types of incentives generate the most online consumer engagement for social marketing messages? Do fear appeals result in greater online consumer engagement compared to informative appeals?

Method

A 4 x 2 mixed experimental design conducted on Facebook, manipulated incentive condition (monetary, non-monetary, social recognition and none) and message appeal (informative versus fear), while controlling for a health issue (i.e. smoking). The monetary condition offered a chance to win a \$50 gift card, the non-monetary condition was a chance to win two movie tickets and the social recognition condition presented the opportunity to be featured on a “wall of fame”. Over two rounds 293 undergraduate and postgraduate student subjects were randomly assigned to one of four Facebook groups, three incentive groups and one control group. Combined group size of each condition ranged from 72 to 74. Subjects in each group were simultaneously exposed to the same two messages on the negative effects of smoking, one message framed as an informative appeal and one as a fear appeal. Subjects were instructed to take part in the online discussion by sharing, commenting and liking posts on their Facebook group page. Over time, number of likes, comments, shares and other activities such as liking and replying to others’ comments, and mentioning others were recorded for each message posted in each group. A summation of all Facebook activities, each given an equal weighting, generated a total engagement dependent variable.

Results

Figure 1 and Table 1 provide a comparison of total engagement by incentive condition and message appeal. Both show the monetary incentive condition regardless of message appeal encourages the greatest level of total engagement whereas the no incentive control group generates the lowest engagement for the fear appeal and the social recognition condition results in the least amount of engagement for the informative appeal. Figure 1 also shows a clear difference between the fear and informative message appeals with the fear condition consistently generating greater total engagement regardless of incentive condition. Repeated measures ANOVA, comparing incentives as between subjects factor, finds no significant main effect for incentives ($F=.803$, $p=.493$) but reveals a significant main effect for message appeal ($F=289.870$, $p=.000$).

To examine online engagement in more detail, Table 1 also provides information regarding liking, commenting and sharing activities on Facebook. The data in Table 1 suggest that different types of incentives influence different types of Facebook activities. For instance, in the monetary incentives condition subjects engaged in more commenting and sharing activities which arguably require substantially more effort and involve higher risk than simply clicking the like button which occurs more frequently in the no incentives control condition. Post hoc tests (LSD) show there are significant mean differences ($p=.035$) between control (mean=.67) and monetary (mean=.49), as well as significant mean differences ($p=.019$) between control (mean=.67) and non-monetary (mean=.47) conditions for liking the fear message. Further analyses indicate significant mean differences for liking the comments made by other participants in the informative message condition across the four incentive groups ($F=4.747$, $p=0.003$). Post hoc tests (LSD) show significant mean differences ($p=.003$) between

monetary (mean=.66) and control (mean=.21), as well as significant mean differences ($p=.024$) between monetary (mean=.66) and non-monetary (mean=.32) conditions.

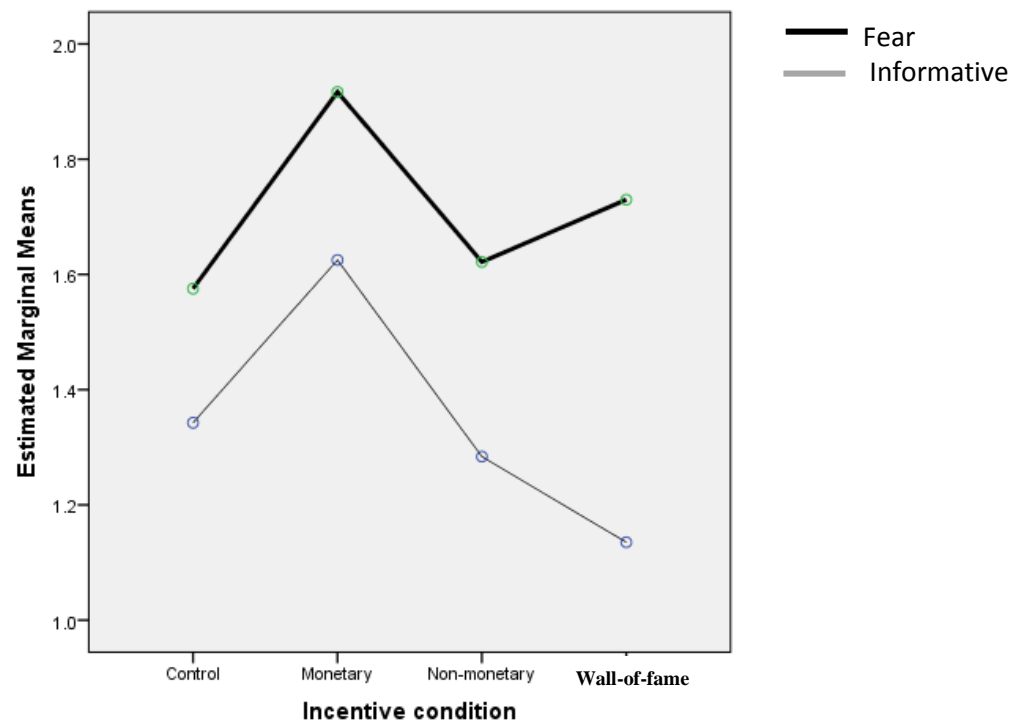


Figure 1: Mean Differences in Engagement for Message Appeal by Incentive Condition

Table 1: Engagement Level for Message Appeal across Incentive Types

		Monetary N (Mean)	Non- monetary N (Mean)	Wall of Fame N (Mean)	None N (Mean)	Total N (Mean)
Informative Appeal	Likes	26 (.36)	32 (.44)	35 (.47)	42 (.58)	135 (.46)
	Comments	35 (.49)	24 (.32)	28 (.38)	34 (.47)	121 (.41)
	Shares	7 (.10)	4 (.05)	5 (.07)	4 (.05)	20 (.07)
	Total ¹	117 (1.63)	95 (1.28)	84 (1.14)	98 (1.34)	394 (1.34)
Fear Appeal	Likes	35 (.49)	35 (.47)	44 (.59)	49 (.67)	163 (.56)
	Comments	42 (.58)	29 (.39)	40 (.54)	39 (.53)	150 (.51)
	Shares	6 (.08)	4 (.05)	4 (.05)	5 (.07)	19 (.06)
	Total ¹	138 (1.92)	120 (1.62)	128 (1.73)	115 (1.58)	501 (1.71)
Total Engagement	Likes	61 (.85)	67 (.92)	79 (1.07)	91 (1.25)	298 (1.02)
	Comments	77 (1.07)	53 (.72)	68 (.92)	73 (1.00)	271 (.92)
	Shares	13 (.18)	8 (.11)	9 (.12)	9 (.12)	39 (.13)
	Total ¹	255 (3.54)	215 (2.91)	212 (2.86)	213 (2.92)	895 (3.06)

¹Total includes all the other types of Facebook activities, in addition to like, comment and share (i.e. liking comment, replying to comment, mentioning others).

Discussion and Conclusion

This study investigates the extent to which different types of incentives influence consumer engagement for social marketing messages within social media networks. Findings show that although there is no significant main effect for total online engagement across incentive conditions, there are significant mean differences for message appeal and some types of Facebook activities such as liking others' comments on the informative message. Our main result that consumers show greater response to emotional appeals such as fear rather than to 'factual', informative appeals endorses previous literature indicating the power of emotional appeals. Research shows consumers do not need to like an advertisement in order for it to be effective (Zeitlin and Westwood 1986), and although there are circumstances in which it may be appropriate for social marketing messages to deliberately try and evoke negative emotions such as fear, we do not know if higher online engagement based on fear leads to positive behavior change. We also do not know the effect of fear appeals on group interaction. Do fear appeals unite group members around a common purpose creating feelings of solidarity and cohesion or are fear appeals a source of friction, weakening social relationships and producing factions. Further research is needed to examine group dynamics and ensure there are no negative, unexpected consequences using fear appeals.

To date, few studies specifically for social marketing messages focus on the factors influencing consumer online engagement and message diffusion. Social media marketing is regarded as an effective promotional channel, but its use requires consumers to engage. Our study provides some evidence for the importance of social media in encouraging consumers to become more engaged in discussing and disseminating social marketing messages. More work is needed as the current study examined online engagement on Facebook with a small student sample over

a brief time period for one health issue. Additional research is needed to validate study results using different online platforms for other health issues and to overcome study limitations of sample size and engagement length.

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APPENDIX C: Paper Presented at Australian and New Zealand Marketing Academy Conference 2016

Stimulating Social Marketing Consumer Engagement within Social Media:

An Empirical Study

Abstract

This study investigates the factors that influence consumer online engagement for social marketing messages by looking at the role of personality, incentives, and message appeal. This study conducts an online experiment on Facebook to investigate the participants' engagement behaviour in the study's messages. The participants are randomly assigned to four Facebook group, being offered different incentives (i.e. monetary, non-monetary, social recognition, no incentive), and are exposed to two health messages, one framed with an informative appeal and the other with fear. We aim to investigate whether self-reported personality traits (Big Five) influence online engagement under study's different condition. Overall the result shows that participants engage significantly higher in fear appeal regardless of their personality and incentive condition. Further analyses reveal that monetary rewards generate the greatest level of engagement, especially for individuals with high personality scores.

Keywords: Consumer Engagement, Incentives, Personality Traits, Social Media

Track: Social Marketing

Introduction

Using social media networks for engaging consumers and exciting electronic ‘word of mouth’ (e-WOM) is now widely used. Organisations working in health promotion and social marketing are also benefiting from social media as a communication channel to disseminate their messages. Cost efficiency, exponential diffusion, peer-to-peer transmission and interaction, effective audience targeting, and a longer lasting effect are among the many advantages of social media marketing (Dobele, Toleman, & Beverland, 2005; Woerndl *et al.*, 2008; Van der Lans *et al.*, 2010; Yang *et al.*, 2015). Consumers on social media using their own promotional tactics become active participants in the co-creation and dissemination of product and brand messages (Hanson & Kalyanam, 2006; Thackery *et al.*, 2008). Stimulating consumer engagement and encouraging positive e-WOM is more challenging for social marketing messages as social marketing deals with difficult lifestyle changes, and sometimes sensitive topics that can be embarrassing and uncomfortable for many to discuss. Even outgoing, conscientious, confident individuals may not be willing to engage with social marketing messages and spread e-WOM.

Since consumers are bombarded online with an enormous amount of messages, many simply choose to pay no attention to much of the information they are exposed to every day. As such, it is crucial to know what factors drive consumers on social media to pay attention, engage and ideally react positively to a social marketing message by liking the message, commenting or sharing it with their friends. In this research we are interested in finding out whether individuals with certain personality traits are more likely to engage in spreading social marketing messages. Besides personality, incentives and the type of message appeal are among the important factors to take into account in order to encourage online engagement and

stimulate positive e-WOM. Many academics believe that incentives can effectively stimulate people to undertake a task or change behaviour, the greater the incentive the greater the performance or level of effort. On the other hand, opponents argue that offering incentives, under many situations, comes into conflict with individuals' internal motives, resulting in a 'crowding out effect' and lower performance (Gneezy, Meier & Rey-Biel, 2011).

In addition to incentives, message appeal is another factor which has a significant impact on grabbing people's attention to a message and can persuade people to react to a message. Despite the importance of these factors, little is known about the influence of personality, incentives and message appeals in generating online consumer engagement, especially in the context of social marketing. In this study we conduct an online experiment within Facebook to investigate the extent to which personality, incentives and message appeals affect consumer online engagement. Five personality dimensions (extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, openness), four incentive conditions (monetary, non-monetary, wall-of-fame, no incentive) and two message appeals (fear versus informative) for the health issue (smoking). Repeated measure ANOVA reveals a significant main effect for message appeal with fear appeals stimulating greater engagement compared to informative appeals. Results also indicate that regardless of personality type, monetary rewards generate the greatest level of engagement across both informative and fear ad. Mean comparison across personality traits reveals that non-monetary rewards work best for individuals with high personality scores, while those with low personality scores for extroversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism are more influenced by a monetary reward.

Factors Encouraging Consumer Online Engagement

Extensive research in commercial marketing investigates factors that produce consumer engagement and positive WOM for brand and product messages (Marbach, Lages & Nunan, 2016; Solem & Pedersen 2016; Malthouse *et al.*, 2016), while less research examines engagement within the online context. Studies in e-WOM examine the influence of different aspects of the marketing mix such as product type, message content and the use of varying communication channels (Aral & Walker, 2011; Berger & Milkman, 2011; Chiu *et al.*, 2014). Other research focuses on seeding strategies and the importance of social network structure (Bampo *et al.*, 2008; Libai, Muller & Peres, 2005; Watts & Dodds, 2007; Hinz *et al.*, 2011). A handful of studies look at the role of incentives in generating online engagement and e-WOM, but report mixed results (Hinz *et al.*, 2011; Michalski, Jankowski & Kazienko, 2012; Wirtz & Chew, 2002). Furthermore, research in the area of incentives mainly focuses on extrinsic incentives (e.g. Hinz *et al.*, 2011; Michalski, Jankowski & Kazienko, 2012; Schulze, Scholer & Skiera, 2014) while the importance of people's intrinsic motivations is neglected. Another important factor that needs to be considered is the attractiveness or perceived value of a message. Berger and Milkman (2012) find that the likelihood of sharing a message with positive content is higher, the arousal aspect of message is also important, more arousing messages are more likely to be propagated. Messages that include negative emotions such as anger are more likely to go viral compared to ones that are sad (Berger & Milkman, 2012).

Studies that consider personality as an influencing factor for online engagement again show mixed results. Some find that personality as an individual factor affects online behaviour (Amichai-Hamburger & Vinitzky, 2010; Marbach, Lages & Nunan, 2016), others show that the connection between individuals' personality and their Facebook behaviour is not strong (Ross *et al.*, 2009). Marbach, Lages & Nunan (2016) show that introversion, disagreeable and conscientious people are less likely to be engaged with Facebook brand pages, whereas openness is positively related to online engagement. Also, most research in this area

investigates people's 'intention' as oppose to their 'actual' online behaviour. Cheung and Lee (2012), for example, find that reputation, sense of belonging and enjoyment of assisting others are significantly associated with e-WOM intention. Ryan and Xenos (2011) find that extraverted and narcissistic individuals are more likely to be Facebook users compared to less conscientious and socially lonely individuals. Looking further, Seidman (2013) finds that high agreeableness and neuroticism are the best predictors of "belongingness". Agreeable individuals have strong belongingness motivations and Facebook is a tool which helps them to meet their needs. Facebook is also beneficial for neurotic individuals, who often suffer from social difficulties, by providing them a way to meet their needs which are not sufficiently met offline. High neuroticism and low conscientiousness are the best predictors of "self-presentation" (Seidman, 2013). In this paper, we take a fresh approach and look at consumer online engagement by examining the impact of personality traits on consumers' 'actual' online behaviour under different incentive and message appeal conditions, in the context of social marketing.

Method

The study's data collection process includes two stages, an online experiment on Facebook, followed by an online survey. For the first stage, a 4 x 2 mixed experimental design conducted on Facebook, manipulated incentive condition (monetary, non-monetary, social recognition and none) and message appeal (informative versus fear), while controlling for a health issue (i.e. smoking). The monetary condition offered a chance to win a \$50 gift card, the non-monetary condition was a chance to win two movie tickets and the social recognition condition presented the opportunity to be featured on a "wall of fame". Over two rounds 255 undergraduate and postgraduate student subjects were randomly assigned to one of four

Facebook groups, three incentive groups and one control group. Combined group size of each condition ranged from 60 to 65. Subjects in each group were simultaneously exposed to the same two messages on the negative effects of smoking, one message framed as an informative appeal and one as a fear appeal. Subjects were instructed to take part in the online discussion by sharing, commenting and liking posts on their Facebook group page. Over time, number of likes, comments, shares and other activities such as liking and replying to others' comments, and mentioning others were recorded for each message posted in each group. A summation of all Facebook activities, each given an equal weighting, generated engagement behaviour for the informative and fear ad as dependent variables. The second stage of data collection required the same participants to take part in the study's online survey, answering questions about their social media use, ad likeability, and their personality. Following the approach employed in previous studies (e.g. Seidman 2013), this study incorporated Saucier's (1994) 5-point Likert Scale 40-Item Mini-Markers Set (a brief version of Goldberg's (1990) unipolar Big-Five Markers) to measure the five major personality dimensions of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness. (McCrae and Costa, 1991; Costa and McCrae, 1992).

Results

Figure 1 provides a comparison of online consumer behavioral engagement for both informative and fear appeals across incentive conditions regardless of personality factors. As Figure 1 illustrates, overall the monetary incentive condition outperforms other incentive conditions and encourages the greatest level of total engagement. Moreover, the highest level of engagement is generated for the fear appeal under the monetary condition (mean: 1.75), whereas the lowest amount of engagement is generated for the informative ad under the wall

of fame (WOF) incentive condition (mean: 1.23). Furthermore, the greatest difference in the level of engagement between the two ad appeals is generated by the WOF incentive.

To examine behavioral engagement across five personality traits, Table 1 compares the behavioral fear and informative engagement for participants with a high versus low personality score, across different incentive conditions. Following Ross *et al.*'s (2009) approach, we compare participants who scored in the highest third versus those who scored in the lowest third on a particular personality dimension. Data in Table 1 suggests that individuals with different types of personalities engage differently in informative versus fear ads. Furthermore, participants also behave differently across incentive conditions. As shown in Table 1, the highest level of engagement is performed by high conscientiousness people on the fear ad (2.47), while the lowest level of engagement is performed by low conscientiousness people on the informative ad (.96), both under non-monetary condition. To generate online engagement for an informative ad, monetary rewards work best for people with low extroversion score (mean: 2.12), while non-monetary rewards work for people with high extroversion score (mean: 2.26), and wall of fame (WOF) condition encourages high agreeableness individuals the most (mean: 1.55). However, to encourage online engagement for a fear ad, monetary incentives produce the highest level of engagement for low neurotic people (mean: 2.30), non-monetary for high conscientiousness (mean: 2.47), and WOF for high neurotic individuals (mean: 2.13).

Overall the results indicate that regardless of people's personality, monetary rewards generate the greatest level of engagement across both informative and fear ad. Also, a mean comparison across personality traits reveals that non-monetary rewards work best for individuals with high extroversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness scores regardless of the ad appeals. With the only exception for high agreeableness individuals who are more engaged in an informative message with a monetary reward. Introversion,

disagreeable, low conscientiousness, and low neuroticism people are more influenced by a monetary reward across both ad appeals, with exception for low openness individuals who engage more in no incentive control group. Also, for the fear message WOF condition seems to work better for people with low scores for agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness. Repeated measures ANOVA finds no significant main effect for personality traits, but reveals a significant main effect for message appeal ($F=5.489$, $p=.020$). Moreover, there are significant differences for ad appeal by neuroticism interaction effect under the no incentive condition ($p\text{-value}=.043$), and ad appeal by extroversion interaction effect ($p\text{-value}=.005$), and ad appeal by neuroticism interaction effect ($p\text{-value}=.035$) both under WOF incentive condition. For the WOF incentive group, there are significant differences for ad appeal by agreeableness interaction effect ($p\text{-value}=.083$), and ad appeal by conscientiousness interaction effect ($p\text{-value}=.078$). Finally, a significant difference for ad appeal by openness interaction effect ($p\text{-value}=.078$) under non-monetary condition is found.

Table 1: Engagement Behaviour for Personality Traits across Incentives and Appeals

Personality Traits			Monetary Mean	Non-monetary Mean	Wall of Fame Mean	None Mean
Informative Engagement Behaviour	Extroversion	Low	2.12	1.08	1.16	1.00
		High	1.26	2.26	1.04	1.48
	Agreeableness	Low	1.86	1.18	1.12	1.44
		High	2.09	2.00	1.55	1.53
	Conscientiousness	Low	1.64	.96	1.16	1.61
		High	1.92	2.13	1.20	1.13
	Neuroticism	Low	1.96	1.35	1.24	1.21
		High	1.61	1.93	1.47	1.60
	Openness	Low	1.28	1.19	1.25	1.48
		High	1.00	1.67	1.14	1.15
Fear Engagement Behaviour	Extroversion	Low	1.96	1.46	1.26	1.48
		High	1.37	2.16	2.00	1.71
	Agreeableness	Low	1.76	1.61	2.00	1.60
		High	1.74	2.22	1.64	1.57
	Conscientiousness	Low	1.59	1.44	1.94	1.83
		High	2.00	2.47	1.47	1.43
	Neuroticism	Low	2.30	1.30	1.73	1.96
		High	1.35	2.21	2.13	1.35
	Openness	Low	1.50	1.24	1.92	1.37
		High	1.54	2.42	1.52	1.54

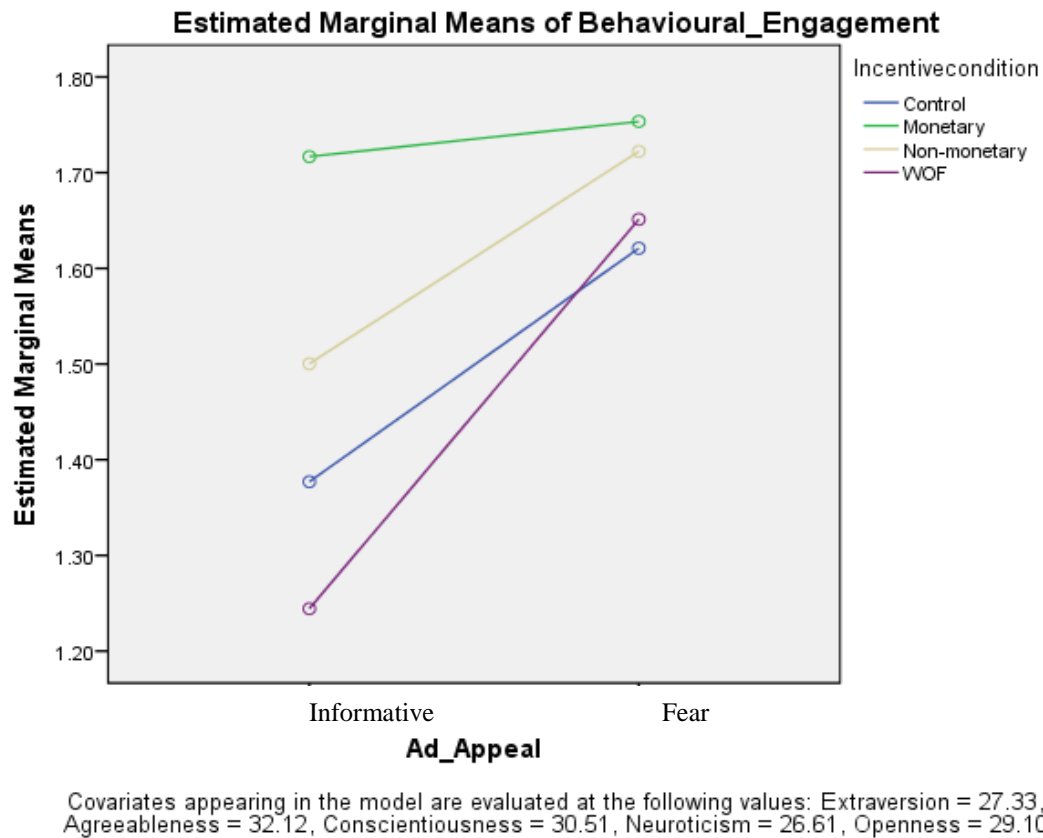


Figure 1: Engagement Behaviour for Message Appeal by Incentive Condition

Discussion and Managerial Implication

This study investigates the extent to which personality, message appeal, and incentives influence consumer online engagement for social marketing messages. While most studies use attitudinal measures as the dependent variable, this study examines online consumer engagement behaviour. Our main result that consumers show greater response to emotional appeals such as fear rather than to ‘factual’, informative appeals endorses previous literature indicating the power of emotional appeals. Research shows consumers do not need to like an

advertisement in order for it to be effective (Zeitlin & Westwood 1986). Although there are circumstances in which it may be appropriate for social marketing messages to deliberately try to evoke negative emotions such as fear, further research is needed to reveal whether higher online engagement on a fear message comes with a positive attitude. We also do not know the effect of fear appeals on group interaction. Do fear appeals unite group members around a common purpose creating feelings of solidarity and cohesion or are fear appeals a source of friction, weakening social relationships and producing factions. Further research is needed to examine group dynamics and ensure there are no negative, unexpected consequences using fear appeals. Taking into account the participants' personality traits, mean comparison shows that a non-monetary reward works better for people with high scores in almost all personality traits. However, a monetary reward stimulates engagement for individuals with low scores for most of personality traits. There are some exceptions, for instance, those who received a low openness score generated a higher level of engagement in WOF condition on a fear message, while a higher amount of engagement in the control group on informative message.

The findings contribute to a better understanding on how different people with different personality traits may need to be approached to stimulate online engagement. Therefore, in order to more effectively segment, evaluate and manage consumers' online engagement, it is crucial to understand what personality traits motives individuals to be engaged on social media (Marbach, Lages & Nunan, 2016). To date, few studies specifically for social marketing messages focus on the factors influencing consumer online engagement and message diffusion. Social media marketing is regarded as an effective promotional channel, but its use requires consumers to engage. Our study provides some evidence for the importance of social media in encouraging consumers to become more engaged in discussing and disseminating social marketing messages. More work is needed as the current study examined online engagement on Facebook with a small student sample over a brief time period for one health issue.

Additional research is needed to validate study results using different online platforms for other health issues and to overcome study limitations of sample size and engagement length.

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APPENDIX D: Abstract Presented at Marketing Science Conference 2016

The Role of Incentives in Online Message Diffusion

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Cynthia M. Webster, Macquarie University, cynthia.webster@mq.edu.au

Abstract

Viral marketing enables companies to exploit the power of electronic word-of-mouth (e-WOM), allowing consumers to promote the product and brand messages within social media networks. The potential to reach a broad and diverse range of consumers, both quickly and cost effectively makes viral marketing attractive for more and more organizations every day. Despite a fast growing body of research that investigates the factors facilitating the diffusion

⁴ Presenting author

of online messages, few studies examine the impact of different types of incentives for message diffusion within social media networks. In response to the lack of research in this area, this article investigates the role of different types of incentives on online message diffusion by classifying them into extrinsic versus intrinsic and further dividing extrinsic incentives into monetary and non-monetary. Extrinsic incentives are commonly used by companies to engage and reward their consumers in particular to increase awareness, sales and retain customers; however, little is known about the effects of intrinsic incentives. The psychology and economic literatures suggest that extrinsic and intrinsic incentives may reinforce each other, but unintended consequences may also arise. Some studies show that introducing extrinsic monetary rewards may actually reduce individuals' intrinsic motivation. To clarify the role of incentives, this article develops a conceptual framework and proposes ways in which both extrinsic and intrinsic incentives influence online message diffusion within social media networks. The framework suggests intrinsic incentives as key factors for engaging/encouraging consumers in online message diffusion. The main theoretical proposition investigated in this paper is whether intrinsic incentives such as social approval, reciprocity and self-image result in greater e-WOM and message sharing than extrinsic incentives.

APPENDIX E: Extended Abstract Presented at INSNA 2016 Sunbelt Conference

Incentives and Diffusion of Social Marketing Messages on Social Media

Helen Siuki, Macquarie University, helen.siuki@mq.edu.au

Cynthia M. Webster, Macquarie University, cynthia.webster@mq.edu.au

Abstract

Today companies take advantage of online social networks by using social media marketing tools to engage consumers and excite electronic word-of-mouth. Companies benefit by allowing consumers to comment, like and share product and brand messages throughout their online social networks. Stimulating online engagement for public health messages is especially challenging. Public health messages typically deal with sensitive issues and difficult lifestyle changes such as HIV testing, smoking cessation and alcohol reduction. Offering incentives and using different message appeals are common promotional tactics, yet little is known about how these come together to influence consumer engagement and message diffusion. Much of the

online engagement research focuses on the actions of individuals and overlooks the network structure of social interactions. The aim of this study is to investigate the ways in which incentives and message appeals influence the network structure of online consumer engagement for public health messages within social media networks. An experiment conducted on Facebook manipulated three incentive conditions (monetary versus non-monetary versus social recognition) and presented two message appeals (informative versus fear). The monetary condition offered a chance to win a \$50 gift card, the non-monetary condition was a chance to win two movie tickets and the social recognition condition presented the opportunity to be featured on the “wall of fame”.

In total 130 student subjects were randomly assigned to one of four Facebook groups, three incentive groups and one control group. Group size ranged from 32 to 33. Subjects in each group were simultaneously exposed to the same two public health messages on the negative effects of smoking, one message framed as an informative appeal and one fear appeal. Subjects were instructed to take part in the online discussion by sharing, commenting and liking posts on the Facebook page. Results show monetary incentives stimulate the highest overall online engagement with 101 posts followed by non-monetary incentives with 92 then social recognition with 71 and 55 posts for the no incentives control group. Across all study conditions findings indicate fear appeals promote greater engagement compared to informative appeals. A visual inspection of the 2-mode networks reveals structural similarities among those who engage online. The monetary and non-monetary networks for both fear and informative appeals have one large component with only a few pairs whereas the control and social recognition networks contain many small components. With regards to network density, monetary and non-monetary networks are relatively more dense (0.133 and 0.119, respectively) compared to social recognition and control networks (0.065 and 0.047, respectively) and networks responding to fear appeals are more dense than informative appeals in all but the

monetary incentives condition where the reverse occurred (0.123 for informative and 0.105 for fear). These findings highlight important structural differences of online engagement. This study examined online engagement on Facebook with a small student sample over a brief time period for one health issue. Additional research is needed to validate study results using different online platforms for other health issues and to overcome study limitations of sample size and engagement length.

APPENDIX F:

Evidence of Ethics Approval

Office of the Deputy Vice-Chancellor
(Research)



MACQUARIE
University
SYDNEY • AUSTRALIA

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Research Hub, Building C5C East
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NSW 2109 Australia T: +61 (2) 9850 4459
<http://www.research.mq.edu.au/> ABN 90 952 801 237

16 September 2015

Dear Dr Cynthia Webster

Reference No: 5201500657

Title: *Incentivizing Message Diffusion within Social Media Networks*

Thank you for submitting the above application for ethical and scientific review. Your application was considered by the Macquarie University Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC (Human Sciences & Humanities)) at its meeting on 28 August 2015 at which further information was requested to be reviewed by the HREC (Human Sciences and Humanities) Executive.

The requested information was received with correspondence on 2 September 2015.

I am pleased to advise that ethical and scientific approval has been granted for this project to be conducted at:

☐ Macquarie University

This research meets the requirements set out in the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* (2007 – Updated March 2014) (the *National Statement*).

This letter constitutes ethical and scientific approval only.

Standard Conditions of Approval:

1. Continuing compliance with the requirements of the *National Statement*, which is available at the following website:

<http://www.nhmrc.gov.au/book/national-statement-ethical-conduct-human-research>

2. This approval is valid for five (5) years, subject to the submission of annual reports. Please submit your reports on the anniversary of the approval for this protocol.

3. All adverse events, including events which might affect the continued ethical and scientific acceptability of the project, must be reported to the HREC within 72 hours.
4. Proposed changes to the protocol must be submitted to the Committee for approval before implementation.

It is the responsibility of the Chief investigator to retain a copy of all documentation related to this project and to forward a copy of this approval letter to all personnel listed on the project.

Should you have any queries regarding your project, please contact the Ethics Secretariat on 9850 4194 or by email ethics.secretariat@mq.edu.au

The HREC (Human Sciences and Humanities) Terms of Reference and Standard Operating Procedures are available from the Research Office website at:

http://www.research.mq.edu.au/for/researchers/how_to_obtain_ethics_approval/human_research_ethics

The HREC (Human Sciences and Humanities) wishes you every success in your research. Yours sincerely

Dr Karolyn White
Director, Research Ethics & Integrity,
Chair, Human Research Ethics Committee (Human Sciences and Humanities)

This HREC is constituted and operates in accordance with the National Health and Medical Research Council's (NHMRC) *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* (2007) and the *CPMP/ICH*

APPENDIX G:

Thesis Research Advertisements Used in PAPER II Experimental Designs, and Paper III Online Surveys

Paper II: Study 1 & 2 Smoking Ads- Message Appeal Conditions: Fear versus Informative

Paper III: Study 1 & 2 online survey

Advertisement 1.1: Smoking Fear

“The image has been removed for copyright purposes.”

Advertisement 1.2: Smoking Informative

“The image has been removed for copyright purposes.”

Paper II: Study 2 Alcohol Ads- Message Appeal Conditions: Fear versus Informative

Paper III: Study 2 online survey

Advertisement 1.3: Alcohol Fear

“The image has been removed for copyright purposes.”

Advertisement 1.4: Alcohol Informative

“The image has been removed for copyright purposes.”

Paper II: Study 3 Ads- Message Appeal Conditions: Promotion versus Prevention Focused

Advertisement 3.1: Prevention-Focused (Female Version):

“The image has been removed for copyright purposes.”

Advertisement 3.2: Promotion-Focused (Female Version):

“The image has been removed for copyright purposes.”

Advertisement 3.3: Prevention-Focused (Male Version):

“The image has been removed for copyright purposes.”

Advertisement 3.4: Promotion-Focused (Male Version):

“The image has been removed for copyright purposes.”

Paper II: Study 1- Incentive Conditions:

Condition 1: Monetary Incentive:

**The more you participate,
the greater chance of winning
\$50 Gift Card.**

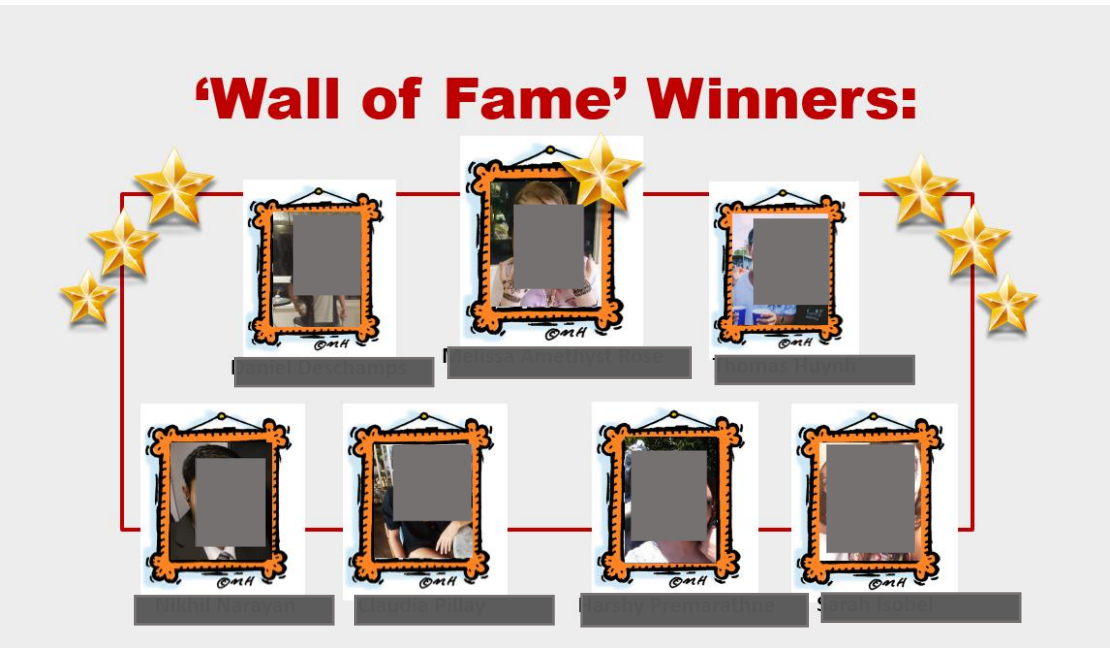


Condition 2: Non-monetary Incentive (Tangible Reward):

**The more you participate,
the greater chance of winning
two Movie Tickets.**



Condition 3: Non-monetary Incentive (Intangible Reward)-Wall-of-fame:



Condition 4: Incentive Conditions- Control Group:



Paper II: Study 2 & 3- Incentive Conditions:

Condition 1: Self-oriented Incentive:

**The more you participate,
the greater chance of winning
\$50 Gift Card.**



Condition 2: Other-oriented Incentive:

**Participate and Contribute
Towards Our Social Good!**



Condition 3: Control:

Participate in Consumer Engagement Project.



APPENDIX H: ONLINE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE:

PAPER 3- STUDY 2

Q1. Please indicate how long you have been using Facebook for?

Less than 6 months
6 months to under 1 year
1 year to under 3 years
3 years to under 5 years
5 years or more
I don't have a Facebook account.

Q2. How frequently do you usually use Facebook?

4-5 times a day or more
2-3 times a day
Once a day
2-3 times a week
Once a week
2-3 times a month
Once a month (or less)

Q3. Please specify on average how much time you spend every time you login to Facebook?

Less than 5 minutes
5 minutes to under 15 minutes
15 minutes to under 30 minutes
30 minutes to under 1 hour
1 hour to under 2 hours
2-3 hours or more

Q4. Please indicate how many friends /connections /followers you have on Facebook?

Less than 50

50-99

100-199

200-499

500-999

1000-1999

2000 or more

Q5 & Q6 & Q7 & Q8 Imagine you are scrolling through your Facebook News Feed and you see the following post (Ad 1/ Ad2 /Ad 3/ Ad4), please specify the extent to which you agree with the following statements about this ad: *(Note: there were separate questions for the four ads in the actual questionnaire)*

“The image has been removed for copyright purposes.”

	Completely disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Completely agree	Not sure
This ad evokes my 'feelings'						
This ad evokes my 'interest'						
This ad is so special that makes me to talk about it to others						
I would share this ad on Facebook						
I would make a comment on this ad						
I would react to this ad by clicking the 'Like' button						
I would react to this ad using Facebook 'reactions' such as love, haha, angry, sad						
I would read through some of the comments already made by others on this ad						
I would click 'like' / reply to the others' comments already made on this ad						

Please add any comments regarding this ad or if you have any specific attachment, involvement or interest in this topic:

Q9. Please indicate what type of topics you usually discuss on Facebook? Tick as many as apply.

News
 Food / travel
 Shopping/ fashion/ life style
 Music/ concerts/ events
 Sport activities and events
 Games/ movies/ TV programs
 Chatting/ gossiping/ sending opinions
 New/ interesting opinion/ ideas
 Social issues/ activities/ events
 Health issues/ activities/ events
 Environmental issues/ activities/ events
 Work/ university stuff

Q10. Please specify to what extent do the following sayings apply to you?

	Not at all	Not much	Neutral	Somewhat	Very much	Not sure
Give it your all						
Where there's a will, there's a way						
You never know what you can do until you try						
Life is for living						
Variety is the spice of life						
Broaden your horizons						
Nothing ventured, nothing gained						
Act normal, that's crazy enough						
Let the cobbler stick to his last						
Prevention is better than cure						
Don't skate on thin ice						
Sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof						
Wait to see which way the wind blows						
East west, home is best						

Q11. This question gives you a list of common personal traits. For each of the traits use the five point scale to indicate how you see yourself at the present time (not as you wish to be in the future).

	Very inaccurate	Inaccurate	Neutral	Accurate	Very accurate	Not Sure/ Prefer not to answer
Talkative						
Extroverted						
Bold						
Energetic						
Shy						
Quiet						
Bashful						
Withdrawn						
Sympathetic						
Warm						
Kind						
Cooperative						
Cold						
Unsympathetic						
Rude						
Harsh						
Unenvious						
Relaxed						
Moody						
Jealous						
Temperamental						
Envious						
Touchy						
Fretful						

Q12. On average, how often do you smoke cigarettes?

I am a 'regular' smoker, smoking 'at least' 15-20 cigarettes everyday.

I am a 'light' smoker, smoking about 5-14 cigarettes' everyday.

I occasionally smoke cigarettes e.g. with friends, or when I feel stressed

I used to be a smoker in the past, but I quit

I never smoke cigarettes

Prefer not to answer

Q13. How many family member(s) or close friend(s) do you have who are 'light' or 'regular' smokers (smoke at least 5-20 cigarettes everyday)?

None

1- 2 are light or regular smokers

3- 5 are light or regular smokers

6 or more are light or regular smokers

Prefer not to answer

Q14. On average, how often do you drink alcoholic beverages?

I drink alcohol at least 4-5 days a week

I drink alcohol 2-3 days a week

I mainly drink alcohol in social occasions, parties and gatherings

I used to be a drinker in the past, but I don't drink anymore

I never drink alcohol

Prefer not to answer

Q15. How many family member(s) or close friend(s) do you have who are 'heavy' drinkers (drink at least 4-5 days a week)?

None

1- 2 are heavy drinkers

3- 5 are heavy drinkers

6 or more are heavy drinkers

Prefer not to answer

Q16. Gender:

Female

Male

Other

Prefer not to answer

Q17. Into which of these age groups do you fall?

Under 18 years
18-24 years
25-34 years
35-44 years
45-54 years
55-64 years
65 and over
Prefer not to answer

Q18. Your country of residence:

United States
United Kingdom
Australia
New Zealand
Other- Please specify _____

Q19. We would appreciate any kind of feedback about the project:

Q20. Please provide your email address if you would like to enter into our prize draw for a chance of winning one of the 5 X \$50 gift cards:

APPENDIX I:

THEORETICAL APPENDIX

Network Factors Influencing e-WOM:

This section details network factors, i.e. online context, network structure, network roles and position, and seeding strategy, as the third major categories of factors influencing e-WOM within social media networks. Although research shows that network factors play significant roles in facilitating e-WOM and online consumer engagement, studying network factors is beyond the scope of this thesis. This thesis however, call for future research investigating the impact of network factors on diffusion of online messages in social media, specifically in the context of social marketing.

1. Online context

Sharing e-WOM occurs across many different types of online platforms such as websites, weblogs, and social media forums including microblogging sites like Twitter, social networking sites such as Facebook, content communities like Youtube and others. Kane *et al.*, (2014) operationally define social media networks as systems in which users a) have a unique user profile, b) can access digital content, c) can ‘articulate’ with those people who they have ‘relational connections’, and d) can ‘view and traverse’ their connections. These online contexts contain several unique characteristics that affect how e-WOM is generated and consumed. Some of the most distinctive features of online platforms include: asynchrony, volume, dispersion, visibility, persistence, anonymity and valence (King *et al.*, 2014; Berger & Iyengar, 2013). In general, online platforms enabling written communication result in generating more interesting content and mentioning more interesting brands or products, since

‘asynchrony’ gives people additional time to create and refine communication (Berger & Iyengar 2013).

Most studies look at email message diffusion or message sharing on Facebook, but increasingly more and more studies are comparing different formats (Smith, Fischer & Yongjian, 2012). For instance, Leung *et al.*, (2013) compare Facebook and Twitter and report no difference in hotel customers’ intentions to spread e-WOM. In a study on Twitter about physical activity, Zhang *et al.*, (2013) find that chatting and providing opinions or information are the most common types of tweets and suggest that people are using other channels such as Facebook to seek information and support. The current study raises the question whether social media platforms which enable permanent, publically visible, and identifiable communication encourage or discourage e-WOM and message transmission for social marketing messages. In general, research shows that social media networking sites which enable visible interactive communications, connecting both strong and weak ties, encourage greater message sharing than other online contexts such as websites, forums, and emails. However, this might not be necessarily applicable to social marketing messages. In fact, we argue that platforms which are more ‘anonymous’, ‘specialized’ and ‘thoughtful’ such as websites, forums and online communities may provide a better platform for social marketing e-WOM.

2. Network Structure, Network Role and Position

Network structures that can affect message diffusion are namely: cohesion, centrality and clustering (sub-groups). Well-connected users in a sub-network form a ‘cohesive community’. Cohesive networks encourage cooperation, trust and collaboration, but also put pressure to conform to group norms (Coleman, 1988; Takac, 2011). Research shows WOM is influenced

by individuals who desire self-enhancement (Wojnicki & Godes, 2012). Density is a factor used for measuring network cohesion which is introduced by Webster and Morrison (2004). “Density measures the extent to which all possible nodes are present for any one network” (Webster & Morrison 2004, p.12). It is computed as the ratio of actual nodes present to total possible nodes. Dense networks allow for direct communication, but tend to contain less innovative information as network members are connected to one another with few external ties. Small world networks however are quite sparse yet contain dense local clusters connected to one another through bridging ties which assist the diffusion process (Watts, 1999). Much of the network research in message diffusion focuses on network centrality. In terms of measurement, degree centrality is one of the basic measures of centrality to demonstrate the level of activity or popularity (Webster & Morrison, 2004). Mishori *et al.*, (2014) believe developing an active and engaged community is vital for successful message diffusion within online networks. They find that information ‘brokers’ with at least a moderate number of followers, which some of them are active users, are distributing large-scale information on twitter. Information brokers also can be beneficial for small networks in terms of having high potential in spreading information (Mishori *et al.*, 2014).

Different clusters (sub-groups) within a social network can also affect message diffusion. Sub-groups can be formed based on age, gender, race, ethnicity, and interest similarities. (Jamali & Abolhassani, 2006). Networks usually contain a large number of small cliques with high level of overlaps. These overlaps can cause even more rapid information diffusion in a network (Jamali & Abolhassani, 2006). Webster and Morrison (2004) introduce the term clique to measure network sub-groups. A clique is defined as a subset of nodes which are connected to each other directly. Centola (2010) investigates how online communities influence the spread of health behaviour, and find that behaviour diffusion is much more likely across *clustered-lattice* networks versus random networks. He argues that not only diffusion

occurs more successfully in individual-level, however, large-scale diffusion can reach more people and spread faster and farther in clustered networks. Centola (2010), therefore suggests that public health interventions aiming at promoting a new health behaviour may be more successful if they target clustered residential network.

Network members' position has a significant impact on propagation of information. Network researchers often divide network members (nodes) into three categories: *hubs*, *bridges*, and *fringes*. Hinz *et al.*, (2011) find that targeting well-connected, highly central individuals to seed at the start of a campaign is considerably more successful at generating awareness (information diffusion) than other seeding strategies. They point out that this seeding strategy is successful because well-connected individuals tend to be more active and can reach a greater number of others not because they are more persuasive. Therefore, network structural factors such as the presence of *hubs* and *bridges* and the level of cohesion, centralization and clustering can facilitate or obstruct the speed and extent of online message diffusion. Although network factors play a significant role in facilitating e-WOM, this is not the focus of the current thesis. We thus, call for future research on the role of network factors in encouraging and facilitating message diffusion, particularly in the context of social marketing.

3. Seeding Strategy

Currently, substantial discrepancies exist regarding the best seeding strategy to implement to ensure rapid diffusion within online networks. Opinion leaders typically are the initial targets as they are well-connected (Iyengar, Van Den Bulte & Valente, 2011). In a study by Watts and Dodd (2007) it is shown that rather than the *influential* being the critical factor in diffusion, instead diffusion requires a significant level of easily influenced individuals. Such a finding

suggests that seeding online campaigns can succeed even targeting less central individuals. In another research, Hinz *et al.*, (2011) investigate the impact of different seeding strategies and examine the effects of seeding to nodes with different network positions (centrals versus peripheral) on diffusion. They find that highest number of referral can be achieved (up to eight times more successful than seeding to fringes) if the message first is seeded to hubs or bridges in a network. In other words, Hinz *et al.*, (2011) find that indeed seeding ‘hubs’ and bridges is the most successful strategy as long as the campaign is at the awareness phase.

These findings call for more research examining the effects of seeding strategy and network members’ behaviour in spreading information throughout the social network structure.

Types of Incentives:

The following tables provide the main types of incentives, as well as people's intrinsic and extrinsic motivations which encourage people to take part in an activity or perform a task, in particular in commercial marketing context. This thesis divides incentives into monetary versus non-monetary—tangible, intangible. Also, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are categorised into two main categories: self-oriented versus others-oriented.

Monetary Incentives Examples:

Monetary Incentives	Outcome	Concerns	Reference
Discounts (e.g. quantity, seasonal, ...)	Most frequently used promotional tools. For price sensitive customers, discounting strategy is recommended to be used more frequently. Even with a high last purchase customer satisfaction, brand switching can still occur “Pay X% (e.g. 60%) of the regular price” results in higher purchase likelihood than “take Y% (e.g. 40%) off the regular price” The impact of “Cents-off deals” on brand switching is medium	If consumers get used to discounts, the baseline sales decrease. Discounts can increase price sensitivity Discounts are less effective in “stealing” sales from competitors, if used frequently	Kopalle et al., 1999; Kim and Kramer, 2006; Mazursky, Labarbera, & Aiello, 1987
Coupons	Positively associated with customer purchase intention since they provide economic benefits (by lowering the economic cost to consumers) Short-term sales is increased through incremental sales. The post-promotion brand preference may be increased. Customers loyal to competitor and Switchers both are targeted. To influence brand-switchers customers, redeemable coupons are more effective, while loyal customers are more influenced by in-pack coupons. “Media distributed coupons” are highly affective for brand switchers. Package coupons are less effective for brand switching.	Consumers need to put a relative high effort to redeem the coupon. Brand switchers are more likely to use coupons faster than brand-loyal customers. Easy to be copied by competing brands.	Leclerc & Little, 1997; Raghubir, 2004; DelVecchio, Henard, Freling 2006; Raju <i>et al.</i> , 1994; Mazursky, Labarbera & Aiello, 1987
Rebates	A strategic tool to respond to competitors' reaction A brand can use it to increase its own profit and reduce competitor's profit	less favourable to potential buyers since it requires high level of time & effort for redemption.	Tat, 1994; Munger & Grewal, 2001;

Non-monetary Incentives Examples:

Non-monetary	Outcome	Concerns	Reference
Business gifts	<p>Built based on the reciprocity theory Work in synergy with the other company's communication programs Can lead to feelings of obligation Expensive business gifts, is associated with positive, immediate and sustained increase in customers satisfaction, intent to purchase and actual sales behaviour</p>	<p>Even with limited available resources, a relatively less expensive business gift can still be effective rather than no gift at all.</p>	<p>Beltramini, 1992; Beltramini, 2000</p>
Sale Contests / Prizes	<p>Customers' contest: A minimal skill, which is not different among members, is required in most contests. Sales persons' contests: Duration is usually between one to three months Rank-order/Multiple-winner tournaments May stimulate extra selling effort, improve sales skills, higher margins and additional customer interactions Companies can benefit from a higher salesperson-customer interactions in terms of an improve customer satisfaction and lead to lasting firm benefits</p>	<p>Sales persons' contests: Salesperson may push customers to buy during the sale contest Over the long-term, overlooked customers service during the sale contests could have a negative impact on customer value and customer quality</p>	<p>Kalra & Shi, 2010; Kim & Kim, 2004; Garrett & Gopalakrishna, 2010</p>
Sweepstakes	<p>Sweepstakes and contests are different, in sweepstakes winning is only by chance however for contests, some effort or skill is required. Number of winners ranges from one, to over 100,000 and number of prize levels awarded from one, to several levels Actual winning odds may be announced, or may be depended on the number of entries received. The sweepstake itself does not alter brand valuation, it alter the overall utility of purchasing the brand.</p>	<p>Sweepstakes should offer at least a 1 in 3 chance of winning (according to Promotion Magazine) An effective sweepstake needs prizes over \$10,000, and several secondary prizes should be offered (according to the research firm Envoy) If a low-brand-valuation customer does not win a prize, s/he experiences a loss, since s/he prefer another brand if the sweepstake is not offered.</p>	<p>Kalra & Shi, 2010</p>

Non-monetary Incentives Examples:

Non-monetary	Outcome	Concerns	Reference
Special treatment (Birthday cards, thank you letter)	An effective relationship marketing strategy Companies need to develop constructive relationships with customers (especially loyal customers) Communication with customers is the most important element to maintain a long-term relationship with them.	Does not increase customer satisfaction Drives customer loyalty to program not brand.	Berman, 2006; Hennig-Thurau <i>et al.</i> , 2002; Kim & Cha, 2002
Special Services (loyalty program)	Loyalty programs reward repeat purchase behaviour Five trending loyalty programs: ubiquity, technology enables but imagination wins, coalition lite, customer analytics; and the Wow! Factor.	Not all loyalty programs lead to turning customers to loyal members .	Sharp & Sharp, 1997; Capizzi & Ferguson, 2005
Recognition Schemes	Four types of recognition schemes: “no disclosure” scheme: outcome is never announced publicly “partial disclosure” scheme (often called president’s club): top performers are recognized publicly without revealing the ranking “full disclosure” scheme (often called wall of fame and shame): the ranking of all performers is announced “winner disclosure” scheme: only top performer is announced	The choice of recognition regime can affect the level of intrinsic motivation Partial disclosure or “president’s clubs” work better compared to other recognition schemes Partial disclosure and winner disclosure work better than no disclosure	Hossain, Shi, & Waiser, 2014

Extrinsic Motivation Examples:

Extrinsic Motivations	Outcome	Concerns	Reference
Social approval	<p>Interacts with monetary incentives to shape behaviour</p> <p>Social approval has been recently integrated in some economic models</p> <p>Material incentive and approval incentives may reinforce each other</p> <p>The perceived value of social approval is positive due to generating material benefits or/and for its own sake</p>	<p>Two key interests can explain people's behaviour: economic gain, and social acceptance</p> <p>Social and the enforcement of social norms are closely associated</p> <p>Extrinsic incentives may weaken approval motivation</p>	Fehr & Falk, 2002
Image (Signalling motivation)	<p>Refers to a person's willingness to be seen as respectable and likeable by others and one's self</p> <p>The image motivation is vital for undertaking prosocial behaviour, offering extrinsic incentives crowd out image motivation.</p>	<p>The importance of image motivation is based on its visibility</p>	Ariely et al., 2009
Reciprocity	<p>Reciprocity and other extrinsic incentives often interact</p> <p>The expectation of future benefits is not a driving factor</p> <p>Involves with voluntary cooperation</p> <p>Compared to incentives with negative content, positive incentives is resulted in much higher voluntary cooperation</p>	<p>Depending on the reference person, reciprocity is seen as a contingent social preference</p>	Fehr & Falk, 2002
Self-image congruence	<p>Self-image congruence is built on the match between consumer's self-concept (actual self, ideal self, etc) and her/his image of a given product or brand</p> <p>Brand loyalty is positively associated to Self-image congruence through functional congruity, product involvement and brand relationship quality.</p> <p>Consumers purchase is often motivated by the need to express their own self</p>	<p>Three marketing strategies can be suggested for the association between self-image and brand loyalty (direct/indirect):</p> <p>A clear brand personality must be communicated to the actual or ideal self-concept of target consumers</p> <p>Due to the importance of brand relationship quality as a major influencer of brand loyalty, several social interactions with customers can create a strong emotional bond between customers and brand.</p> <p>Customers with highest brand associations are required to be targeted with special incentives and programs</p>	Kressmann <i>et al.</i> , 2006

Intrinsic Motivation Examples:

Intrinsic Motivations-Continued	Outcome	Concerns	Reference
Desire to try new brand (exploration or novelty seeking)	<p>People who are seeking out novel information are driven by some intrinsic motivation</p> <p>Is used to fulfil the self-preservation, and problem-solving needs</p> <p>Customers switch from one brand to another to avoid boredom</p> <p>Novelty seeking has two components: inherent and actualized</p>	<p>Customers with high desire for novel products, may consider switching regardless of how satisfied they are with the previous brand.</p> <p>For customers with a desire to new brands, the correlation between satisfaction and repurchase is higher, compared to customers with extrinsic motivations such as coupons or discounts</p>	<p>Mazursky, Labarbera, & Aiello,, 1987;</p> <p>Hirschman, 1980</p>
Desire to work on interesting things (enjoyment, interest)	<p>Many customers are engaged with no extrinsic incentives and solely based on intrinsic enjoyment</p> <p>Enjoyment is associated with customer's behavioural intentions.</p> <p>Enjoyment is positively correlated with the willingness to do online and mobile shopping, which may be resulted in loyalty</p>	<p>Offering extrinsic incentives (in particular monetary) for undertaking an interesting task may be cause The crowding-out effect</p>	<p>Shang, Chen & Shen 2005; Lu & Su, 2009;</p> <p>Fehr & Falk, 2002</p>
Entertainment	<p>Making shopping experience entertaining is considered as a key competitive advantage</p> <p>Several types of shopping experiences such as Adventure shopping, Social shopping, Role shopping and Value shopping are considerably effective to create an entertaining shopping experience.</p> <p>With online shopping, intrinsic motivations such as entertainment are more effective than extrinsic motivation</p>	<p>Customer satisfaction and loyalty are associated with strong (versus weak) shopping experience motivations</p> <p>For customers with hedonic motivations, advertising can be used as an effective tool.</p> <p>In designing rewards programs, customers' entertainment needs should be considered.</p>	<p>Arnold & Reynolds, 2003;</p> <p>Shang, Chen & Shen, 2005</p>

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