Consumer Participation in FMCG Crowdsourcing Contests

-Master Thesis-

Supervisor: Jon Bertilsson

Authors:

Lisa Wijnberg
Jennifer Joan Williams

Preface

This Master Thesis represents the last accomplishment in order to graduate as a Master of Science from the Lund University in the program of International Marketing and Brand Management. The topic was chosen from our own interest regarding consumer co-creation in the FMCG industry. While working on this thesis we enjoyed exploring and researching the phenomenon of consumer participation in crowdsourcing contests.

We acknowledge that this end result would not have been possible without the support of some people. Hence, we would like to take this opportunity to thank them.

First of all, we would like to thank the interviewees for responding to our 'open call'. Our study would have not been possible without you. We truly appreciate your assistance, openness and especially the time you invested in helping us.

Secondly, we like to thank our supervisor, Jon Bertilsson for his valuable insights, thoughts and encouragement. His passion for the subject and constructive feedback made our thesis a better work.

Special thanks also belong to our so-called 'round table of friends', JJ Hesseltine, Ruslan Krastev and Aaron Weise. Without you the process of writing this thesis would not have been as much fun, therefore thanks for the conversations, support and laughter.

Finally, we would like to thank our friends and families for their continuous belief in us and their lifetime support in everything we do and want to do.

Lund, 24 May 2012

_____   _____

Lisa Wijnberg   *Jennifer Joan Williams*

Abstract

Title:	Consumer Participation in FMCG Crowdsourcing Contests
Date of the Seminar:	30th of May 2012
Course:	BUSN29 Master thesis
Authors:	Lisa Wijnberg and Jennifer Joan Williams
Advisor:	Jon Bertilsson
Keywords:	Crowdsourcing Contest, Consumer, FMCG, Motives, Experience
Thesis purpose:	The purpose of this study is to contribute to the existing literature on co-creation, specifically regarding the phenomenon of consumer participation in FMCG crowdsourcing contests. By taking a consumer perspective, it is our ambition to improve the conceptualization of the phenomenon of participants' motives, experiences, attitudes and feelings, in general and related to the brand, in crowdsourcing contests.
Methodology:	An interpretive epistemology and social-constructionist ontology led us to a phenomenological method in which we conducted qualitative research. By following an abductive approach and conducting qualitative interviews rich respondent data was gathered and systematically analyzed as inspired by the hermeneutic circle approach.
Theoretical perspective:	The theoretical departure of the study starts out with theories relating to crowdsourcing contests as part of co-creation. The concept of value co-creation and consumer characteristics is explained through the application of Consumer Culture Theory and Social Production in the Ethical Economy. Moreover, consumer motivation and experience theories were described to create a theoretical lens.
Empirical data:	Semi-structured instant messaging interviews were conducted with seven participants of the 'Mein Burger 2012' FMCG crowdsourcing ideation-contest of McDonalds Germany Inc.

Conclusion:

Our conclusion is that consumers show a mixture of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, wherein intrinsic motives are more dominant. The intrinsic motive of 'Fun' is expressed by all the interviewees and is therefore the strongest motive. However, as well other intrinsic motives were found like 'Co-determination' and 'Joining the Mainstream'. We also found the extrinsic motives of 'Prize' and 'For His Own Community'. When it comes to the effect of the crowdsourcing experience on the consumers attitude towards the brand we found that the participants tended to distinguish between the encountered experience of the crowdsourcing contest and the conducting brand and did not change their initial attitude. Within the encountered experience participants were mainly involved through the elements of Personal Relevance and Engagement.

Index

1. Introduction

This introductory chapter firstly presenst an in-depth background of the changing role of the consumer making online crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing contests possible. Moreover, the concepts of crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing contests are further explored. In the literature review the two research perspectives in crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing contests are reviewed. First the existing literature relating to the optimistic perspective is reviewed after which the critical theories relating to crowdsourcing is explained. Based on this review, gaps in the existing literature are discussed and the research problems which have to be investigated are stated. Finally, this chapter presents the research purpose and outline.

1.1 Background

In the last decade an increasing consumer engagement in crowdsourcing contests can be witnessed. For example, the public has been invited to design bottles for Heineken ('Future Limited Edition Bottle Competition'), send in new flavor ideas for Walkers ('Do Us a Flavour'), create their own burger for McDonald's ('My Burger'), make their own commercials for Doritos ('Crash the Super Bowl') or even control company donations for Pepsi ('Pepsi Refresh Project'). Well-known and less well-known brands started crowdsourcing contests and were able to successfully engage consumers in participating in them.

There is no unified definition for the concepts of 'crowdsourcing' and 'crowdsourcing contests'. The term crowdsourcing originates from the online article, 'The rise of crowdsourcing', written by Jeff Howe which was published in 2006 in the online magazine *Wired* (Howe, 2006a). Even though the term crowdsourcing has existed since 2006 it has been argued that the concept itself is not new and was invented as early as 1714, when the British Government offered anyone a £20.000 prize for finding a solution to the 'Longitude Problem' (DesignCrowd, 2010, online). However, with the rise of Web 2.0 technologies, it has become possible to reach a broad crowd of people who can thereby interact and are able to create and share their own content online (Hudson-Smith, Crooks and Milton, 2008). Thus even though the concept on its own is not new, crowdsourcing has been enabled only through the Web technologies (Brabham, 2008a). These Web technologies make it possible that crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing contests are now becoming a dominant logic in marketing and are adapted by many different industries (Bröring and Cloutier, 2008).

The phenomenon of crowdsourcing contests has been made possible by technological developments like the evolution of the Internet. The transition from a passive Web 1.0 to an interactive, social and co-

created Web 2.0, and nowadays to a semantic Web 3.0 leads to a changing role of the consumer (Kambil, 2008; Wind, 2008; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). With Web 2.0, social media arose which allows consumers to create and exchange User Generated Content (UGC) and be in a dialogue with each other and with companies (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). The Web 2.0 technologies enable individuals and communities to share, consume, co-create, discuss and modify UGC (Kietzman, Hermkens, McCarthy and Silvestre, 2011; Scott, 2011). Instead of having monologues in which communication went one way from the company to the consumer one can now have dialogues with each other (Scott, 2011). This led to a shift from a linear, one-to-many communication model to a nonlinear, one-to-one and many-to-many model (Rowley, 2004). The so-called 'new breed of consumers' (Wind, 2008) moved from traditionally being passive to now being active and engaging (Hanna, Rohm and Crittenden, 2011), leading to a transfer of power from the business to the consumer (Rowley, 2004: Pires, Stanton and Rita, 2006; Wind, 2008). The empowered consumers can now access and understand information to increase their knowledge (Pires, Stanton and Rita, 2006) and are creators of information. Thereby, they have gained control and can interfere with the brand's values (Christodoulides, 2009). Hence, the role of organizations and consumers converge as consumers engage in the process of defining and creating value (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004a/b). The boundaries between consumption and production have blurred and consumers become a new source of competence for organizations (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2000; 2002). Therefore, consumers can now be seen as a 'working consumer' (Howe, 2006a) or 'digital prosumer' (Ritzer and Jurgenson, 2010). Companies take advantage of these new possibilities by engaging with consumers through crowdsourcing activities, and more specifically, crowdsourcing contests. Through these crowdsourcing contests organizations can make an open call to the public to work on behalf of the brand and 'play the brand's game' (Fournier and Avery, 2011).

Although one can define crowdsourcing in many different ways, in this study crowdsourcing is defined in line with the first definition of Howe as "the act of a company or institution taking a function once performed by employees and outsourcing it to an undefined (and generally large) network of people in the form of an open call. This can take the form of peer-production (when the job is performed collaboratively), but is also often undertaken by sole individuals. The crucial prerequisite is the use of the open call format and the large network of potential laborers" (Howe, 2006a; 5). As one can see, not every crowdsourcing activity necessarily has a contest element attached to it. However, in this study the focus is on a particular kind of crowdsourcing, namely the crowdsourcing contest. Howe (Ibid.) argues that due to the technical advances, one can tap the latent talent of the crowd through crowdsourcing (Ibid.) wherein via virtual environments unknown and/or undefined groups are invited to contribute to solve predefined innovation challenges (Frey, Lüthje and Haag, 2011; Verona, Prandelli and Sawhney, 2006). Open

innovation platforms, which allow the integration of external contributors, are especially used in crowdsourcing contests, as the invitation to enter the contest can be directed to anyone willing to contribute (Frey, Lüthje and Haag, 2011). Moreover, Brabham (2009, online) describes the crowdsourcing contest process in eight steps, which are; (1) the company has a problem; (2) it broadcasts the problem online; (3) online 'crowd' is asked to give solution; (4) crowd submits solutions; (5) crowd and/or, as we argue, company vets solutions; (6) company rewards winning solvers; (7) company owns winning solution; and (8) company profits. There are different ways of describing crowdsourcing contests. However, we explain crowdsourcing contests as an online problem solving and idea-generating business model in which, through the form of an open call, a large group of external contributors are invited to submit contributions. These contributions are evaluated by the organization and/or crowd, after which the winner receives some kind of reward. Moreover, it is important to acknowledge that a contest takes place within a respective time period.

Crowdsourcing contests take place in different industries, from the pharmaceutical to the automotive industry. The benefits of crowdsourcing measures are hardly tangible or measurable in financial terms, therefore their effectiveness should be evaluated in a different manner. The number of visits to the crowdsourcing contest platform indicates, for example, brand awareness. Brand engagement of consumers is shown through the number of creation attempts and references to the project in other media (e.g. social media) and mark additional spinoffs through online word of mouth (Hoffman and Fodor, 2010). As many participants share their contribution to the crowdsourcing contest via social media, when for example letting their friends vote for their submitted idea or created design, they create awareness among their social contacts which leads to valuable spinoff effects for the company (Pater, 2009, online). The contacts of the participating consumers' social media networks are exposed to the brand, which leads to increased awareness. This presence furthermore creates attention and as Hubermann (2008; 105) calls it 'popularity', which drives exposed viewers to examine the posted submissions, contest or brand in general, just "because others do". Beginning with the attention of a few who are forwarding an interesting content within their social networks, a chain reaction is created by which media exposure is increased. Moreover, the positive reinforcement leads to an ever faster spread of a popular content (Ibid.). Various organizations utilize today's online users and their social capital to spread their marketing message throughout the Web (Bosman, 2006 in Brabham, 2008a) and brands which are able to attract the consumers with such an interesting content have thereby earned their right to participate in consumers' social spaces (Fournier and Avery, 2011). In case this right is not earned, the online experienced consumers of today's new media world and their technical knowledge pose a threat, as consumers can easily create parodies (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). What consumers see in a brand or do with the

crowdsourcing contest can conflict with the brand mission of an organization and can bring the brand and its image dangerously off track, challenging not only brand equity, but furthermore the function and importance of marketing (Fournier and Avery, 2011). Especially consumer generated advertising contests include the potential to be abused as platform for political discourses. Not even large and iconic brands are immune to such abuse; in fact brands like Starbucks, McDonald's, Nike and Camel are the most parodied brands on the web (Harvest Communications, 2002 in Fournier and Avery, 2011). Several consumer brand companies had to learn that crowdsourcing is not just a convenient way to drive business through innovation, on the contrary it can be costly and time consuming when active consumers take advantage of their power and "scrawl digital graffiti on the sponsor and its brand" (Story, 2007, online). These unpredictable, inconsistent and counterproductive outcomes of consumer engagement lie not in the hands of marketers. As it lies in the hands of the consumer, the company measures to control and manipulate participants remain ineffective (Gabriel and Lang, 2008 in Pongsakornrungsilp and Schroeder, 2011). Company attempts to control and execute ownership over their brand messages endanger them of being a victim of 'crowdslapping', meaning that the crowd turns against the organization conducting the sourcing (Howe, 2006b, online).

The crowdsourcing phenomenon has attracted the attention of researchers and gave rise to different standpoints. Within the existing research literature some researchers looked at the company side, whereas others focus on the consumer side. Within each of these areas at least two different perspectives can be observed; a positive and a critical view of the phenomenon. In the next section we will present a literature review of research conducted within the consumer area, and present the different standpoints thereof.

1.2 Literature Review and Problem Formulation

Even though the concept of crowdsourcing is fairly nascent, previous academic research on consumer participation in crowdsourcing (contests) evolved around two perspectives. On one hand, researchers argue that crowdsourcing (contests) is a way of involving consumers in the innovation process by making them co-creators. Thereby, crowdsourcing contests respond to the new consumer needs. On the other hand, there is the counter perspective which states that the previous perspective has been too optimistic and crowdsourcing contests are a way of exploiting consumers. After this review of both perspectives, we can discuss the lack of research around the phenomenon of consumer participation in crowdsourcing contests and raised our research questions.

1.2.1 Optimistic perspective of crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing contests

The empirical research, which regards crowdsourcing from an optimistic perspective, has mostly revolved around the premise of co-creation. Inherently, co-creation is understood as a process in which, through close involvement in the development of products and services, the consumer is a vital part of the development process (Kaminski, 2009). Vargo and Lusch (2004) argue that there is a new dominant service-centered view of marketing which is customer-centric and market driven. In this service-centered logic, it is implied that the consumer is always a co-producer of value as it is defined and co-created with the consumer. Through maximizing the involvement of the consumer, an organization can better meet his[1] needs (Ibid.). Moreover, Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2000; 2004a/b) discuss that consumers increasingly engage in the process of defining and creating value and that nowadays value is co-created through personalized experiences which are unique to each individual consumer. The consumer and the organization co-create value and this interaction experience itself is the basis of value. Through these personalized experiences, individuals legitimize and give meanings to brands (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004a). In this perspective, it is argued that these co-creation relationships take place as consumers currently have higher expectations and the need for recognition, freedom, and agency (Zwick, Bonsu and Darmody, 2008); they want to help design value of the products and services they use while simultaneously having their voices heard (Ramaswamy and Gouillard, 2010). Crowdsourcing and more specifically crowdsourcing contests fulfill these new needs of the consumer. In crowdsourcing contests, consumers are enabled to gain power against brand owners and play active roles in value co-creation (Pongsakornrungsilp and Schroeder, 2011). As consumers are empowered and active, they can engage in crowdsourcing contests and voice their opinion to the company. Moreover, the productivity of consumers in crowdsourcing contests adds to the propertied form of life that is the brand (Arvidsson, 2005).

In this optimistic perspective, the crowd is viewed as being collectively intelligent and able to solve problems. The crowd is motivated by extrinsic and/or intrinsic benefits to volunteer their competences in a crowdsourcing contest (Wexler, 2011). In this perspective, the existing literature concerning crowdsourcing contests mainly focuses on the benefits of co-creation and crowdsourcing for the company and on how to best design them for the problem at hand (e.g. Zheng, Li and Hou, 2011). Conversely, the consumer perspective in crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing contests has been less researched. The empirical research relating to the consumer perspective mainly focused on the consumers motivations in various crowdsourcing contest formats in different industries. Brabham researched consumer motives in various studies. In a quantitative study at iStockphoto, Brabham (2008b, online) found that the

---

[1] We acknowledge that the consumer or participant can be male or female. However, regarding the readability of this thesis we refer to the consumer or participant as „he".

opportunity to earn money and develop creative skills surpassed desires to network with other people and outrank other altruistic motivations. In another study, Brabham (2010) conducted online interviews with participating consumers of the crowdsourcing company, Threadless.com, in which consumers can send in design ideas for t-shirts. He found four primary motives for participation: the opportunity to make money, the opportunity to develop creative skills, the potential to engage in freelance work, and for the love of the community. Moreover, he found that participants discussed the addictive side of crowdsourcing. Lakhani, Jeppesen, Lohse and Panetta (2007, online) studied the crowdsourcing company InnoCentive and found intrinsic motivators like 'enjoying problem solving and cracking a tough problem' and extrinsic motivators like financial rewards, which were all positively correlated to success as a solver. Additionally, Leimeister, Huber, Bretschneider and Krcmar (2009) studied the ideas competition called SAPiens and found the following four consumer motives, 'direct compensation', 'learning', 'self-marketing', and 'social motives'. Ipeirotis (2010) researched consumer motives to participate to the Mechanical Turk and found motives of 'fruitful way to spend free time', 'to kill time', and 'tasks are fun', 'primary source of income' and 'secondary source of income'.

1.2.2 Critical perspective of crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing contests

The rather critical perspective centers around the exploitation of consumer labor in co-creation processes and derecognition of the truthfulness of consumer power. The concept of putting consumers to work is not a new idea as various examples can be found in everyday life. Zwick, Bonsu and Darmody (2008) describe working consumers at McDonalds, where customers are turned into waiters and cleaning personnel as they get and recycle their food and at Banks, who 'employ' consumers on automated teller machines (ATM) as an unwaged bank teller. They argue that the Internet now offers more innovative ways to extract free labor from consumers. The new 'service-centered dominant logic of marketing', promoted by Vargo and Lusch (2004), is therefore criticized as a strategy to reconstruct marketing as a tool of consumer exploitation and control.

Since Arvidsson (2005) describes that already 'looking' can be conceptualized as 'labor', it is apparent that the leisure activities of online-consumers are resulting in a productive sort of contribution. This kind of labor again can be exploited as a free resource by the industry (Kozinets, Hemetsberger and Schau, 2008; Füller, Jawecki, and Mühlbacher 2007). In fast moving consumer goods (FMCG) crowdsourcing contests consumers can easily co-create and engage in a playful way. We can recognize what Terranova (2004) describes as value production of the information age within the digital economy driven by the 'free labor' of co-creating consumers. Their input is voluntary and most of the time unpaid; they enjoy their engagement while simultaneously being exploited by the industry (Zwick, Bonsu and Darmody, 2008). Critical theorists see the thereby created social relation and emotional involvement as additional brand

value, a symbolic value, which can be monetized (Gorz, 2003 in Arvidsson, 2005; Aaker, 1996). Since this part of brand value can only be generated by consumers, they end up as exploited workers for the brand they are engaging with. If we look at co-creation, or more specifically at crowdsourcing, it does not change the fact that the "intellectual labor the crowd performs is worth a lot more than winning solutions are paid" (Brabham, 2008a; 83). Brabham (Ibid.) even goes so far to compare this imbalance between reward and the worth of consumer labor on the market with a slave economy. Arvidsson (2005) argues that consumer engagement has two dimensions, as it shows qualitative and quantitative features. Next to the qualitative dimension of value co-creation through for example idea-generation, engagement or simply attention, the quantitative side regards the 'working time' of the users, which is at the expense of their free time.

Cova and Dalli (2009) go even further by describing a so called 'double exploitation'. This occurs since companies profit from the knowledgeable and enthusiastic consumer, who created brand value and then sell the thereby produced commodities under a premium price due to the higher (consumer created) brand value (Cova and Dalli, 2007 in Cova and Dalli, 2009; Zwick, Bonsu and Darmody 2008; Franke and Piller, 2004). In this respect Cova and Dalli (2009) researched customer opinions considering their participation in co-creation activities and found, that although consumers enjoyed the co-creation and the recognition of the company and community, they later on, after a critical incident or conflict with the company, lost their trust and actually felt exploited as they realized the unbalanced nature of their relationship with the company.

Other critics emphasize the exploitation of consumer creation based on the deprivation of intellectual property rights. For example Kozinets, Hemetsberger, and Schau (2008) state, that the rich resource of networked consumer creativity bears the potential to be managed and exploited by businesses, as these consumers give up their intellectual property rights and have their innovative creations taken over and monetized. This statement transfers to Arvidsson (2005) who elaborates on the usurpation of consumer creations, as companies filter the creative consumer co-creations and deprive it of particular undesired qualities. Thereby, consumer co-creation and communication are limited to the platforms created and ruled by companies, which engage users not to their full potential (Manovich, 2001).

Another argument countering the optimistic view of crowdsourcing considers the tapped crowd of people itself. The crowd, praised as collectively intelligent, is not as diverse as companies might hope. Brabham (2008a) states, that in the particular co-creation area of crowdsourcing and therefore crowdsourcing contests, the number of participants is limited to the typical Internet user. The still limited Internet access of the population- the crowd- limits the attainment of the full reach and potential of crowdsourcing

activities. In order to achieve a 'wise crowd' (Brabham, 2008a; 85), the diversity of opinion is needed to solve a problem. Still, studies which were conducted on this topic show that the typical web user and therefore participant of crowdsourcing activities is likely to be white, middle- or upper-class, English speaking, higher educated, and possessing high-speed connections. Furthermore, research has concluded that the most engaging individuals of the crowd are young people (below 25-30 years of age), as this group is most active when it comes to content creation in the Web 2.0. (Ibid.). Therefore, Brabham (Ibid.) also warns to make the assumption that ideas which emerge from the crowd would represent a superior idea, brought about through a democratic process. This idea can be seen as the reproduction of the shared aesthetics and values of a particular group, rather than a wise, diverse crowd.

Concluding the critical standpoint, we can say that researchers following this perspective do not regard consumers as 'producers' in the full sense of this meaning, since they are not receiving the revenue of their labor from the market (e.g. Cova and Dalli, 2009). Also rather optimistic researchers acknowledge that crowdsourcing is not a perfect system, nor a panacea (Brabham, 2008a; Euchner, 2010). Although it combines the best aspects of an "open source philosophy and the benefits of global business (including its outsourcing component), it might negatively affect a labor pool: the crowd." (Brabham, 2008a; 83).

1.2.3 Gap and Problem Formulation

The literature review shows that within the phenomenon of crowdsourcing there are two contradicting perspectives, one in which crowdsourcing is viewed from an optimistic perspective and the counter perspective offering a critical view. Since crowdsourcing itself is still a nascent phenomenon, the literature surrounding the phenomenon is mainly focusing on the business side. Therefore, research neglects the inherent consumer perspective. Hence, the focus of this study is the consumer.

Contributions of consumer research within the optimistic perspective are the offering of conceptualizations of the benefits that co-creation and crowdsourcing can have for the consumer. In the optimistic perspective especially the consumer motives, in general and more specifically at certain sites, have been researched quantitatively and qualitatively. The main weakness is that, to the best of our knowledge, mainly participant motives are researched, therefore disregarding participant's experiences and attitudes, in general and towards the brand. Moreover, the connection of how the motives of participants relate to these perceived feelings remains unexplored. Archak and Sundararajan (2009) also recognize that there are only few empirical and theoretical studies on the behavior of individuals in crowdsourcing contests. Frey, Lüthje and Haag (2011) identify that consumer motives to participate in crowdsourcing contests have been researched to some extent, but do not offer a set of motivators that

work for all crowdsourcing cases. For this same reason, Brabham (2010) requests that additional qualitative and quantitative research should be undertaken at different crowdsourcing sites in order to expand and improve the knowledge base about participation motives in crowdsourcing.

In the countering critical perspective, crowdsourcing is mainly seen as a way of exploiting the consumer. The contribution of this perspective is that it offers a critical view about the organization's actions to engage with consumers. However, studies in this perspective mainly stay on a conceptual level giving only criticism. Hence, a weakness is that this criticism is not based on empirical research. For example, Zwick, Bonsu and Darmody (2008) view crowdsourcing contests as tool to capitalize on working consumers, but do not research how consumers themselves relate to this phenomenon. One exception is Cova and Dalli`s (2009) research, in which interviews with consumers were conducted and it was found that they can feel exploited after the occurrence of a critical incident. However to the best of our knowledge, Cova and Dalli are the only researchers who empirically researched this phenomenon. Hence, empirical research about consumers' experiences, attitudes and feelings in the critical perspective is still scarce and under researched. Other researchers also recognized this weakness, as Kelleher (2011, online) requests more research to understand the nature of participant's attitudes towards organizations who conducts crowdsourcing activities to determine whether users believe they are adequately compensated for their contributions. Additionally, Brabham (2008a) argues that research is needed to understand how participants of crowdsourcing contests feel about their role as laborer for organization. Thus, while it is requested by researchers, both perspectives lack empirical research on consumer motives, experiences, attitudes and feelings for the participation in crowdsourcing contests. Therefore, this study will research consumer motives to participate in these contests. Moreover, we will research their experiences and attitudes after participating in crowdsourcing contests and make the connection between these and their initial motives. What makes our study unique is that we do not look at crowdsourcing contests from one perspective, but rather take the optimistic and critical perspective into consideration and led the data guide our findings. We will focus on crowdsourcing contests in one particular industry, namely the FMCG industry. Though many crowdsourcing contests take place in the FMCG industry they attracted minor interest among researchers. We are missing research in this industry, as especially in this industry, contests are based on idea-generation, meaning that every consumer is allowed and able to participate. Hence, the motives, experiences and attitudes of participants in a FMCG crowdsourcing contest is the interest of this study. This empirical study will explore the following research questions:

- What motivates consumers to participate in a crowdsourcing contest in the FMCG industry?
- How do consumers' experiences of crowdsourcing contest participation affect their attitude related to the brand?

1.3 Purpose

The purpose of this study is to contribute to the existing literature on co-creation, specifically regarding the phenomenon of consumer participation in crowdsourcing contests. By taking a consumer perspective, it is our ambition to improve the conceptualization of the phenomenon of participants' motives, experiences, attitudes and feelings, in general and related to the brand, in crowdsourcing contests. Hence, the study will have an exploratory nature. Besides the theoretical contribution this study will have a practical relevance, as FMCG organizations can gain a deeper understanding of the consumer's perspective.

1.4 Research Outline

This thesis is divided in six chapters (see figure 1). The above introductory chapter introduces the subject of this study and clarifies its focus and research questions due to the review of existing literature. Following the introductory chapter a theoretical framework is constructed based on current research models. The third chapter presents a discussion of the methodology underlying this study. In the analysis chapter the findings are deliberated and discussed. Finally, the discussion and conclusion chapter provide answers on the research questions and contributes to existing theory. Moreover, limitations and suggestions for future research are discussed after which the practical and theoretical implications are given.
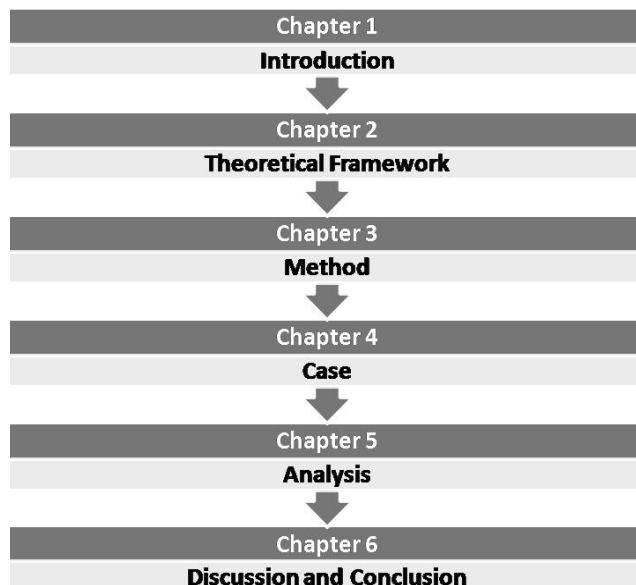
Chapter 1
Introduction

Chapter 2
Theoretical Framework

Chapter 3
Method

Chapter 4
Case

Chapter 5
Analysis

Chapter 6
Discussion and Conclusion

Figure 1: Thesis Outline

2. Theoretical Framework

Based on the important concepts and theories in the existing literature, this chapter presents a theoretical framework. By building this theoretical framework, a lens is presented which is used as a support to understand the phenomenon of consumer participation in crowdsourcing contests.

2.1 Introduction

First, the phenomena of crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing contests are explored. By getting a better understanding of what these phenomena exactly entail, we are able to better identify and interpret participants' motives and experiences. After consideration, we decided to follow Howe's (2006a) definition of crowdsourcing and define crowdsourcing contests in our own words, as we feel that a comprehensible definition is missing. Moreover, to get a better understanding of these phenomena we clarified their relation to other concepts like open innovation and co-creation, showing that crowdsourcing contests are a way of inbound open innovation and co-creation. Following this explanation as basis for our interpretation, we go deeper into the socio-cultural consumer related literature of the Consumer Culture Theory (CCT) and Social Production in an Ethical Economy. Since Arvidsson (2008) describes our phenomenal world as constituted by culture, he believes that this culture is automatically building the 'lens through which the individual views phenomena' (Ibid; 72). This lens determines how a consumer experiences, processes and assimilates a certain phenomena. He further explains the effects of culture on social or productive human behavior, calling it a 'blueprint of human activity' (Ibid; 72). We acknowledged this importance for our analysis of consumer participation in crowdsourcing contests and added the CCT to our theoretical framework in order to enable us to bring insight to consumer engagement and experiences. In the following section of the Social Production and Ethical Economy construct, we further elaborate on the possibilities for the consumer offered by the marketplace. We added this to our theoretical lens in order to increase our awareness for the different perceived roles of consumers. In the section, Consumer Participation we develop an understanding of consumer motives, based on the model of consumer motivation in crowdsourcing of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011). This model explains the consumer motives in crowdsourcing; therefore it offers us insights in consumer motives for crowdsourcing contests. Within the model, a distinction is made between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, which both consist of different categories, thereby increasing our awareness of possible consumer motives. In the Consumer Participation section, we also explore the matter of Consumer Experiences and Experimental Consumption, as the analyzed crowdsourcing contest phenomenon constitutes a consumer experience. On one hand, the crowdsourcing experience is explained

by Gilmore and Pine (1998) through the four realms of an experience in which a participant can engage. On the other hand, as presented by Poulsson and Kale (2004), the experience itself is divided into five constituting elements, of which each can be particularly relevant for a participant. These classifications are presented in order to increase our understanding of the consumer point of view and his perception of the encountered experiences.

Finally, in the Summary we recapitulate our theoretical framework and interrelate to the discussed matters which offer us a lens for the phenomenon of consumer participation in FMCG crowdsourcing contests. This makes it possible for us to be aware of certain themes which may come out of the collected data while remaining open to possible other findings.

2.2 Crowdsourcing

In this section the phenomenon of crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing contests as such are reviewed in order to have a general understanding of these concepts. Moreover, the relation between these phenomena and concepts as open innovation and co-creation are described.

2.2.1 Crowdsourcing and Crowdsourcing Contests as Concept

For creating a theoretical lens it is important to understand how we define crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing contests. In this way, we get a better understanding of what possibilities crowdsourcing contests can give to consumers. This can help us understand consumer motives in participating in crowdsourcing and more specifically, crowdsourcing contests. Moreover, it possibly allows us to relate consumer experiences to certain elements of crowdsourcing contests.

The term crowdsourcing was coined in 2006, but since then it has been defined in many different ways. Howe (2006a) coined the term crowdsourcing in his article in the online magazine Wired, in which he defined it as "the act of a company or institution taking a function once performed by employees and outsourcing it to an undefined (and generally large) network of people in the form of an open call. This can take the form of peer-production (when the job is performed collaboratively), but is also often undertaken by sole individuals. The crucial prerequisite is the use of the open call format and the large network of potential laborers" (Howe, 2006a; 5). Even though there are other definitions in this study, we define crowdsourcing in line with Howe's generally accepted and commonly used definition. Howe argues as well that crowdsourcing is not just a single strategy. Instead it is an umbrella term for a highly varied group of approaches that all have one attribute in common; they all depend on some contribution

from the crowd (Howe, 2008). Hence, every crowdsourcing approach trusts on the 'wisdom of crowds' by claiming that "large groups of people are smarter than an elite few, no matter how brilliant – better at solving problems, fostering innovation, coming to wise decisions, even predicting the future" (Surowiecki, 2005 in Ebner, Leimeister and Krcmar, 2009; 1). The strength of the crowd lies in its composite or aggregate of ideas, instead of the collaboration of ideas (Ibid.). To further understand the crowdsourcing phenomenon, Brabham (2008a; 2010) describes crowdsourcing as an online problem solving and production model in which the organization sends out an open call broadcasting its problem or challenge to a vast number of individuals (the 'crowd'), who can then submit solutions or ideas. The winning idea(s) can be awarded some form of bounty and the organization mass-produces the solution or idea for its own gain (Brabham, 2008). However, an organization can chose different crowdsourcing approaches and while many definitions contend that some prize is offered, this is not always the case. This has also been recognized by Brabham (2012, in press) who distinguishes four types of crowdsourcing which are suitable for tackling different problems. In his typology he recognizes the following approaches: knowledge discovery and management approach, broadcast search approach, peer-vetted creative production approach, and the distributed human intelligence tasking approach (table 1).

Type	How it works	Kinds of problems	Example
Knowledge discovery and management	Organization tasks crowd with finding and collecting information into a common location and format	Ideal for information gathering, organization, and reporting problems, such as the creation of collective resources	SeeClickFix
Broadcast search	Organization tasks crowd with solving empirical problems	Ideal for ideation problems with empirically provable solutions, such as scientific problems	InnoCentive
Peer-vetted creative production	Organization tasks crowd with creating and selecting creative ideas	Ideal for ideation problems where solutions are a matter of taste or market support, such as design or aesthetic problems	Threadless Doritos Crash the Super Bowl Contest
Distributed human intelligence tasking	Organization tasks crowd with analyzing large amounts of information	Ideal for large-scale data analysis where human intelligence is more efficient or effective than computer analysis	Amazon Mechanical Turk

Table 1: Four Types of Crowdsourcing (Brabham, 2012, in press)

As seen in Table 1, the peer-vetted crowdsourcing approach is ideal for ideation problems and is appropriate for problem solving concerning matters of taste and user preferences (Brabham, 2012, in press). In this approach, the crowd assesses solutions of its peers, often by a simple ranking or voting system, after which the top solutions emerge and are owned by the crowdsourcing organization (Brabham, 2010; 2012, in press). This type of crowdsourcing is the one which is mainly used in the FMCG industry, as non-experts and amateurs can all engage and send in their ideas or solutions. Due to the ranking or voting system which leads to the determination of a winner, this crowdsourcing type is a form of a crowdsourcing contest. However, not every crowdsourcing contest is peer-vetted. As will be explained, instead it can be the company or a combination of the company and crowd deciding who the winner of the crowdsourcing contest is.

After having clarified the concept of crowdsourcing, there is a need to define the concept crowdsourcing contests which is the focus of this study. As previously explained it is important to get an understanding of what this concept entails in this study as only then we can understand what these contests have to offer to the participants. In this way, we can better understand participant motives and experiences. Crowdsourcing contests have been named in different ways, like innovation contest, innovation tournament (Terwiesch and Xu, 2008), and ideas competition (Walcher, 2007 in Ebner, Leimeister and Krcmar, 2009). According to Walcher (Ibid; 246), an idea competition is an "invitation of a private or public organizer to a general public or a targeted group to submit contributions to a certain topic within a timeline. An idea-reviewers committee evaluates these contributions and selects the rewarded winner(s)". This definition recognizes the open call to a wider public within a time period. However, it also states that an idea-reviewers committee evaluates and selects the winner, which is not always the case, as for example in peer-vetted approaches the crowd evaluates and selects the winner (Brabham, 2010). Terwiesch and Xu (2008) offer another definition of an innovation contest or innovation competition. They defined it as a contest in which "a firm (the seeker) facing an innovation-related problem posts this problem to a population of independent agents (the solvers) and then provides an award to the agent that generated the best solution" (Ibid; 1529). This definition does not recognize the time frame in which a competition takes place and is therefore not sufficient as well. Since we feel there is a lack of a clear and comprehensive definition of the term crowdsourcing contest, we define a crowdsourcing contest as "the online outsourcing of the function of idea generation by inviting large groups of external contributors who are often unknown and/or undefined in the form of an open call, to submit contributions to a certain problem within a respective time period which will be evaluated by the company and/or the crowd and in return the selected winner(s) receive some kind of reward".

2.2.2 Crowdsourcing and Crowdsourcing Contests Relation to Other Concepts

Explaining the phenomenon of crowdsourcing itself and its relation to other concepts is important for shaping our lens to clarify the consumer contribution. The concepts of crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing contests are often associated with other concepts. Most often they are coupled to the concepts of open innovation and co-creation. To gain a better understanding of this and be able to put these concepts into a theoretical frame, the relation of the phenomena of crowdsourcing and in particular crowdsourcing contests to open innovation and co-creation need to be discussed. In this manner we are able to better understand the position of the phenomena in relation to these other concepts and understand the participant's role in these. This frame and clarification of consumer contribution helps us to gain a better understanding of consumer motives to participate and experiences in these contests.

In his book *Open Innovation* Henry Chesbrough (2003) describes a shift from a Closed Innovation to the Open Innovation paradigm. In the traditional model internal research and development (R&D) departments are the main drivers of an organization's innovation. Whereas in the Open Innovation paradigm, R&D is treated as an open system in which open innovation is defined as "the use of purposive inflows and outflows of knowledge to accelerate internal innovation, and expand the markets for external use of innovation, respectively" (Chesbrough, Vanhaverbeke and West, 2006; 1). Within open innovation there are different classifications of openness. However, the most popular classification is the one of Gassmann and Enkel (2004), which recognizes inbound, outbound and coupled openness. Outbound openness involves inside-out processes in which organizations disclose information or sell technology to the external environment. Contrary, inbound openness refers to the outside-in processes in which innovation work is outsourced by inviting external contributors to develop ideas or solutions to pre-defined problems (Verona, Prandelli and Sawhney, 2006). Furthermore, a combination of inbound and outbound openness can be undertaken. However, the focus of this study - crowdsourcing, and more precisely crowdsourcing contests- are a form of inbound openness. Since the crowd as external contributors is invited to participate in these contests and to develop ideas or submit solutions, we see crowdsourcing contests solely as a form of *inbound* open innovation.

Co-creation is another concept which is closely related to crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing contests, and is also part of the Open Innovation paradigm. Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2000; 2002; 2004a/b) researched co-creation in many different studies and describe it as the joint effort of the producer and customer to develop new products or services. They argue that because of the previously explained changing role of the consumer, consumers now seek to exercise their influence in the business system. Consumers have new tools, are dissatisfied with available choices and want to interact with firms, thereby

co-creating value (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004a/b). Hence, consumers are engaging in the process of defining and creating value thereby blurring the boundaries between consumption and production (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2000; 2002; 2004a/b). In co-creation value is created through personalized experiences which are unique to each consumer. Hence, the co-creation experience of the consumer itself becomes the basis of value. This value lies in the co-creation experience of a specific consumer, at a specific point in time, in a specific location, in the context of a specific event (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004a). The individual consumer's co-creation of brand value furthermore increases the brand authenticity (Bertilsson and Cassinger, 2010), raising it to the highest possible level, making it as self-relevant as possible. Beyond this rather intangible level of brand value the authenticity of the tangible consumer goods are increased as well, as there is probably nothing more authentic for a consumer, than something he has created himself (Ibid.). Since crowdsourcing contests in the FMCG industry only lead to the actual production and launch of a few of the consumer submissions we are emphasizing the level of consumer participation in the creation of brand value.

The phenomenon of crowdsourcing as way of co-creation is being debated, as some researchers argue that instead of the two-way interaction in co-creation crowdsourcing refers to a one-way interaction (Aitamurto, Leiponen and Tee, 2011). However, in our framework we regard crowdsourcing as a way of two-way co-creation, as participating in crowdsourcing and more specifically crowdsourcing contests leads to a personalized interaction which is meaningful and sensitive to a specific consumer, thereby co-creating value. The experience itself leads to a social relation, emotional involvement and shared meaning which was not there before. This is also defined an 'ethical surplus' which is the direct basis of economic value (Arvidsson, 2005).

Within co-creation literature there are different classifications of co-creation. In this study we use the classification of Pater (2009, online) which is based on the two dimensions of openness (everyone can join or selection process) and ownership (results owned by initiator or by initiator and contributors). Hereby, four different types of co-creation are identified, namely; 'crowd of people', 'community of kindred spirits', 'club of experts', and 'coalition of parties'. The co-creation type called crowd of people represents crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing contests (Ibid.). Hence in our lens we recognize that the concept of crowdsourcing contests and co-creation are related to each other but that we are merely talking about one form of co-creation. Consumers in this type of co-creation can participate for different motives to fulfill certain needs. Hence, understanding the phenomenon of crowdsourcing contests as a form of co-creation and inbound open innovation can help us understanding consumer motives and their experiences.

2.3 Consumer Culture Theory

The framework of our study of consumer perceptions of their participation in crowdsourcing contests is constituted on the basis of the Consumer Culture Theory (CCT). The CCT directs its attention towards the culturally constructed world and the meanings that consumers derive there from. This is why we believe it is a necessary part of the construction of our 'lens', constructed for the analysis of consumer participation in crowdsourcing contests and the perception of the effects of their engagement. Since we are aiming to take the participants' point of view to analyze their motivations, experiences and the aftermath thereof we acknowledge their cultural and social meanings and preconceptions. Including the CCT as a concept helps us seeing the world through the eyes of the crowdsourcing contest participants.

We incorporate the CCT while following the standpoint of Firat and Venkatesh (1995), who regard consumption as a socio-cultural process. Their interpretation is based on the early works of Simmel (1971; 1978 in Firat and Venkatesh, 1995) who described that consumption has cultivated individuals as it allows them to attach their own meanings to objects in their world and to act upon them. Therefore, the very act of consumption is regarded as determining consumers' values and experiences regarding life and being. We are furthermore incorporating Arvidsson (2008), who sees consumer experiences, processes and actions as automatically influenced by their cultural lens and the imprinting of it (Ibid.). The phenomenal world of consumers; meaning consumer motivations, actions, experiences and the categories which define social groups- is constructed by cultures. Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) furthermore emphasize individual differences within experiential consumption, depending on the respective culture, religion and nationality of participants. Recent CCT research done by Thompson and Arnould (2005) lays an emphasis on the productive side of consumption and clarifies the connection to co-creational crowdsourcing contests. In line with Arvidsson (2008), we argue that this consumer engagement is a way of consuming experiences and brand meanings, provided by the company. Therefore, we connect the crowdsourcing phenomenon to more recent CCT literature, which describes consumption as a way in which consumers actively transform cultural symbolic meanings, encode and adopt advertisements, brands or material goods to thereby manifest their particular personal and social circumstances, lifestyle goals and therefore also identity (Grayson and Martinec 2004; Holt 2002; Kozinets 2001; 2002; Mick and Buhl 1992; Penaloza 2000, 2001; Ritson and Elliott 1999; Scott 1994, in Thompson and Arnould, 2005). This transfer process is only possible through the dynamic relationships between cultural meanings, consumer actions and the marketplace and illustrates the model of market-aided cultural transformation (Thompson and Arnould, 2005; Marchand, 1985). The marketplace offers a platform for consumers, on which the consumer finds numerous resources from which he is able to create his individual and collective identity (Thompson and Hirschman 1995; Murray 2002, in Thompson and Arnould, 2005;

Schau and Gilly, 2003). It furthermore enables the mediation between lived consumer culture with meaningful ways of life and social resources of material or symbolic kind (Thompson and Arnould, 2005). The marketplace is in a stage of constant development, fueled by the technological developments of Web 2.0, increasingly active consumers and the adoption of the new dominant service-centered view of marketing. Therefore, we are following the approach of Thompson and Arnould (Ibid.), as their focus on the marketplace and the related consumer dynamics are more fitting to the aim of this study.

As our study is based on the CCT, we will more specifically address the research domain of *Consumer Identity Projects.* While we are taking this perspective, we hope to be able to give insights which are useful within this area. Since *Consumer Identity Projects* are goal driven (Mick and Buhl, 1992 in Thompson and Arnould, 2005; Schau and Gilly, 2003) and concern the socio-cultural, consumption-driving dynamics, we believe our research question about consumer motivations to engage in crowdsourcing contests clearly relates to this field of research. The relevance of personal goals and social recognition which, according to Schau and Gilly, drive consumer identity projects (Schau and Gilly, 2003; Thompson and Arnould, 2005), is of great interest concerning consumer self-presentation in the online environment. They describe the need of consumers as way to realize their identity in a tangible way, as they associate themselves with material objects (Schau and Gilly, 2003), which itself can be related to the engagement in crowdsourcing contests, like for example when creating a Walkers Chips flavor, which might be produced and launched. Nevertheless their research especially pays attention to the online engagement of consumers, as computer mediated environments enable consumers to present themselves throughout digital references, rather than by physical attributes. The idea-generating crowdsourcing contests, which are focus of this study, underline the relevance of this focus area, as consumers are submitting merely a digital, intangible input, on which they are evaluated by the company, their social network and a bigger community of users. In this environment imagination is proven to have a greater value than physical capital (Rifkin, 2000 in Schau and Gilly, 2003) and tearing down "the border between material and immaterial, the real and the possible" (Druckery, 1996; 12). We are therefore analyzing consumers according to their roles as ideators and therefore also co-creators and, in line with Thompson and Arnould (2005; 873) acknowledge their power as 'culture producers'.

2.4 Social Production and Ethical Economy

Since we recognize both the positive and the critical perspective on the crowdsourcing phenomenon, the concepts of social production and ethical economy broaden our theoretical lens to the respects of consumer self-expressional co-creation and possible consumer exploitation. Furthermore, it illustrates the

development which enabled the consumer participation in co-creation in the first place. To clarify the connection between social production as well as ethical economy based on Marx and the role of the enabled or exploited consumer we will briefly explain these concepts and their relation to crowdsourcing contests.

Considering the fact that every participant of crowdsourcing contests can be regarded as producer of cultural meaning (Thompson and Arnould, 2005) and co-creator of brand value (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004b), we refer to the boundless availability of production resources to every member of the social society. Therefore, we include the ground laying social society theories of social production in our theoretical framework and adapt them to our modern world and the consumer environment of the Web 2.0. The underlying dynamic behind the substantial emergence and consolidation of social production and the ethical economy is explained by the manifestation of socialized General Intellect, or Mass Intellectuality. This concept, created by Karl Marx (1939/1973), explains this development through the availability of production resources to every member of the socialized society and their embodiment in the life process. Here we agree with Arvidsson (2005), that the General Intellect of our present society is more defined by knowledge, competences and communication as well as social interaction skills, rather than by material production resources in Marx' sense. Still, these resources are used by people in their interests to produce what they desire and therefore a common good which cannot be monopolized. This model shows furthermore the dependence of capitalism on the networks of social production, emerging inside and outside of organizations (Arvidsson, 2008). The availability and development of modern technologies allow ordinary people to easily manipulate products and services on their own behalf. As crowdsourcing contests within the FMCG industry are targeting the broad mass of the society and make the necessary Web 2.0 production resources accessible to everyone, one could argue that they can be seen as constitutions of Mass Intellectuality and social production. Without the rise of the phenomenon of social production and the development of modern technologies the consumer behavior and abilities we are observing now might not have been possible. Nevertheless, since companies are capitalizing on the consumer participation in various ways, we only take the initiating drivers of social production into account when discussing crowdsourcing contests. We furthermore respect Cova and Dalli (2009), who note that the specific technologies offered by the internet allow organizations to solicit users' participation and thereby making this development commercializable. As Arvidsson (2005) already criticized the link between public communication and economic value has acquired an exceptional centrality. For omnipresent FMCG companies like McDonald's, Coca Cola or Heineken the public standing of their brands is as already discussed the most valuable asset. The standing of a brand is defined by the space it acquires in the lifeworld of consumers, which determines its brand value. Therefore, the everyday

lifeworld of consumers is filled with companies' attempts to control how consumers give meaning to brands. The control mechanisms involved range from traditional advertising to rather subliminal permeation of the consumer life world, thereby creating an all-encompassing brandspace (Ibid; Salzer-Mörling in Ekström, 2010). However, this brandspace is not solely made up by companies; it is co-created through a reflective consumption (Salzer-Mörling in Ekström, 2010). Consumers actively engage in the construction and transfer of meaning through embracing the possibilities of identity establishment, offered by the marketplace, they expand the typical capitalist structures, as *they* create brand equity (Thompson and Arnould, 2005; Arvidsson, 2008). Therefore, we see the new empowered consumer, more specifically speaking the participant in crowdsourcing contests, as constitutor of value. He is involved in the production process of value within an ethical economy of social production and thereby contrasting traditional capitalist economy systems. The main motivation of the capitalist economy, lying in monetary rewards, is neglected as the motivation in social production has an ethical nature and is based on the need for self-expression and the reward of recognition from a community (Arvidsson, 2008). Although there are crowdsourcing contests, which offer a monetary reward for the winning participant- the reward of social recognition can be achieved merely by participating through the submission of input. Every consumer who participates or shares his submission with his social network is for example already awarded with social recognition, attention and a stage for self-presentation, whereas only a few are possibly rewarded on a monetary basis. The economic logic behind consumer participation in these processes is based on a unique value system of socially recognized self-expression and social impact, rather than monetary motivations.

2.5 Consumer Participation

In order to achieve a better understanding of the consumer engagement in a crowdsourcing contest, this section of consumer participation is divided into the initial motivations to participate and the experiences during the contest.

2.5.1 Motives for Consumer Participation

In shaping our lens it is important to decide how we view consumer motives for participating in crowdsourcing contests. Through classifying and discussing possible motives we will be better able to recognize them. This classification will allow us to be aware of the different consumer motives in participating in crowdsourcing contests, while we will still remain open for other possible motives.

Obviously, consumers who participate in crowdsourcing contests are in some way motivated to participate (Brabham, 2012, in press). To be motivated means that someone is "moved to do something". People vary not only in the level of motivation (i.e. how much motivation), but also in the orientation of motivation (i.e. type of motivation) (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Studies researching participant motives rely mostly on the well-established typology of human motivation, distinguishing between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Although we recognize that there are different motivation theories and typologies of motivation, we follow as well the Self-Determination theory which makes the classification of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. To clarify the different possible participant motives we decided to use the classification of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, as it gives a good overview of where the motives come from (i.e. from the self or not). In this typology intrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it is inherently enjoyable or interesting. The intrinsically motivated individual is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of pressures or rewards. Contrary, extrinsic motivation refers to performing a task with the aim of receiving a reward separable from the task. In extrinsic motivation an action is undertaken in order to achieve a certain desired outcome, like a monetary or non-monetary reward (Ibid.). It seems that the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is a bipolar one, but individuals in an crowdsourcing contest can actually have a mix of intrinsic and extrinsic motives to be moved to do something (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey and Tighe, 1994; Leimeister, Huber, Bretschneider and Krcmar, 2009). These different motivations that a person can have are assumed to reflect that person's specific needs (Ryan and Deci, 2000).

As outlined in the literature review different studies conducted research relating to participant motives in crowdsourcing (Brabham, 2008b, online; 2010; Lakhani, Jeppesen, Lohse and Panetta, 2007, online; Leimeister, Huber, Bretschneider and Krcmar, 2009; Ipeirotis, 2010). These studies resulted in having different classifications of consumer motives, each relating to one specific crowdsourcing site or platform. Brabham (2012, in press) found that some motivations for individuals in crowds emerge across more than one case. These are motives like, the desire to earn money; develop one's creative skills; build a portfolio for future employment; challenge oneself to solve a tough problem; pass the time; contribute to a large project of common interest; share with others; network with others; socialize and make friends, and finally just to have fun. In their study Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011) identified the different researched classifications of participant motives on which they based their own categorization of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation which participants can have in crowdsourcing activities. We will use this model of consumer motivations in crowdsourcing as it offers a clear categorization of the possible intrinsic and extrinsic motivations that a participant in crowdsourcing and in crowdsourcing contests can have. As figure 2 shows Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011) identify within intrinsic motivation both Enjoyment

Based Motivation and Community Based Motivation and in extrinsic motivation Immediate Payoffs, Delayed Payoffs and Social Motivation. In the following we will elaborate on these different intrinsic and extrinsic motivations.
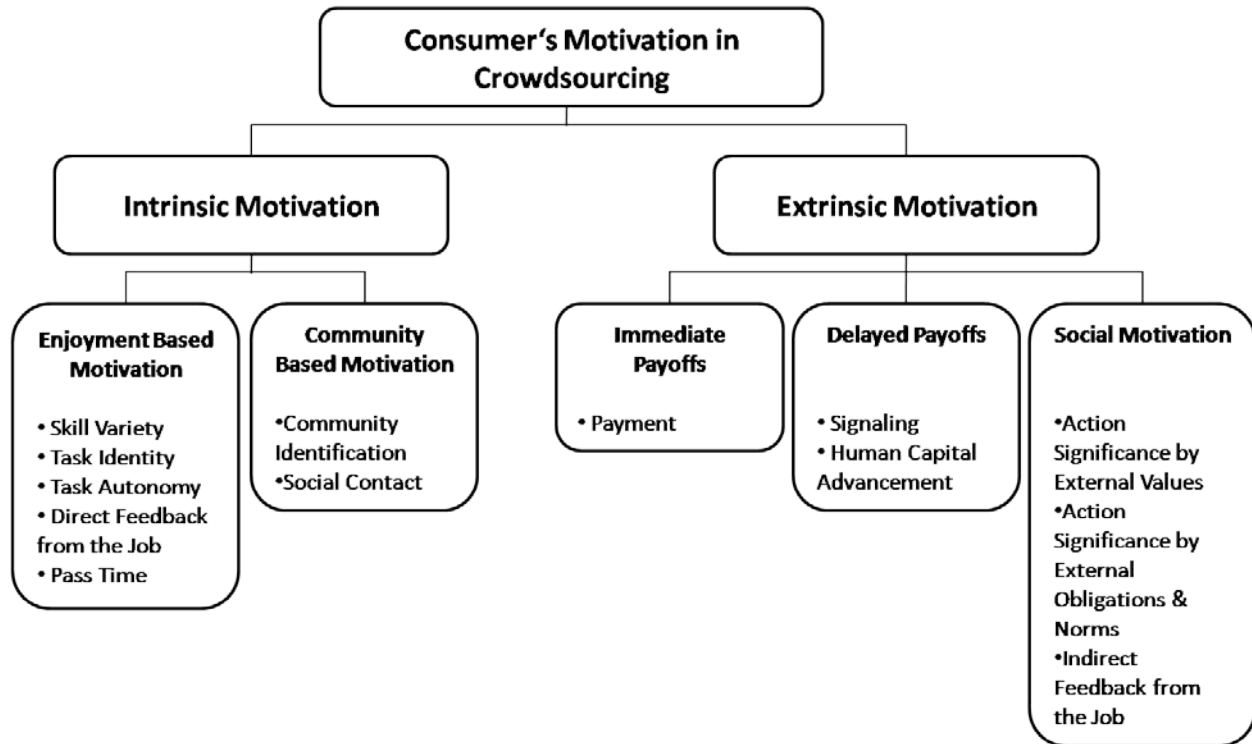

Figure 2: Consumer's Motivation in Crowdsourcing (Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit, 2011)

2.5.1.1 Intrinsic Motivation

In their model Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011) identify within intrinsic motivation two categories, namely *Enjoyment Based Motivation* and *Community Based Motivation*, which each consists of their own constructs. The category of Enjoyment Based Motivation consists of constructs leading to the sensation of 'fun' that might be perceived by participants. The category of Community Based Motivation contains the acting of participants as they are guided by the community on the crowdsourcing platform.

Within Enjoyment Based Motivation several constructs are identified, these are; Skill Variety, Task Identity, Task Autonomy, Direct Feedback from the Job and Pastime. The constructs Skill Variety, Task Identity, Task Autonomy and Direct Feedback originate from the Job Characteristics Model of Hackman and Oldham (1980 in Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit, 2011). The construct of Skill Variety entails that the more the variety of skills needed for solving a specific task fits with the skill set of the participant, the greater his motivation will be. For example, if a participant likes to be creative and make designs he could

be motivated to work for the crowdsourcing site Threadless.com. The Task Identity construct means that when the participant perceives more completeness, meaning more feelings of fulfillment and/or a tangible result, of the crowdsourcing task this will result in higher motivation. Besides, Task Autonomy refers to the degree of freedom that the participant has during his task execution. The more freedom in decisions and creativity is given, the higher the participant's motivation will be. For example, a participant in the Heineken bottle design competition could be motivated as he was given complete freedom in his design. The last construct coming from Hackman and Oldham (Ibid.) is Direct Feedback from the Job. This construct of Enjoyment Based Motivation entails to which extent a sense of achievement can be perceived during or after the task execution. The last construct Pastime is found in the studies of Brabham (2008b, online) and Ipeirotis (2010). This construct means that consumers' motivations to participate in crowdsourcing are to avoid boredom and to 'kill time'.

In the Community Based Motivation Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011) recognize the constructs of Community Identification and Social Contact which were already implied by Arvidsson's (2008) motivators in the ethical economy. Lakhani and Wolf (2005) and Lindenberg (2001 in Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit, 2011) found in their studies how a person through a personal identification process toward the community is moved to act. In this construct of Community Identification which motivates the consumer to act as he personally identifies himself with the community and subconsciously adopts the norms and values from the crowdsourcing platform community. The other construct in Community Based Motivation is found in studies of Brabham (2008b, online; 2010) and is referred to as Social Contact. This construct entails that the participant is motivated by the existence of the community itself, which offers the possibility to foster social contact. This means that a person is active on a crowdsourcing platform just to socialize with other people. For example, these participants can socialize with other participants by chatting on the community platform through which they can share their ideas.

2.5.1.2 Extrinsic Motivation

In the model of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011) three categories are recognized within extrinsic motivation. These categories, which consist of several constructs, are *Immediate Payoffs, Delayed Payoffs,* and *Social Motivation*. The category Immediate Payoffs consists of motivations because one can receive compensations for the performed crowdsourcing tasks. Delayed Payoffs are all kind of benefits which can be used strategically to generate future advantages. The last category, Social Motivation covers socially motivated extrinsic motivation out of values, norms and obligations from outside the platform community. It also entails the indirect feedback from the job and the need for social contact.

Within the category of Immediate Payoffs there is merely one construct which is Payment. This motivation is showed in every study about consumer participation and shows that consumers are motivated to participate by a monetary remuneration. The category of Delayed Payoffs consists of two constructs which are Signaling and Human Capital Advancement, which were both found in the study of Lakhani and Wolf (2005). Signaling refers to the motivation to participate so the action can be used as strategic signal to one's surroundings. For example when a consumer participates to show presence and advance his chance of being noticed by possible employers. The construct of Human Capital Advancement entails the motivation to participate to train one's skills which could be useful to generate future material advantages. For example, a consumer who wants to be a graphic designer can improve his skills by participating on Threadless.

The last category of extrinsic motivation is Social Motivation which consists of several constructs, like Action Significance by External Values, Action Significance by External Obligations and Norms, and Indirect Feedback from the Job. The constructs called Action Significance by External Values and Action Significance by External Obligations and Norms were created in studies of Ryan and Deci (2000) and Hackman and Oldham (1980 in Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit, 2011). The first construct, Action Significance by External Values, refers to the importance of an action concerning the compliance with values from outside the crowdsourcing community which is perceived by the participant when he contributes to the community or works on a challenge. This means that a consumer will participate at a contest because the values it stands for are important to him as well. The other construct which is referred to as Action Significance by External Obligations and Norms means that a consumer's motivation is induced by a third party from outside the contest community. This motivation comes from the obligation the consumer has or social norms he wants to comply with to avoid sanctions. For example, when a teacher gives the assignment to work on the crowdsourcing platform the student will do it as he is obliged to do so. The last construct in the category Social Motivation originates from the study of Hackman and Oldham (Ibid.) and is called Indirect Feedback from the Job. In crowdsourcing ideation-contests this construct covers the participant's motivation originating from the prospect of feedback by other individuals about the delivered idea. Hence, the participant is committed as he seeks appreciation by the community separate from the crowdsourcing contest community. In this way he feels socially recognized and can perceive a form of social status.

This model of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011) will help us with being aware of the different participant motivations. It shows that consumers can have different motivations or a mix of these motivations to participate in a crowdsourcing contests.

2.5.2 Consumer Experience

Since the concepts of motives for consumer participation in crowdsourcing contest were discussed, we will now relate the consumer engagement based upon these motivations to the actual ideation-contest experience. This concept will be relevant when analyzing the consumer's experience of his crowdsourcing contest participation and its effect on the consumer's opinion towards the brand.

Since the 1980's consumption was beginning to be perceived through an "experimental view", with respect to the involved fantasies, feelings and fun (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). The facets of an experience are due to their subjective characteristics different for every consumer, depending on their nationality, preconceptions and state of mind (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982; Gilmore and Pine, 1998). As the ground laying work of Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) does not provide a clear definition of commercial/consumption experiences we follow the definition of Poulsson and Kale (2004; 270), defining a commercial experience as, "an engaging act of co-creation between a provider and a consumer wherein the consumer perceives value in the encounter and in the subsequent memory of that encounter." However, the focus of these commercial experiences includes a profit, as it would not be economic to offer experiences without charging consumers an admission fee. An experience, which was explicitly created to just increase customer preferences for particular commoditized goods, which a company sells as their main business is not an economic offering (Gilmore and Pine, 1998). However, Poulsson and Kale (2004) describe the emergence of indirect commercial experiences, in which the experience is used as marketing tool and the participant is not obliged to pay for his engagement. They argue that the providing company and brand act on the premise that the experience will be compelling enough to manifest in increased sales or profits for the goods or services the experience is designed to promote. Nevertheless, we argue from the standpoint of value co-creation in line with Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004c), in which the consumer is co-creating value through personalized experiences. The consumer and the organization co-create value and the experience itself is the basis of value. The consumer is thereby making a contribution for the company in form of an additional brand value which can be monetized (Gorz, 2003 in Arvidsson, 2005; Aaker, 1996). The company is still in charge of the orchestration of the provided experience and therefore influences the nature of the experience unproportionally by focusing on the connection of the participant to the brand's offering (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004c).

The interaction of consumer participation and therefore of the lived through experiences is seen to be two-dimensional, as explained by Margolin (2002), who distinguishes in his study of experiences with tangible products an operative and a reflective dimension. The operative dimension refers to the way we use products for our activities, while the reflective dimension concerns the opinion consumers have about

a product/brand and give meaning to it. However, this classification can also be transferred to the co-creation experience. Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004c) state that a company's products, services, employees, communication channels, and consumer communities combined create the experience environment for individual consumers to co-construct their own experiences. Through this value co-creation within an experience the consumer extracts the firm's surplus. The experience becomes a mutually co-created representation of the brand, which constantly evolves. This study aims to bring further insights to the aftermath of consumer participation in the analyzed crowdsourcing contest case. In order to enable us as researchers to successfully interpret the relation between the individual consumer experience and the resulting attitude towards the brand we are including concepts regarding consumer experiences in the experience economy as well as co-creation experiences to this theoretical framework. Combining both concepts, Gilmore and Pine (1999) and Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004c) agree that the economic value of the so called "experience economy" is based on the co-production of experiences via customer participation and connection. According to Gilmore and Pine (1998; 1999), the value of an experience for the consumer is measured in accordance to its memorability. Furthermore, the creation of a consumption experience relies on the extent of the customers' participation and fascination throughout the consumption process. Key elements of experience offerings therefore lie on the level of personalization (Gilmore and Pine, 1999). For example, in the case of ideation crowdsourcing contests like the Heineken bottle design or Threadless designs in which participants are able to express themselves through their ideas and creations, their submission becomes as authentic as it can be. This inherently personal experience only exists in the mind of one individual participant, who has been engaged emotionally, intellectually, or maybe even spiritually (Gilmore and Pine, 1998). Each participant would therefore encounter a different experience due to the interaction with the arranged crowdsourcing contest and their own individual state of mind, resulting in individual attitudes towards the brand.

Encouraged by new online technologies of interactive or multiplayer games, chat rooms, motion-based simulators, and virtual reality a new genre of experiences arose (Ibid.). Important to note is, those experiences are not only about entertainment; every memorable engagement of consumers in a personal, memorable way is considered an experience (Ibid.) with possible consequences. For the purpose of this study we will relate Gilmore and Pine's (Ibid.) consumer experience model and the resulting experience types to peer-vetted ideation crowdsourcing contests. They categorize consumers according to their level of engagement along two different axes. The first dimension concerns the consumer participation, which can be *passive* or *active*. In the case of crowdsourcing contests the passive participant or viewer/observer is part of the crowd, but did not engage through submitting own ideas. These participants are engaging as peers and for example vote for ideas of active participants. The passive participant nevertheless

experiences the ideation contest and contributes to the event others are experiencing as well. He furthermore engages in a productive kind of contribution through co-creation of value, even if he is only "looking" (Arvidsson, 2005) at the submissions of active participants. Active participants are consumers who submit their ideas to the open call, and fully engage in the co-creational aspect and compete within the contest.

The second axis of Gilmore and Pine's (1998) experience model describes the connection between the consumer and the experienced event. They distinguish between *immersion* and a*bsorption*. Participants absorbing the experience are "taking it in", meaning the experience occupies attention of the participant's mind. The experience is absorbed by the consumer. The other side of the axis, titled immersion, describes the involvement of the consumer as physically or virtually a part of the actual experience. Instead of absorbing the experience, the participant takes his experience out into the world. For the case of ideation crowdsourcing we can see this distinction between consumers who submitted an idea and absorb their participation experience and consumers that are immersing their participation experience by promoting his submission throughout his network and continuously engaging in the contest actively.

As described by figure 3 these axes constitute the model of the so called "Four Realms of Experience" (Ibid.). The different degrees of involvement describe four distinct participation-types. The Entertainment-type is a rather passive participant who absorbs the experience for himself. In case of crowdsourcing participants he takes the role of an observer, not actually engaging through idea-submission or votes, but still interested and involved in the contest. The Educational-type on the other hand is an active participant who submits his idea and therefore actively engages into the contest. Due to the relatively absorbing nature of the involvement this participant keeps his experience to himself and values the knowledge he gained from his participation. The Escapist-type on the other hand, also an active participant immerses his experience by promoting his submitted idea throughout his environment and constitutes the most active and extroverted type of engagement. The Esthetic-type is also extroverted due to his level of immersion, but did not participate through the submission of an idea. His experience revolves around the observing and voting for other creations, thereby building the basis of the peer-vetted contest element.
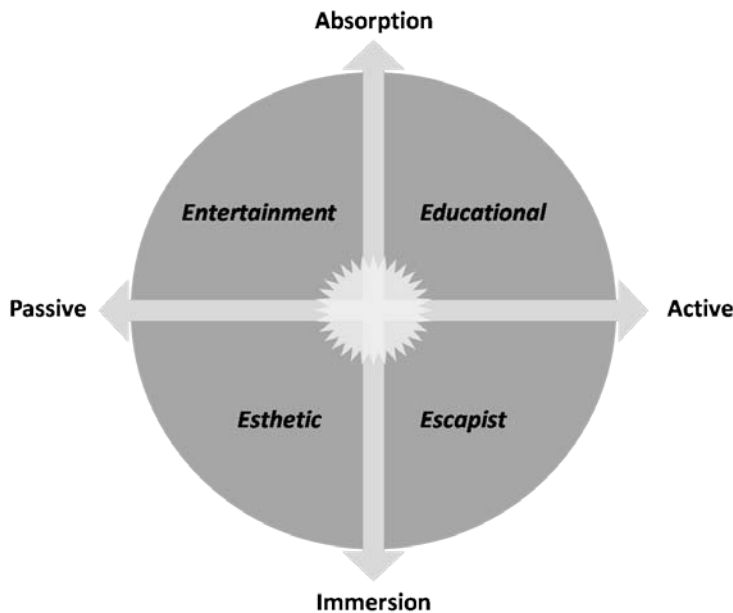
Figure 3: The Four Realms of Experience (Gilmore and Pine, 1998)

We as researchers are merely using this experience involvement model to enhance our competences for the analysis of the participant data. We will not try to fit every consumer into this model but rather acknowledge its theoretical relevance by adopting the experience phenomenon to our theoretical lens. In addition to these four realms, which primarily address the consumer roles in experiences we are acknowledging the feelings and sensations that take place in the customer during his experience. In their study of The Experience Economy and Commercial Experiences Poulsson and Kale (2004) argue for the definition of experiences based on encountered sensations and distinguish between personal relevance, novelty, surprise, learning, and engagement.

Personal relevance relates to the consumers subjective state of arousal, activation and willingness to engage in the experience. It directly impacts the level of involvement and thereby the perceived quality of the experience. Experiences which are regarded as "authenticating acts" or "authoritative performances" (meaning they offer the possibility to express their true selves, intense joy or superior functioning) by the participant are ranked with a personal relevance (Arnould and Price, 2000 in Ratneshwar, Mick and Huffman, 2003; Poulsson and Kale, 2004). An effective authenticating experience can promote integration across participants, which allows a collective sense of identity to arise as well as a subsequent security and feelings of community (Poulsson and Kale, 2004). Cohen (1989) describes these authoritative, self relevant performances even as a representation of a consumer quest for unity between self and society. The second experience element relates to the perceived novelty, which is defined as "a change in stimulus conditions from previous experience" (Poulsson and Kale, 2004; 272). Research has

proven that consumers are attracted to something that is new and different for them, which constitutes the novelty principle (Ibid.). Relating to the novelty element, the surprise element plays an important role, as it is described as one of the basic emotions. Participants consider an experience as surprising if the outcomes are in contrast to their expectations. Relating to the realm of education, the element of Learning is emphasized by Poulsson and Kale (Ibid.). If Learning is a part of the experience, this element adds richness to the experience and therefore increases engagement. This learning is given for example when the challenges of the task meet the skills of the consumer in a balanced manner. Engagement as final element exceeds the pure entertainment. Active involvement and the possibility to interact with the brand can further increase concentration, interest and joy (Ibid; Shernoff, Csikszentmihaiyi, Schneider and Shernoff, 2003). Engagement furthermore results from the level of Personal Relevance and perceived interactivity of the experience (Poulsson and Kale, 2004).

Since the analyzed participation experience and related aftermath are part of this study we included this distinction of experience elements to achieve a better understanding of the experience phenomenon in general and to be able to relate to specific elements our interviewees might have experienced, which consequently shaped their opinion and attitude towards the brand.

2.6 Summary

After having discussed the phenomena of interest in this study we construct a lens which supports us in the interpretation of the collected empirical data. The discussed phenomena are, as can be seen in figure 4, interrelated with each other. In the following this constructed lens will be further described.
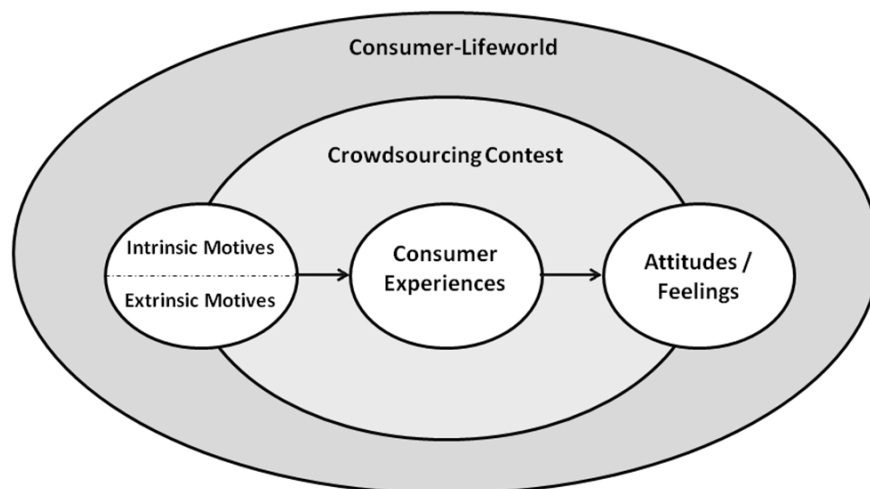

Figure 4: Theoretical Lens (own created model)

We used the explained constructs of the CCT and Social Production and Ethical Economy as a basis to explain the lifeworld of the studied consumers. This culturally and socially constructed world in which the resources for production as we view it are accessible to everyone, is constituted by phenomena of consumer motivations, consumer engagement, experiences and the categories which define social groups (Arvidsson, 2008). The General Intellect of knowledge, competences and communication as well as social interaction skills is available for all participants and further influences the consumer lifeword.

The very act of consumption itself cultivates the individuals in this lifeworld as the marketplace and the thereby offered opportunities allow the consumer to attach own meanings to objects in their world and to act upon them (Simmel, 1971/1978; Arvidsson, 2008). Since consumption is regarded as a determining action of consumers' values and experiences regarding life and being (Simmel, 1971/1978) the marketplace as place of action depicts the platform of meaning and value creation.

It furthermore offers a stage for consumers, which is supplying them with numerous resources to create their individual and collective identity (Thompson and Hirschman 1995; Murray 2002; Schau and Gilly 2003 in Thompson and Arnould, 2005). Thereby enabling a mediation between the lived consumer culture and meaningful ways of life by incorporating social resources of a material or symbolic kind (Thompson and Arnould, 2005). The offered experiences consumers are engaging in can be perceived differently due to respective cultures, nationalities and religions (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) and therefore are the underlying construct for motivation, experiences and subsequent attitudes.

The provided stage on which consumers are engaging in crowdsourcing contests enables the consumer self-expression throughout identity projects of self-presentation. The engagement in this ethically characterized social production is motivated by individual goals and the striving for social recognition as main drivers of consumer identity projects (Arvidsson, 2008; Schau and Gilly, 2003; Thompson and Arnould, 2005) influences consumer motives as well as the perception of encountered experiences and resulting attitudes and therefore encloses our lens. This overarching construct incorporates crowdsourcing contests as manifestation of consumer engagement and value co-creation on the stage of the interactive online marketplace. It furthermore provides an additional channel for self-presentation and the achievement of social recognition through interaction with a brand and its community.

Crowdsourcing and crowdsourcing contests are a way of inbound open innovation and co-creation within the lifeworld. In this study we define the concept crowdsourcing in line with Howe (2006a) as "the act of a company or institution taking a function once performed by employees and outsourcing it to an undefined (and generally large) network of people in the form of an open call. This can take the form of peer-production (when the job is performed collaboratively), but is also often undertaken by sole

individuals. The crucial prerequisite is the use of the open call format and the large network of potential laborers" (Ibid; 5). Brabham (2012, in press) distinguishes four different types of crowdsourcing which are suitable for tackling different problems. In this study our focus is on the crowdsourcing contest which is in this model referred to as the peer-vetted creative production type of crowdsourcing. We feel that there is a lack of a clear and comprehensive definition of the term crowdsourcing contest. Therefore, we made our own definition in which we define it as "the online outsourcing of the function of idea generation by inviting large groups of external contributors who are often unknown and/or undefined in the form of an open call, to submit contributions to a certain problem within a respective time period which will be evaluated by the company and/or the crowd and in return the selected winner(s) receive some kind of reward".

Consumers can have in the lifeworld multiple motives to be moved to act. In our lens participant motivations are viewed as a phenomenon which can occur in crowdsourcing contests within the consumer lifeworld, but also in other actions within the lifeworld. In general, a person in the lifeworld has motives to act. These motives also reside in them when they decide to participate in crowdsourcing contests. As explained by the model of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011) these motives can be intrinsic and/or extrinsic. In which intrinsic motives are based on enjoyment and community based motivations, meaning that the consumer participates for fun, the entailed challenge or to socialize with the community. Extrinsic motives are motivations which are desired outcomes separable from the task, like monetary rewards or social recognition. Thus, the motivations of a participant make him participate in a crowdsourcing contest. When a consumer participates in the crowdsourcing contest he experiences it. This phenomenon of experiencing the contest is in our lens therefore logically placed within the crowdsourcing contest phenomenon itself. A crowdsourcing experience can be established by different elements. As described by Poulsson and Kale (2004) the most impactful parts of an experience are relating to Personal Relevance, Novelty, Surprise, Learning and Engagement. The importance of each of these elements varies from participant to participant, since the encountered experience will be perceived differently due to their nationality, preconceptions, emotions, expectations and state of mind (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982; Gilmore and Pine, 1998). While engaging in this crowdsourcing experience, a consumer can take various roles due to his degree of participation which can be active or passive, or the extent of his engagement which can be to absorb it for himself or immerse it out to others. These axes of participant involvement constitute four realms of experiences a participant can encounter; Entertainment, Educational, Escapist and Esthetic.

Experiencing the crowdsourcing contest will lead to some feelings or attitudes towards the brand. This phenomenon of feelings and/or attitudes deriving from experiencing the contest is in our lens placed as

overlapping the crowdsourcing contest and lifeworld. Hence, when the consumer experiences the crowdsourcing contest he already creates some attitude of feeling related to the brand. When the contest is over, these feelings and attitudes stay in the consumer who will bring these into his lifeworld.

3. Methodology

In this chapter the philosophical epistemology and ontology is presented, on which basis this study was conducted. These guiding initial points in combination with the purpose of the study are leading to a specific research strategy and -method, data collection method and research design. Moreover, the choice of sampling method, the selection criteria for the choice of our participants and design and conduction of the qualitative instant messaging interviews are argued for. Lastly, it is explain how the qualitative data was analyzed and how primary and secondary sources were applied.

3.1 Research Philosophy

When studying the phenomenon of consumer participation in crowdsourcing contests within the research field of CCT, our focus lies on the analysis of consumer motives, experiences, meanings, and feelings deriving from their culturally and socially constructed world. These studied objects are shown throughout empirically researchable symptoms. These symptoms are for example the engagement of consumers in crowdsourcing contests, the promotion of their participation among their social network, engagement in discussions and dialogues and commitment towards the company. Given this, our research questions already points to one particular process of knowledge gaining; the interpretive epistemology. Following this epistemology we define acceptable knowledge for this study, as deriving from subjective meanings and social phenomena. We will focus upon details of a particular situation of consumer experiences, the reality behind these details and the subjective meanings which motivate actions (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). As consumer self-relevance and identifications are analyzed within this context, we believe the social science method of interpretation and empathic understanding of human behavior (Bryman and Bell, 2011) is the only fitting approach for this study. Especially as we want to achieve an understanding and explanation of the causes (e.g. motivations) and effects (e.g. attitudes and experiences) of consumer engagement. A research based on the positivistic angle of natural science, would not allow us to generate deeper insights into these consumer motivations and experiences, as they are of a qualitative nature and individual specific. Orlikowski and Baroudi (1991) state that "interpretive studies assume that people create and associate their own subjective and intersubjective meanings as they interact with the world around them [...]. Their standpoint therefore can be applied to the individual consumer motivation for interaction (meaning for them) and the co-creation of brand value due to their engagement in crowdsourcing contests (giving meaning to a brand). In order to understand the process of interpretation through which consumers construct their meanings and conduct their actions, this research attempts to see things from the consumer's point of view (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Following Bryman

and Bell (Ibid.), we as researchers strive to access these meanings and interpret the results and social world as such from the participants' point of view. Nevertheless, our subjectivity in the discussion and conclusion of our analysis is inevitable, as we are only able to provide an interpretation of others´ interpretations (Ibid.). We nevertheless acknowledge the fact, stated by Orlikowski and Baroudi (1991), that we as researchers cannot provide a value-neutral work, since we will always be implicated in the studied phenomenon. Therefore, the results of this interpretive study will not be entirely reproducible by different researchers. Nonetheless, as the underlying theoretical framework, offers us a lens through which we will see our empirical data; a description of reality, inspired by scientific perspectives is achieved. The applicability within different epistemological approaches admittedly remains questionable.

As one of the focus areas of this study is the understanding of consumer perception, based on their experiences, we adapt the ontology of social constructionism (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2008). This ontology considers social entities as established by the perceptions and actions of social actors within them (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Individuals and in this study especially consumers play an active role in the social construction of reality, through social interaction. Therefore, once established categories and their meanings are in a constant state of revision and adaptation (Ibid.) and individuals themselves are changing it, by building different constructions and meanings, deriving from their experiences (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2008). Due to this ever changing environment we acknowledge again, that this study shows a specific version of social reality in a specific time, representing only a single truth, and cannot be seen as definitive (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

3.2 Research Strategy

As argued by Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson (2008), the unit of analysis must be defined before a research strategy can be formulated. In this study the phenomena of interests are the motives, experiences, meanings, and feelings of consumers participating in crowdsourcing contests. As discussed in the introduction, this field of literature remains relatively unexplored. Hence, the purpose of this study is to generate new insights and contribute to the existing literature, meaning that an exploratory stance is favored (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

Our research questions and purpose imply that we follow an inductive research approach in which, instead of testing theory like in the deductive approach, theory is generated out of the collection and analysis of data. However, instead of using an inductive or deductive approach we decided on using an abductive approach. Abduction starts like induction from an empirical basis, but does not reject

theoretical preconceptions (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2009), meaning that existing theoretical concepts will help us in finding insights on the phenomenon of consumer participation in crowdsourcing contests. As the research objective is to explore crowdsourcing contests participant´s motives, experiences and attitudes a qualitative research approach is followed, as in this strategy the point of departure are the people being studied (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Because of the emphasis on words instead of numbers (Ibid.), the qualitative research approach allows us to assemble an in-depth understanding about respondents and their perceived world (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2008). In line with our philosophical standpoint of a social constructionist ontology, qualitative research "embodies the view of social reality as a constantly shifting emergent property of individuals' creation" (Bryman and Bell, 2011; 27). As in this study reality is seen as subjective, the social world must be interpreted from the perspective of the crowdsourcing contest participants, meaning that we need to see the world through their eyes in order to probe beneath surface appearances (Ibid.). Hence, the departure point of this study is the participant's motives and experiences. Following the abductive approach there will be an iterative process of alternating between gathered data and theoretical concepts which will make it possible for us to explore the phenomenon under study in a systematic manner (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2009).

However, we must acknowledge that the qualitative research approach has been criticized. An often heard criticism is that findings in qualitative research relate too much on the researcher's opinion of what is significant or important and that researchers are too close with the studied people, thereby being too subjective. Besides, qualitative studies are criticised because there is often a lack of transparency and are hard to replicate, making generalizations not possible (Bryman and Bell, 2011). While reliability and validity are well-known criteria for quantitative research these are less applicable to qualitative research. Hence, in line with Guba and Lincoln (1994 in Bryman and Bell, 2011), we follow the two primary criteria of trustworthiness and authenticity for assessing our qualitative study. The criterion trustworthiness exists of four criteria, namely; credibility (e.g. internal validity), transferability (e.g. external validity), dependability (e.g. reliability), and confirmability (e.g. objectivity). To ensure the quality of our study we will attempt to fulfill all of these criteria. The confirmability criterion is difficult to fulfill as we acknowledge that because of the researchers' interpretations and social constructs the research cannot be value free. However, we attempt to fulfill this criteria by being self-reflective and 'critical sensitive', recognizing our own views and experiences and not allowing our personal values to overwhelm and affect the research and findings (Alvesson and Deetz, 2000). Moreover, following Bourdieu (1990) who insists on being reflexive, we as researchers will pay, throughout the research process, conscious attention to our own positions and set of internalized structures (e.g. cultural background, beliefs, attitudes) and will reflect upon how these can prejudice our own objectivity. The

criterion of dependability is fulfilled by adopting an 'auditing' approach, meaning that records are kept of all stages of the research process. In this manner peers can decide for themselves whether we followed proper procedures. Moreover, the transferability and credibility criteria are difficult to fulfill as it is often argued that because of the small samples used in qualitative research and the lack of transparency generalization can be problematic. However, in line with Bryman and Bell (2011), we find that it is more important that findings can be generalized to theory rather than to populations. Besides, by making thick descriptions and following an audit approach replication is made possible to some extent as future researchers can adopt the similar social role and it allows peers to judge about the transferability of our findings to other settings (Guba and Lincoln, 1994 in Bryman and Bell, 2011). Lastly, we attempt to fulfill the authenticity criterion by fairly representing the different views of respondents (Bryman and Bell, 2011).

3.3 Research Method

Phenomenology can be seen as part of an interpretive epistemology of social science as well as a method itself (Goulding, 2005). As a method, it is in line with our chosen research philosophy and furthermore reflects the ontology of social constructionism. We are taking the standpoint of an interpretivist epistemology and view the subjective meanings of social phenomena in analyzing the consumers' lifeworld. In this lifeworld consumers experience culture and society, are influenced by them and act on them, therefore our studied phenomenon leads us directly to the phenomenological approach of Schutz (1966). The coherently chosen ontology of social constructionism is due to its focus on consumer perceptions and their role as social actors further supporting the choice of our method. Therefore, the phenomenological perspective, with its main aim to describe the lifeworld, will be used in order to analyze the socially constructed world, constituted through social interactions. Regardless of its use as philosophy or as methodology, phenomenology is used in order to develop a thorough understanding of complex issues, which may not be immediately implied in surface responses (Goulding, 2005).

Since the participation in crowdsourcing contests rather reproduces the consumer opinion considering this lone particular, conscious experience, we approach our topic with an experience based perspective (experimental perspective), like described by Holbrook and Hirschman (1982). Although one might argue that the initial motivation for the participation in these contests can be subconscious, we are conducting semi-structured interviews, leading to a conscious reflection which will be the basis for our analysis and interpretation. Therefore, we argue for the adaptation of phenomenology as research method in line with Schutz (1967), rather than the approach of incorporating it as research philosophy. Our proceeding is

furthermore supported by Holbrook and Hirschman (1982), who argue for the phenomenological spirit within experimental consumption analysis. Since consumption is seen as conducted in a primarily subjective state of consumer consciousness, it is based on the subjectivity on a variety of different symbolic meanings, hedonic responses, and esthetic criteria. Hilgard (1980 in Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982) laid the ground for a phenomenological approach of consumer analysis due to the study of consumption as conscious experience. Even though dissent researchers argue that a relevant amount of consumer motives is based on subconscious motives, Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) describe the experience related motives as merely sub- or pre-conscious and easily retrievable, as opposed to unconscious motives.

As the participants are furthermore agreeing to certain terms and conditions for their participation in the analyzed contest, we believe that we can speak of a conscious experience, determined by active decision making. This agreement and the regard of postmodern consumer culture furthermore underlines the need for a phenomenological method, since phenomenology assumes that people are critically reflecting on conscious experiences, rather than merely acting upon subconscious motivations (Jopling, 1996).
The first research question covering consumer motives for participating in crowdsourcing contests touches upon the possibly sub- or pre-conscious level of motives, while also considering conscious, entertainment, reward driven or other unexpected motives. In phenomenology the human being, who experiences culture and society, forms opinions about the objects in its world. It is influenced by them and responds to them (Schutz, 1966). This experience and its effects of formed opinion relate the phenomenological method to the second research question, which is directed towards the conscious evaluation of the experience and its effects on the consumer's attitude towards a brand.
Goulding's (2005) supports Schutz's (1966) explanation, that phenomenology considers a person's experiences to be interrelated coherently and meaningfully within their socially constructed life. Therefore, we also see the participant himself as the only genuine source to retrieve data. His view and interpretation is considered as fact for his experience and our source of knowledge will be based on this personal perspective, interpretation and subjectivity. Hence, Lester (1999, online) emphasizes the value of phenomenology for the understanding of subjective experiences, in order to gain insights on consumer motivations and actions to cut "through the clutter of taken-for-granted assumptions and conventional wisdom" (Ibid; 1).

The actual *method* of phenomenology as outlined by Colaizzi (1978 in Valle and King, 1978), shows distinct steps, which state the task of the researcher. It is his task to achieve a thorough understanding of the perception of the participants. For each interview significant statements are extracted and relevant keywords and sentences identified. Based on this the researcher formulates meanings for the significant

statements, by including his knowledge and perception. This proceeding is repeated throughout the interviews with participants. As the process is constantly adapted to the responses, the considerations are extended and enable the researcher to achieve a holistic interpretation in the end (Thompson, 1997).

3.4 Data Collection

The phenomenological method serves to obtain first person descriptions of specific experiences of an individual's lifeworld in which the main instrument of data collection is the interview (Goulding, 2005). We chose to conduct interviews with participants from one particular case, namely the crowdsourcing contest called 'Mein Burger 2012' of McDonalds Germany Inc. According to Yin (2003) a case study is the preferred strategy when the researchers have little control over events and when the focus is on contributing to existing knowledge of a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context. The focus is on understanding a socially complex phenomena and retaining a holistic understanding of real-life events. As participating in a crowdsourcing contest is definitely a phenomenon taking place in a real-life context of which we as researchers have no control over, conducting a case study is appropriate. Choosing to research one case or multiple cases is an important dilemma. We decided that the case that would be chosen had to comply to several criteria. First, in line with Yin (Ibid.) the case had to be a representative case of a crowdsourcing ideation-contest in the FMCG industry, meaning that it is in line with the definition of a crowdsourcing contest. Secondly, the contest should have been conducted recently so participation motives and experiences are still easy to reflect on for participants. Thirdly, the contest should have been conducted in a German-speaking, Dutch-speaking or English-speaking country as these are the only languages the researchers speak fluently. And finally, the participants of the contest should be approachable through at least one medium. When searching for ideation contests in the FMCG industry we only found one contest which fulfilled our criteria, namely the 'Mein Burger 2012' contest of McDonalds. During the research phase of this study the 'Mein Burger 2012' contest is in its final stages. We therefore assume that the experience of participating is still present in the users' minds, allowing us to get an authentic picture of this experience. Moreover, since the contest was arranged recently, we were able to identify and reach consumers who participated. Therefore, we decided to merely research participant motives and experiences in this one ideation-contest case.

In line with the phenomenological method we decided to conduct interviews within this case. The interview as data collection instrument can take a variety of forms, from structured over semi-structured to unstructured. The aim of the study leads to choosing how structured the interviews should be (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2008). As the objective of this study is of exploratory nature,

namely to discover the motives and experiences of participants in a crowdsourcing ideation-contest, qualitative interviews seem to be most appropriate. Qualitative interviews are often used to uncover the meanings and interpretations that respondents attach to events, thus to gain an understanding from the respondent's perspective (Ibid.). Advocates of interviews argue that this data collection method is beneficial as it considers and documents rich accounts of the interviewees' experiences and of their social realities and/or their subjective worlds (Alvesson, 2003). Qualitative interviews are frequently used to reconstruct events, like in this study participation in a crowdsourcing contest, by asking interviewees to think back. This data collection method is in line with our ontological and epistemological viewpoints, acknowledging that there is no one 'objective' view (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2008). In qualitative interviews one can distinguish unstructured from semi-structured interviews (Bryman and Bell, 2011). We chose to conduct semi-structured interviews as in line with Bryman and Bell (Ibid.) our investigation of the phenomenon of participants motives and experiences in crowdsourcing contests has a 'fairly clear focus'. Besides, both of us researchers have limited experience in conducting interviews. Therefore, conducting semi-structured interviews in which we use an interview guide for assistance seems to be the most feasible data collection method which will not unfavorably harm the value of the results. Even though we work with an interview guide the semi-structured interview process remains flexible, offering us the freedom to respond to the direction the interviewees take us (Ibid.). However, we still acknowledge that we as researchers are included in developing of meanings and sense making of the interviewees, thereby representing our preconceptions. We agree with Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson (2008) that no research exists without the presumptions of researchers. Since we as researchers have some level of understanding about the studied phenomenon we will use theoretical concepts merely as 'sensitizing concepts' which provide us a general sense of reference and guidance (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Following the arguments of Alvesson (2003) we have a 'reflexive pragmatism' perspective on the interview. The role of existing theory is important as we use existing theories in our reflexive approach. The two advantages of using existing theory are: "(1) avoidance of naivety associated with a belief that 'data' simply reveal reality, and (2) creativity following from an appreciation of the potential richness of meaning in complex empirical material" (Ibid; 14). Hence, we find that not having a theoretical understanding can lead to naïve usage of interview data and interpretations will be difficult to make. However, while acknowledging and being reflexive of our own interpretations the emphasis in the interviews will be on the interviewees' explanation and understanding of his or her motives and experiences in a crowdsourcing contest. Besides, understanding the interviewees view consistent with Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson (2008) we will also assist them to explore their own beliefs.

Thus, we discussed the use of semi-structured interviews to collect our data. However, these interviews can be conducted in different ways, like face-to-face, telephone or Internet interviews. Similar to Brabham´s (2010) study of the crowdsourcing site Threadless we decided to conduct instant messaging (IM) interviews. IM interviews is a synchronous electronic mode of interviewing, which occurs in real time (Bryman and Bell, 2011; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Following Kazmer and Xie (2008) IM interviews are particularly suitable for research that "explores an Internet-based activity […], where the research participants are already comfortable with online interactions" (Ibid; 257-258). Hence, as we research participants' motives and experiences in participating in an online crowdsourcing contest, conducting IM interviews seem to be the right method. Conducting research on Internet activities online can preserve 'contextual naturalness', meaning that participants can use the language they feel comfortable with (Ibid.). Moreover, IM interviewing "allows synchronous and semi-private interaction and can automatically record the interaction text. The ad hoc conversational nature of IM interviews lets them resemble oral interviews. As a result, developing emergent probes in IM interviews can be easier than in email" (Ibid; 259). Brabham (2010) also argues that online interviewing is the only appropriate method when the activity has taken place online. Suggesting a face-to-face or phone interview would be too intrusive and would most likely turn-off participants (Ibid.). IM interviewing allows for perfect transcriptions, as all interactions are stored in logs leading to clean, organized and digital transcripts (Kazmer and Xie, 2008). However, critics of this IM interviewing method argue that high levels of interactivity and rich and spontaneous communication as in face-to-face interviews is missing. Moreover, through the mediated environment one is not able to observe social cues like facial expressions and tone of voice. Although Kazmer and Xie (Ibid.) claim that participants can still express them through online written conventions, as emoticons, font changes, italics, bolding, underlining and other methods. Besides, it has also been suggested that the Web offers relative anonymity thereby encouraging more open and honest responses (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Another important disadvantage is that the participants do not necessarily devote undivided attention to the questions (Brabham, 2010) and/or are more likely to drop out of the exchange in online interviews (Bryman and Bell, 2011). However, for us this IM interviewing method is moreover attractive as participants would otherwise be inaccessible (i.e. living in another country, namely Germany) and hard to involve in the research (i.e. too intrusive to ask for face-to-face interviews). Besides, participants are better able to fit the interview in their own time.

3.5 Sampling Method and Participation Selection Criteria

Due to the qualitative nature of our study and as implied before, our research does not claim to achieve a statistical representation of the population, but rather bring insight to the motivations and reflections of individual experiences. The aim for the participant selection in the approach of a phenomenological method is therefore to gain access to the right individuals, who are open to talk about their experience (Laverty, 2003) and reflect on their actions. This makes the external validity and the possibility to generalize less relevant than the gathering of relevant and rich data (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Before conducting the research, the right individuals are selectively contacted due to qualitative criteria. Since the motives and experiences of consumer participation in FMCG crowdsourcing contests are the focus of our study, the first and most important prerequisite is that our respondents have participated in the 'Mein Burger 2012' crowdsourcing contest of McDonalds Deutschland Inc. This was the primary prerequisite, since especially within a phenomenological method, the participant necessarily must have experienced the analyzed phenomenon by himself (Laverty, 2003; Goulding, 2005). Hence, only when the respondent experienced the crowdsourcing contest, he can give us rich data about this phenomenon. Other prerequisites were that the individuals should be able to conduct the interview through an online medium of their choice (i.e. Skype, Facebook chat) within the research period.

The aim of our study is of exploratory nature, researching a specific experience, namely consumer participation in a crowdsourcing contest. Hence, as this is an in-depth study of a certain phenomenon to gain theoretically relevant insights to answer the research questions, there is a need for information-rich response. Therefore, in line with Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009), we decided to sample our respondents based on a non-probability sampling. In non-probability sampling the chance or probability of each respondent being selected is unknown (Ibid.). Hence, as we do not know the population size and the exact number of participants in the 'Mein Burger 2012' crowdsourcing contest, we cannot know the probability of the respondents being selected. In non-probability sampling there are multiple techniques for participant selection. However, we decided on a non-probability sampling technique called self-selection sampling. The convenience sampling technique, in which researchers haphazardly pick respondents who are easiest to obtain, was not appropriate for our study as our sample is not intended to represent the total population. Since relevant data cannot be collected from the whole population and there is no necessity for statistical inferences or representativeness of this exploratory research purpose, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (Ibid.) recommend the use of a self-selection sampling. Following the self-selection sampling approach we identified individuals who participated in the 'Mein Burger 2012' crowdsourcing contest. We identified and addressed them through our personal network and through publishing our need for respondents through Facebook. Besides, we also directly addressed users who

participated in this particular crowdsourcing contest and promoted their participation via various channels. We used their respective promotion channel or social network to contact them individually. We collected our data from the addressed individuals who responded upon our request.

Since the issue of sample size in non-probability samples remains ambiguous, there are no rules regarding the amount of interviews necessary (Ibid.). We therefore decided to follow the approach of "data saturation", which was also used by Brabham (2010) for his study of motivations for the participation in crowdsourcing applications. One can speak of data saturation when additionally collected data merely provides few, if any, new insights (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009). Based on the limited timeframe of our study, the level of difficulty gathering interviewee feedback and examples of previously conducted research on this topic under the phenomenological method approach, we decided on a minimum of six interviews. This number was recommended by Morse (1994), especially for research in phenomenological studies. Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) are more specific while stating, that a level of saturation within qualitative interviews is normally reached within 12 interviews. As they further elaborate on the topic, they explain that relevant meta-themes already appear within the first six interviews, further supporting our decision for the mentioned minimum. For our final result we can state that in line with Morse (1994) and Guest, Bunce and Johnson (2006) we identified relevant meta-themes after six interviews. Within these interviews the same topics came forward, meaning that a certain level of saturation was reached.

Table 2 gives an overview of our sample and represents the participant's gender, age, profession and contacted IM medium. We note that the names used in the table and throughout this study are pseudonyms. As can be seen the ratio of female to male respondents is quite balanced, meaning that our sample is reflecting both genders. Furthermore, we were able to find respondents of different ages and professions, thereby representing motives, experiences and feelings of participants in different stages of their lives.

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	Profession	Chat	Interview time (minutes)
Nicole	Female	29	McDonalds Employee	Skype	107
Julia	Female	26	Art Student	Skype	84
Laura	Female	27	Recruiting Agent	Facebook	144
John	Male	mid 40's	IT Employee	Facebook	176
George	Male	32	Art Director	Facebook	133
Ryan	Male	21	Logistics Employee	Facebook	139
David	Male	17	Student	Facebook	154

Table 2: Participant Profiles Overview

3.6 Designing and Conducting Interviews

When designing and conducting the semi-structured interviews there are several issues which need to be discussed. Firstly before the interviews could be held we created an interview guide, covering all relevant themes through a list of open questions (see Appendix A). This guide is used to ensure a sense of direction and purpose (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009) and will support us throughout the interview process. However reliant on the interview it allows for flexibility and responsiveness so it will help us to better understand participants motives and experiences (Bryman and Bell, 2011). After the creation of the interview guide we approached participants of the 'Mein Burger 2012' crowdsourcing competition of McDonalds through different mediums. These participants were mainly reached through the mediums they used for promoting their own burger ideas, like Facebook profiles, Facebook groups and their blog platforms. Besides, we used our direct contacts. We send them all an e-mail or Instant Message in which we shortly introduced ourselves, explained the purpose of our study and asked whether they could find the time to participate in our study. This message was on purpose short so it was clear and easy to read without giving too much information away to avoid leading participants into a direction. Even though we gave them the freedom to decide on the instant messaging medium, day and time, we found that the majority of the approached participants were not responding to our message. This low response rate seems to represent a common methodological problem and can have to do with the disinterest of the crowdsourcing contest participants to participate in this study or with the feeling that our mail is merely a

´spam´ message. Nevertheless, we found two participants willing to cooperate from our social network and five contacts through other mediums. As recognized by Kazmer and Xie (2008) in IM interviews we as researchers should adapt to participants' work, family and activity schedules. Besides, to increase retention and support the participants could choose the preferred instant messaging medium (Ibid.). Therefore, the participants could decide on their own instant messaging medium, day and time on which the interview was conducted. Hence, it was no problem to schedule the interviews as after the approval of participants to interview them we were flexible in agreeing upon their suggested instant messaging medium, day and time for the interview. This resulted in having five interviews over Facebook chat and two interviews over Skype chat. As we chose to research participant motives and experiences of the German 'Mein Burger 2012' crowdsourcing contest of McDonalds, we decided to conduct the interviews in German. Only one of the two researchers has German as her mother tongue, but as we conduct IM interviews together, the researchers were able to directly discuss which question should be asked or which answer should be given. We think it is important to interview a participant in his native language as a person's understanding of his experiences and meanings are expressed through cultural viewpoints in language (Thompson, Pollio and Locander, 1994). A feature of the IM interview is that it is self-transcribing, transferring part of the transcription task to the interviewee (Kazmer and Xie, 2008). However, for the purpose of this study we still had to translate the transcripts from German to English. Since one of the researchers is bilingual, speaking both German and English, the possible problems related to translating are minimized. Nevertheless, translating an interview can pose linguistic problems in which certain German words or grammatical structures cannot be easily translated. In these situations we use so called 'free' translation as, even though it is argued that we interpret the thoughts of the interviewees thereby making misinterpretations probable, it seems to be appropriate as otherwise the reader could misunderstand the transcripts (Filep, 2009). Another problem can be sociocultural wherein words with specific meanings only exist in one language. When this happens we alternately adapted or paraphrase the sentence in order to make it understandable for the reader, thus we again interpreted the words of the interviewees (Ibid.).

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) state, that the place where interviews are conducted may influence the collected data. Because the participants could choose the instant messaging medium, day and time of the interview they could decide themselves on a location to conduct the IM interview. However, as it is an IM interview it also means that we do not know where the participant during the interview is, meaning that the participant could choose a location he is comfortable with or possibly a noisy location with a lot of disturbance. As argued by Opdenakker (2006, online) we need to accept that we do not have control over the location of the participants but do acknowledge and accept that different situations could affect

the answers. Hence, a loud, noisy location can lead to shorter answers, while a comfortable location can lead to longer answers. However, we had control over our own location and consciously moved to a location where Internet access was assured and possible nuisance was minimized.

In the IM interviews our role of researchers was to be closely involved and obtain trust with the interviewees in order to be able to see the world through their eyes (Bryman and Bell, 2011). In agreement with Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson (2008) we tried to be sensitive to ensure that the interviewees view is understood and we were able to assist them to explore their own beliefs. Additionally, as recommended by Bryman and Bell (2011) we used comprehensible and relevant language and adapted it where necessary to make the interviewee feel comfortable. In the IM interview process we firstly thanked the interviewee for participating. Besides we again shortly introduced ourselves and explained the purpose of our research. After that we send them an ethical protocol (see Appendix B), which they were given time to read through and asked to agree to. In this way we tackled possible ethical concerns of privacy by ensuring anonymity and confidentiality (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2008). By assuring the interviewees that their data would be kept anonymous and confidential it could have helped in opening up and making them feel at ease. Subsequently, to make them feel comfortable we explained that they were free to answer in any way they liked and they did not have to be formal but could use language and emoticons like they were talking to one of their friends.

As explained we used an interview guide to assist us and help us move through the different themes. In order to avoid bias we mainly used open questions (Ibid.). Moreover, interviewees were encouraged to talk freely as this would give us insights into what they see as relevant and important (Bryman and Bell, 2011). The interviews took approximately 80 to 170 minutes, producing in total 51 pages of transcribed data. As discussed by Davis et al. (2004, in Kazmer and Xie, 2008) we witnessed that the reading, reflection and typing skills of interviewees can lead to discontinuities and non-linear conversations. Therefore, as advised by Kazmer and Xie (2008), we adjusted our speed according to the skills of the interviewees. This was possible because mediums like Skype and Facebook chat allowed us to see when the interviewee was typing, therefore we could ensure that respondents were given time to respond to each question. This also showed us that all participants were committed to the interview as they all responded fairly quickly from which we can conclude that they were not distracted by other tasks. We started the IM interview with some open introducing questions asking about their background. From there on we gradually moved to open questions about their motives and experiences in participating in the crowdsourcing contest. We used upward laddering techniques to move from statements or descriptive accounts to revealing their value base (Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2008). These techniques and as well different probing methods have been used to reveal participants motives as according to

McClelland (1965, in Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson, 2008) this is essential because people are simply not always aware of their own motives. At the end of each interview we asked the participant whether he missed or wanted to add something. In this way, the interviewees were given the chance to share other motives or feelings which were not yet discussed. Finally, we thanked the interviewee for his participation and stated that if he had any questions concerning the interview or our study he could always get in contact with us.

3.7 Data Analysis

As we conducted IM interviews our data is already gathered in an electronic format. However, in order to prepare the data for analysis some steps had to be taken. Firstly, as explained, the transcripts were translated from German to English. The possible linguistic and socio-cultural problems relating to translation were minimized as one of the researchers is bilingual. However, when words or sentences could not be directly translated we used 'free' translation or adapted or paraphrase the sentences. Secondly, following Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) the transcripts were suitably made anonymous and appropriately stored for analysis. These steps resulted in a large quantity of 51 pages of transcripts which all had to be analyzed.

We conducted our analysis in a way which is inspired by the hermeneutic circle approach. We recognize that analyzing qualitative data is an interactive process in which data collection, data analysis and the development of propositions are interrelated and an iterative set of processes. Hence, following Kvale (1996 in Kazmer and Xie, 2008) we see analysis as occurring during the data collection as well as after it. Therefore, after completing each interview marginal notes and comments were made in the digital transcripts. In the hermeneutic circle approach qualitative data is interpreted through an iterative process wherein "a 'part' of the qualitative data is interpreted and reinterpreted in relation to the developing sense of the 'whole'" (Thompson, Pollio and Locander, 1994; 433). Hence, as argued by Thompson, Pollio and Locander (Ibid.), a holistic understanding was achieved through the iterative process of analyzing and comparing different parts of the text in relation to the whole, and the other way around analyzing the whole in relation to the parts. Moreover, through abduction, which is a part of the hermeneutic process, theoretical insights are achieved. In abduction a repeated or iterative process is conducted through alternating between empirical data and existing theory (Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2009). Although Yin (2003) argues that existing theories can be used to devise a framework which can help and organize the data analysis process, we prefer the abductive approach. Hence, consistent with Bryman (1989 in Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009) we find that the excessive departure from theoretical constructs can

lead to premature closure on the investigated phenomenon. Therefore, we merely used our theoretical framework as lens, allowing us to move back and forward between our data, theoretical constructs and interpretations and be aware and sensitive for the possible categories and themes that can come from the data. Thus, in this abductive hermeneutic circle approach we as researchers moved in a systematic way from the empirical data, included theoretical constructs and our interpretations which allowed us to discover new patterns and improve our understanding (Thompson, Pollio and Locander, 1994; Alvesson and Sköldberg, 2009).

In our analysis we followed the first steps in the phenomenological analysis of Hycner (1985), after transcribing we approached the transcripts with an openness to whatever meanings emerged. He argues that in following the 'phenomenological reduction' this is an essential step to elicit the units of general meaning. In this phenomenological reduction we tried to consciously open up to the phenomenon of participant motives and experiences in a crowdsourcing contest. This means that we suspend our meaning and interpretations as much as possible and tried to merge into the world of each interviewed participant (Ibid.). It does not entail that we believe in pure objectivity, but it shows that we tried to understand the phenomenon from the interviewee's point of view and stay true to the data, rather than merely understanding it from our own presuppositions and expectations. As advised by Hycner (Ibid.) and in line with the hermeneutic circle approach (Thompson, Pollio and Locander, 1994) we read the transcripts again to get a sense of the whole interview and noted some general impressions, thereby providing us with a context for the emergence of specific units of meaning and themes later on. In the fourth step of the phenomenological analysis (Hycner, 1985) we rigorously read the transcripts with as much openness as possible to elicit the participant's meanings. In this way we could crystallize and condensate what the participant said, while still using as much as possible of their literal words. Categories were identified throughout the transcripts which were aggregated and organized with the aid of 'post-it' notes. As Lester (1999, online) recognizes this way of analyzing is necessarily messy as there can be many ways of linking categories. However, for the analysis of the interview transcripts we used the same systematic approach in order to ensure consistency. In total we analyzed all of the seven interviews of which one interview was treated as a 'special case'. This was an interview with a participant who achieved a position among the top 20 in the crowdsourcing contest. This participant had a completely different experience than the other six interviewees as he made it to further stages in the contest (e.g. he was invited to Munich to test cook the burger and live through a jury event), therefore we still use the data but carefully reflect on it. However, in this process we reached data saturation and found themes which allowed us to answer our research questions. These results enabled us to illustrate the studied phenomenon, constituting of the participants' motives and experiences in the 'Mein Burger 2012' crowdsourcing context of McDonalds.

3.8 Collection of Primary and Secondary Sources

For this study we define two sorts of primary data; on the one hand original published works, like journal articles of researchers who analyzed certain phenomena and on the other hand the data we gathered ourselves through the qualitative IM interviews with participants of the crowdsourcing contest. Since the collected subjective consumer experiences are the main source of information we are basing our analysis on, we need to respect this data in a primary context. However, primary literature was mainly used within the description of the background of the phenomenon, like recent findings on consumer motives to engage in crowdsourcing contests (as for example by Brabham 2008b, online, 2010, 2012, in press) for the theoretical framework and the presentation of the case itself. To better describe the phenomenon of crowdsourcing contests we made use of findings in recent research, as well as reliable online sources like professional marketing blogs or online articles. These recent and original works gave us insight on the latest developments in research as well as practice. Primary data, provided from participants on the other hand, builds the basis for our analysis, discussion and conclusion.

We incorporated secondary data in different stages of our study, primarily in the theoretical framework, the methodological basis, discussion and following conclusion. These relevant secondary sources were added in order to discuss our framework and findings more controversially and to be able to theoretically place our conclusions within existing research. The entire process of literature and theory collection was ongoing throughout the writing-period and we constantly incorporated supervisor feedback. As we are mainly referring to published, peer reviewed articles, which means that experts approved the article before it was distributed, they can be considered as highly reliable (Fisher, 2007).

4. The FMCG Crowdsourcing Contest 'Mein Burger 2012'

The McDonalds 'Mein Burger 2012' contest is a representative example for the phenomenon under study as it is a successful online crowdsourcing ideation-contest in the FMCG industry. According to McDonalds chairman Bane Knezevic the crowdsourcing campaign 'Mein Burger 2011' was one of the most successful sales driving tools ever, as it resulted into a 5.9 per cent increase of the company turnover (Horizont.Net, 2012, online). Due to the overwhelming number of submissions and votes this year, the 'Mein Burger 2012' crowdsourcing contest proves the relevance for consumers and is therefore a significant case to analyze consumer motives and their overall experiences. Last year's 'Mein Burger 2011' contest was already considered a success with 116,000 idea submissions and 1,5 million votes in eight weeks (McDonalds, 2011, online). Hence, this year's 'Mein Burger 2012' contest exceeded these numbers by far with over 327,000 idea submissions and about 5 million votes in 25 days (McDonalds, 2012a, online). Thus, despite a considerably shorter time period more burger ideas were created and more votes were generated, making the 'Mein Burger 2012' contest a successful crowdsourcing contest. Due to this successful campaign McDonalds was able to increase its social media presence and brand awareness. Moreover, the number of its Facebook fans increased rapidly, making it the most popular brand on Facebook in Germany in 2012 (Socialbakers, 2012, online). Therefore, we can conclude that this contest is an interesting case to study.

The 'Mein Burger 2012' contest is an ideation-based peer-vetted crowdsourcing contest, calling out for the submission of consumers' burger ideas. Due to the participation-oriented nature of the contest, the participation did not require any specific knowledge and skills making it open to amateurs. The only criteria were that the participant needed to be older than 14 years and living in Germany or Luxemburg. Since it is the second contest of its kind, the company has included consumer feedback to improve the contest design, for example by implementing an easier connection to social media.

The second crowdsourcing contest of McDonalds called 'Mein Burger 2012' consists of two phases (see figure 5). Phase one took place from the 9th of January 2012 till the 30th of May 2012 and entailed different steps. The first step was from the 9th of January till the 3rd of February 2012 in which the contest was promoted and persons older than 14 years in Germany and Luxemburg were invited to create and submit their own burger idea online on the McDonalds website. The contest was promoted throughout the McDonald stores, online and in television (TV) commercials wherein participants were asked to create '*Their Burger*' online. The consumer was guided throughout the burger creation process which started with creating the burger step by step by virtually using a provided variety of ingredients,

until a complete burger (bun, protein, salad, vegetables, cheese, and sauce) is created. After the creation of the burger the participant had to submit a name for the created burger. In addition to the creation of their own product, participants were encouraged to promote their creations via the social media platform Facebook, Twitter, Google Plus and e-mail. McDonalds also gave them the opportunity to promote themselves as creator, through inserting their name, a personal picture and a picture of their burger within a short commercial. To publish their creation, each participant had to register on the McDonalds webpage and agree with the terms and conditions as set up by McDonalds. If a participant created a burger he was not able to delete it after publication. Participants could, however ask McDonalds specifically to delete their profile at any time (McDonalds, 2012b, online). In this first step of the contest every burger that was created and published successfully was put up to be voted for anonymously without registering via the company website, Facebook and a mobile, using a smart phone application. Each burger creator had the opportunity to promote his burger through pictures and the earlier mentioned video by McDonalds. This promotion material was provided so participants could easily share their creations via their social networks and have their peers vote for them (McDonalds, 2012c, online). The Facebook application for example automatically showed 'Burgers of my friends', where one could see who of his friends participated as well and was directly linked to the voting chance for their creations. The voting process was based on the Internet Protocol (IP) address of a user, making it only possible to vote once an hour from the same IP address. Besides, each creator was allowed to vote for their own burger (McDonalds, 2012c, online). Next to this direct approach, the voters had the opportunity to vote '1 against 1' through the company website or Facebook application. Here two randomly selected burgers were presented paired together and each time the user could vote for his favorite of the shown options (McDonalds, 2012c, online).

The second step of the first phase was on the 10th and 11th of February. In this step the highest ranking twenty burgers were selected based on the peer-vetted approach (e.g. votes of the crowd). These twenty burgers were test-cooked and presented to a jury in the McDonalds Headquarter in Munich (McDonalds, 2012c, online). This event was furthermore supported by three of the five finalists of the 2011 contest, who answered consumer questions in a live chat (over Facebook) and supported this year's top 20 in their burger presentation in front of the jury. With their participation in the jury-event the top twenty participants gave up their intellectual property rights regarding the recipe and burger-name infinitely, exclusively assigning these rights to McDonalds (McDonalds, 2012b, online). To secure a best possible transparency for all the participants and keep those involved who did not make the final twenty, McDonalds communicated every step of the process and had a team filming and live reporting about the jury event. Based on this process the jury chose five winners out of these twenty burgers and made a

winner announcement. The final winner announcement of the five burgers and their creators (except for one creator) was broadcasted over the company's Facebook page and on the McDonalds website.

The third step in the contest was from the 12th of February till the 25th of April in which McDonalds arranged all the logistics and preparations for the next step in the contest. In this stage the promotional material like a professional photo shooting of the finalists for print advertising and their own television spot and radio spot was produced. Furthermore, McDonalds planned ingredients, packaging and the delivery to the restaurants.

The next step took place from the 26th of April till the 30th of May wherein each winning burger was sold for one week in the restaurants in Germany and Luxemburg, under the support of an individual TV and radio commercial, broadcasted on national television and radio, exclusively featuring the winning burger and its creator (McDonalds, 2012b, online). During the period in which the winning burgers are sold in the fast-food restaurants in Germany and Luxemburg, the "Taste-Winner" will be voted for by the crowd via Facebook likes in phase two of the contest (McDonalds, 2012b, online). The consumers are able to vote online from home or mobile via a Quick-Response-code, which they can scan with a smart phone from the burger packaging, leading them to the Facebook voting-page. It is only possible to vote for the burger which is currently sold in McDonalds restaurants. The whole process of the contest, consisting of five steps and divided into two phases is described in figure 5 below:

1
- **PHASE 1: 9th January -3rd February**
- Burger creation online and Promotion
- Voting Phase

2
- **10th and 11th of February**
- Announcement of the Top 20
- Test-cooking & Jury Event with selection and announcement of the 5 winners

3
- **12th February -25th April**
- Logistics & Preparation

4
- **26th April - 30th May**
- Top 5 are sold in McDonalds Restaurants (each Burger for one week) and are Promoted nationally

5
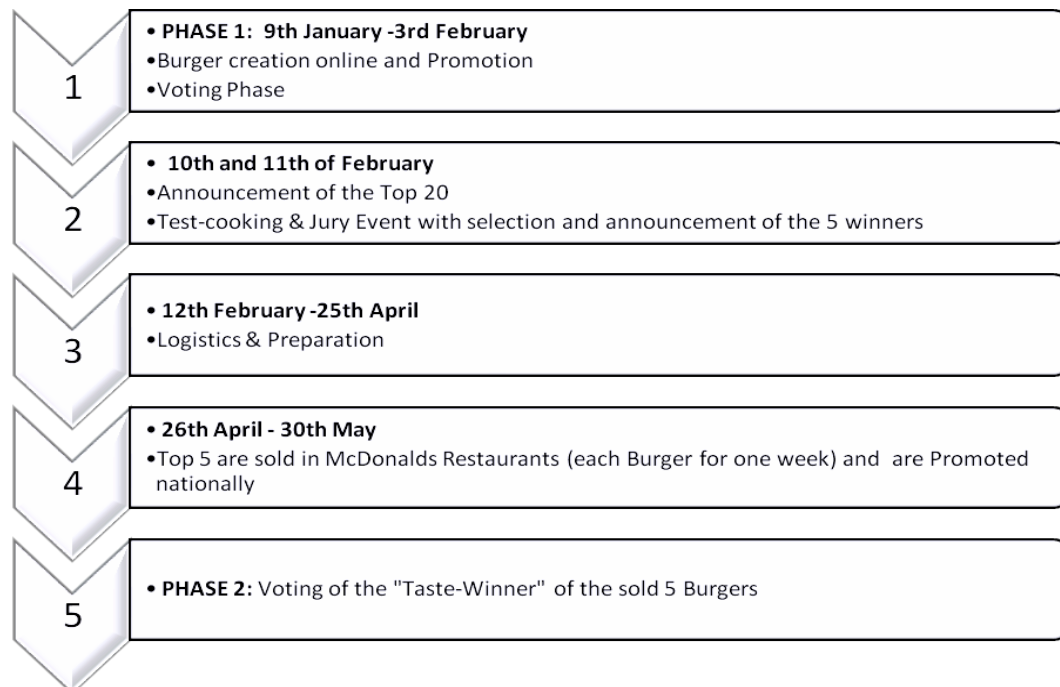- **PHASE 2:** Voting of the "Taste-Winner" of the sold 5 Burgers

Figure 5: Five Steps of the McDonalds 'Mein Burger 2012' Contest (McDonalds 2012b, online)

Although the five main steps of the contest were announced beforehand and the two phases were communicated as well, the final prize for the overall 'Taste-Winner' was not published until the sale and therefore voting for the winner started on the 26th of April 2012. McDonalds will reward the 'Taste-Winner' and a person of his choice with a one week trip to Chicago, the home of the first McDonalds restaurant (McDonalds 2012d, online).

5. Analysis

The analysis of the respondent data is divided according to the research questions of this study. Starting out with a review of the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, the analysis continues with the consumers' perceptions of the encountered experience in respective stages and the resulting participants' attitudes and feelings towards the brand. Furthermore, an extra insight section was added, regarding actions conducted by the interviewees as a result of their participation. Thereby analyzing the phases prior to, during and after the contest experience.

5.1 Motivations

The transcripts were interpreted with support of the theoretical lens in which the model of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011) was incorporated. Moreover, to deepen the understanding of the motives other relating concepts were integrated. In the collected interview data we found the themes of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Within these, several categories were identified. In the concept of intrinsic motivation the identified categories are 'Fun', 'Co-determination', and 'Joining the Mainstream', while within extrinsic motivations the categories of 'Prize' and 'For His Own Community' were found.

Fun

The strongest and main intrinsic motivator to participate in the 'Mein Burger 2012' contest, as expressed by all interviewees, is the motive of 'Fun'. This intrinsic motive entails that consumers participate for themselves to experience positive fun feelings. As illustrated by the following excerpts our interviewees mainly participated in order to experience enjoyment.

> *"I think I found the whole idea a lot of fun, to have a burger that I could name how I want and which exactly meets my taste." [Laura, 27]*

> *"[…] it was a lot of fun to configure your own burger." [George, 32]*

> *"I've just made it. That's all I wanted. It was just something for me." [Nicole, 29]*

Our findings show that participants want to entertain themselves through the making, building or configuring of a creation on an online platform. Hence, they are not specifically motivated by the possibility to express their creativity but rather by assembling something for entertainment. All interviewees expressed this motive of 'Fun' as the main motivation for participating in the 'Mein Burger

2012' contest, which supports the 'experiential view' on consumption, described by Holbrook and Hirschman (1982; 132). The motive of fun is an intrinsic motivation to participate in a crowdsourcing contest as the consumer participates for the self. Fun as main motivation to participate is consistent with Füller's (2010) finding that in communities having fun is perceived as most important reason to participate in co-creation, as they can satisfy their intellectual interest or curiosity. In line with the model of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011) this motive touches upon the category of 'Enjoyment Based Motivation' wherein a consumer perceives feelings of 'Fun' through his participation. This motive has been found in multiple crowdsourcing studies and is supported by the findings of Brabham (2008b, online) and Ipeirotis (2010).

Co-determination

Another finding which was found throughout the interviews is the intrinsic motivator of 'Co-determination'. This motive entails that consumers participate due to their dissatisfaction with the existing assortment and participate in order to be able to change something in the menu of McDonalds. Hence, these consumers participate to have an influence on something, meaning that by participating in a crowdsourcing contest they feel they can have an effect and can change or create something for themselves within the company. Half of the interviewees expressed this motive, which is shown through the following excerpts.

> *"Most burgers are well-known and boring. The action Meines Burgers are never really according to my taste, so I decided, participate in it! […] I quickly got to know about the McDonalds campaign and thought "Hi you might have chance, participate in it"." [Laura, 27]*

> *"Well I've seen that the burgers they have are almost always the same shit, they never have something special ... that really annoyed me... I most of the time just eat cheeseburgers because the rest is kind of crap and as I got in some way frustrated by that I decided to make my own burger." [Julia, 26]*

> *"The people, who eat at McDonalds now could create their own burgers. And with luck it has the chance to become popular. They could decide for once what will be "on the table"." [Nicole, 29]*

This motive of 'Co-determination' shows that consumers participate in order to change the current situation. Hence, in case of this 'Mein Burger 2012' contest participants are able to add their burger to the menu. As shown by the excerpts this motive can come from different feelings, like dissatisfaction, boredom and empowerment. This is an intrinsic motive as these participants want to change the existing situation for themselves as they are not satisfied by it. This motive can be linked to some of the constructs of the 'Enjoyment Based Motivation' category of the model of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011). The

construct called 'Direct Feedback from the Job' is mainly shown in this motive of co-determination as the participants feel that through participating they can get a sense of achievement. This direct feedback comes not from other persons but from the work on the task itself. Hence, they feel that their burger creation is an achievement which can satisfy their needs. However, it is not just an achievement, the participants view the contest as an opportunity through which they can for themselves change the existing menu of McDonalds according to their taste. The constructs 'Task Identity' and 'Task Autonomy' are as well shown in this motive as participants have the feeling they can complete or fulfill something and perceive a degree of freedom given to them during the task execution. Though, it is again important to recognize that in this motive of co-determination the participants have the feeling they *can change* the status quo for themselves and thus have a real impact on the current situation. In accordance with Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004a/b) the participants expressing this motive are dissatisfied with the available choices and therefore participate in the crowdsourcing contest as a way to interact with the organization, thereby leading to possible change and co-creation of value. This motivation shows a need for active involvement in which the consumer is constructing brand meaning. Hence, in his role as consumer agent he has 'agency' or power over brands, as in constructing a brand's meaning a social negotiation between marketer and consumer takes place (Muniz and O'Guinn, 2001). Moreover, in line with Campbell's (2005) study, we see this motivation of 'Co-determination' as one in which it becomes apparent that the consumer is motivated to invest his personality or self in crafting something.

Joining the Mainstream

The last intrinsic motivator is 'Joining the Mainstream'. A couple of participants expressed that they participated in the contest to follow/join the mainstream. Hence, because other people are doing it, they are doing it as well. They are participating for themselves in order to get a feeling or sense of belonging to the mainstream. The following excerpt of Ryan shows this motive as when asking why he participated in the contest he answered:

> *"Nothing really, I just wanted to join the mainstream." [Ryan, 21]*

This motive is special as these consumers participate merely to follow the mainstream, but do not have social contact with other participants on the online platform. Apparently these participants attach value to following the mainstream and get in this way a personal feeling of belonging to it. This motive can be to some extent related to the 'Community Based Motivation' category as recognized in the model of Kaufman, Schulze and Veit (2011). In line with this category the participants are engaging because they

feel some belonging to the group who has participated already in the contest, thus the community. However, this motive of 'Joining the Mainstream' does not fit to the existing constructs of 'Community Based Motivation' which are, 'Community Identification' and 'Social Contact'. The consumers participate to follow the mainstream group because in this way they feel they personally belong to something bigger. They do not participate to have social contact with them on the online platform and do not necessarily adopt the norms and values from the crowdsourcing community. Through doing what the mainstream does, namely participating in the crowdsourcing contest, they are able to possibly talk about this experience in their lifeworld and intrinsically feel they belong to the mainstream group. Consumers with this motive are, with their participation, imitating the behavior of the mainstream. This gives them the individual satisfaction of not standing alone (Simmel, 1904), as instead they feel a belonging to this group. In accordance with Hubermann (2008), the consumers participate because they are driven by exposed submissions of others, leading them to participate "because others do". This finding contradicts Schau and Gilly (2003) as these consumers do not participate to associate themselves with the material object of the contest but rather associate themselves with the mainstream. Hence, in line with Thompson and Arnould (2005) and Arvidsson (2008) participating in the contest is a way of self-expression for these participants, through which they gain a form of identity establishment for the self.

Prize

The interviews show that, even though it was not the main motivator, a couple of participants were as well extrinsically motivated by the prize or reward of the contest. However, interesting was that interviewees emphasized on different elements of the prize, like getting on TV or getting their idea produced. When asking whether there was another reason to participate besides fun, Laura said the following:

> *"The prize I would say. There is always something to win and if the prize is interesting for me I think it is even better. [Q: Did you know what was the prize for the McDonalds contest?] Yes that your burger would be produced!" [Laura, 27]*

Another interviewee, Ryan, found as well the prize an extrinsic motive but emphasized on the opportunity of getting on TV. This is shown by the following quote:

> *"You have the opportunity to get on television and present your own ideas, ideas of the burger I mean." [Ryan, 21]*

These interviewees expressed that a prize or reward is not the main motivator, but is still an extrinsic motivator for participating in the crowdsourcing contest. Interesting is that in the 'Mein Burger 2012' contest a mixture of prizes were given and that interviewees got motivated by different aspects of this prize mix, like getting your burger idea produced or getting on TV. However, when relating this motive of 'Prize' to the model of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011) it can be clearly linked to the category called 'Immediate Payoffs'. Although the prize was not a monetary remuneration, the other prizes as immediate payoffs from the contest were extrinsic motivators. Many studies see the monetary prizes as extrinsic motivation but in line with Leimeister, Huber, Bretschneider and Krcmar (2009) we see the direct compensation of prizes as an extrinsic motive which could be monetary or non-monetary. Where for Laura the actual prize was the production of her burger, the excerpt of Ryan shows that he got attracted to the prize because of the possibility to be on TV. Hence, he was motivated by it as it would bring him social recognition and possibly some form of status. This again can be connected to the construct of 'Indirect Feedback from the Job', which entails getting feedback and searching for commendation on the delivered crowdsourcing task from individuals.

For His Own Community

The last extrinsic motive that was found is called 'For His Own Community'. This extrinsic motive came strongly forward in an interview and means that a consumer participates for an own community separate from the contest community. As shown by the following excerpt a consumer with this motive participates to contribute in some way to his own community.

> *"I remembered the contest from last year and thought this is a good idea for our gaming community to create one or more burgers and make them compete and as a coincidence the action had started for this year... […] My motive was simple: offer the people something they like which can also increase the solidarity within the team and let us enjoy something altogether... I always have nice ideas to either shock the people or surprise them and this keeps the guys and girls with us and this has brought us a good name in the GamingCom." [John, mid 40s]*

This motivation to participate in a crowdsourcing contest in order to give something to a community from outside the platform community is extrinsic. As shown in the excerpt this consumer participated to give his own community, separate from the crowdsourcing community, something to enjoy. Thus he participates to personally give something to the community to be able to enjoy it together. This finding can be explored with a construct which is explained in the model of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011). In the theme extrinsic motivation the category of 'Social Motivation' shows the construct 'Indirect Feedback from the Job' which can be linked to this finding. This construct entails that the participant is

motivated because of the possible prospect of feedback about the delivered working results by other individuals, in this case of individuals of his own community. Hence, this consumer is motivated to participate in the contest to give something to his community so he in return unites his community with this experience and provides them with entertainment. His own role within this respective community gets strengthened, due to his provision of entertainment and the unifying action. Thereby, he can achieve the reward of recognition from his community, which supports the non-monetary motivation of consumers in an Ethical Economy (Arvidsson, 2008).

Intrinsic Motives Stronger Than Extrinsic Motives

Our finding is that the interviewees all have an individual mix of different motives to participate in the 'Mein Burger 2012' crowdsourcing contest. This finding is in line with studies of for example, Brabham (2008b, online; 2010), Leimeister, Huber, Bretschneider and Krcmar (2009) and Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011). However, the main motivation which came forward in all of the interviews is the intrinsic motivation of 'Fun'. Besides this motivation interviewees showed intrinsic motives of 'Co-determination', 'Joining the Mainstream' and/or one of the extrinsic motives 'Prize' or 'For His Own Community'. Hence, our finding is that the intrinsic motives were stronger than the extrinsic motives. This is also shown by the following excerpts:

> *"For me it was just for fun. Whether my burger wins or not, I didn't care." [Nicole, 29]*

> *"Well winning it [the contest] was only important for me because I wanted to eat the burger..." [Julia, 26]*

This dominance of intrinsic motives has also been shown in existing studies, like in the study of Zhen, Li and Hou (2011) who researched the participant motives in 123 idea competitions and found that intrinsic motivation was more important than extrinsic motivation in inducing participation. Thus, this study is in line with our finding that participants of crowdsourcing ideation-contests have stronger intrinsic motivations than extrinsic motivations.

5.2 Experience

When analyzing the consumer participation experience we focus on the operative dimension (Margolin, 2002) of the way the interviewees live through the conducted activities. We define the experience as ranging across certain stages of the contest, rather than a specific timeframe. We therefore define the

stages of the experience as starting out with the online product creation, followed by the promotion through different channels with different actions. The check-up with the casting of votes for the creation as well as the voting for other products are seen as final stages of the experience.

Since our respondents were mainly selected and contacted due to their actions of product promotion they are mostly characterized by an active participation in product creation and respective degree of immersion through promoting and sharing. The majority of our respondents are therefore placed in the realm of the 'Escapist-Experience'. Escapist experiences can have an educational aspect to the experienced event, or an amusement aspect. Important is here the level of immersion. Other examples for such experiences would be for example the acting in a stage play, or running a marathon. If the customer is not participating as actively, an 'Escapist' event becomes an 'Esthetic-Experience'. Here the participants are immersed in an activity or environment, but they themselves have little or no effect on it, like a tourist who merely views a sight or a visitor to an art gallery. We found this rather passive participation experiences in one respondent who was recruited through our social network (Nicole, 29). Although she participated in the creation of a product, she did not submit her final creation to engage in the contest which characterizes her passive participation. Since she nevertheless talked about her experience with her personal surrounding and at work, she still immersed in the experience. Another respondent who was contacted through our social network and not through her product-promotion rather engaged actively in the experience. She created and submitted her idea, but due to the absorption level of her experience relates more to the 'Education' realm (Julia, 26). Although she was occupied with the experience, she kept it more to herself than including peers or her online/offline environment.

When reviewing the lived through experience itself, we separated certain aspects of the event in order to identify relevant discoveries for each individual section, as the engagement in each stage can be very different.

Creation

According to the majority of our respondents the initial product creation process is characterized through a high relevance of personal preferences. In the case of the analyzed crowdsourcing contest this personal relevance is determined by personal 'taste' and expresses the respective consumers' preference and therefore the consumer himself. In line with Campbell (2005) and Arvidsson (2008) the product is representing a form of self-expression since it is created for themselves or their communities, rather than for the mass audience or potential McDonalds consumers. This shows a relation to 'use value', as introduced by Marx (1867/ 2001), which explains the value a product has due to its extent of satisfaction for the individual consumer needs. This action, driven by intrinsic motivations (Kaufmann, Schulze and

Veit, 2011) satisfies individual 'Enjoyment Based' as well as the 'Community Based' consumer motivation. 'Exchange value' on the other hand is generated on the marketplace as point of sale/exchange, since it is measured in the equivalent market-value (Marx, 1867/ 2001) and thereby represents drivers of extrinsic motivation considering payoffs (Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit, 2011). Our respondents also show certain elements of engagement as craft consumers as within the limited options of action in this contest they are transforming commodities into personalized objects (Campbell, 2005) according to their respective preferences.

> *"... to have a burger that I could name how I want and which exactly meets my taste. Most burgers are well-known and boring. The promotion burgers they offer once in a while are never really according to my taste.." [Laura, 27]*

> *"I went back and forth now and then and changed something until it was really good for me. [Q: what was most important for you?] The ingredients. I am not really easy when it comes to food. I don't eat a lot of vegetables." [Nicole, 29]*

> *"I chose the ingredients I knew from McDonalds and which I like the most."[Ryan, 21]*

> *"[Q: What is the name of your burger] McHell because it was the hottest burger I could configure. Hotter than the hell! ;) [Q: Is your burger representing yourself in some way?] I really like it hot :D" [George, 32]*

Every interviewee showed a degree of involvement with the created product itself, as it resembles their taste. Therefore, making the creation an authenticating act and relevant for the participants as it increases their engagement (Arnould and Price, 2000 in Ratneshwar, Mick and Huffman, 2003; Poulsson and Kale, 2004). The product is useful for themselves and does not necessarily bear any value for others, meaning although it poses a high use value the exchange value is zero (Humphreys and Grayson, 2008).

As the element of personal relevance directly impacts the perceived quality of the experience we believe it is important to note that one respondent mentioned that it was not possible for her to create the perfect product. Nevertheless she regarded the creation of her product as 'Fun'.

> *"To be honest I thought it was really cool and interesting but some ingredients that I would have liked to see were missing and there was a maximum on ingredients. That sucked. That's why the perfect burger could not be created and that annoyed me a bit. Also the homepage was a bit overloaded... but in general it was fun." [Laura, 27]*

Furthermore, proving the personal relevance for our participants and their involvement is the statement that they got hungry for their product at the end of the creation experience.

> *"After that I was really hungry ^^" [Laura, 27]*

> *"[...] getting really hungry" [John, mid 40's]*

> *"I thought it looked soooo yummy and wanted to eat so badly that was insane.." [Julia, 26]*

Promotion

The stage of promotion is primarily characterized through the engagement of the participant. Overall the participants show an online focus for the promotion of their product. While the platform offered the sharing of the creation via Facebook, Twitter, VZ, Google Plus and Email, most interviewees chose the sharing of the link via Facebook. Additionally to the possibility to share the provided promotional material from McDonalds, some respondents engaged in the creative creation and design of own promotions. These creative consumer promotions can be seen as an act of creative self-expression which relates to certain characteristics of the craft consumer (Campbell, 2005). They are using their own creative skills and technological knowledge to create and spread their promotions.

> *"[…] the McDonalds picture I posted that on the McDonalds Facebook wall and in our internal forum [gaming-community-forum]. I did not make a video that was too much in my opinion. But I packed my burger pictures together, which means I screenshoted the creation process and pasted pictures together in paint.net and created a heading for it and this was my promotion. This way everyone could see which ingredients I used and not only the pressed burger where you cannot see anything really." [John, mid 40's]*

> *"I did not use that [the promotional material provided by McDonalds], but I designed a timeline visual myself and shared the post.[...] I designed some teasers and shared the link.." [George, 32]*

> *"I used the McDonalds video. [Q: Did you do anything to increase the number of votes after that?] ..I made my own [another video he promoted on YouTube] [Q: What motivated you to make your own video?] ..a lot of people did that before me" [Ryan, 21]*

In addition to the provided channels the respondents used respective media channels in which they were comfortable. In particular these channels were a private blog, an own YouTube channel and community forums. None of the interviewee statements showed an intended, strategic mix of online and offline self-promotion. The interview data rather supports that there seems to be an 'either/or approach' considering online and offline promotion. The respondents who were advertising online for example did not promote

it actively while talking to friends or relatives. During the interviews only few participants stated that they were talking about the contest to friends and relatives and thereby promoting offline. These participants did not use any online promotion at all.

> *"[Q: Did you use the provided video from McDonalds or the pictures of the burger? Have you talked to your friends about it?] Nah, I didn't use anything- and yes I talked to my friends about it, I hardly had other topics for the next 48 hours :D" [Julia, 26]*

> *"[Q: ...did you talk about it with your friends or other people?] Yeah, sure. Especially at work, it was a great conversation topic at that time. [Q: Was it a topic for you, even outside work? So to speak "privately"?] Yes, I talked about it with friends and my husband. What would they think of for a burger-creation and how they would call it." [Nicole, 29]*

Moreover, our respondents showed a clear awareness of spamming.

> *"[...] I did not have enough likes and did not want to stress my friends with that.[...] And how often would a friend vote for your burger if you are annoying him with your requests of liking it." [George, 32]*

> *"[...] to promote your burger once a day on the wall of McDonalds on the other hand is OK I think, on other walls I see it as spam..." [John, mid 40's]*

> *"I didn't want to annoy my friends with that, I shared it once on my [Facebook] wall and after that it was done for me" [Ryan, 21]*

Since our theoretical lens is based on the consumer lifeworld and consumer needs within Social Production of an Ethical Economy we want to pay special attention to these statements. The need for self-expression and the reward of recognition from a community did not show throughout the interviews. Although John was motivated to participate 'For His Own Community', the concept of social recognition as one of the main drivers for consumers in an Ethical Economy, as explained by Arvidsson (2008), did not show throughout the conscious reflection of the majority of analyzed interviews. The interviewees did not want to bother their network, which speaks for a critical perspective on the all-encompassing brandspace as described by Arvidsson (2005) and Salzer-Mörling (in Ekström 2010). This was especially emphasized by John, who explicitly stated:

> *" [...] we are spammed with advertising messages from TV, radio or on the street, it does not matter where you are, the only advertising free space is the bedroom while you are sleeping and have your eyes closed. New media nice and bla, but to be honest you don't have to follow every hype... sadly in today's education a lot is done wrong and there are no real values communicated anymore. Sadly..." [John, mid 40's]*

He and the other respondents therefore show distinct characteristics of critical and reflective postmodern consumers. The acknowledgement that there is, so to speak, no real advertising free space in a consumer's lifeworld brought him even to question the values of society.

The Role of Communities within Promotion

When talking about the role of communities within the analyzed contest we found different attitudes throughout the interviews. The role of communities in the Ethical Economy for example is characterized due to their relevance as providers of social recognition (Arvidsson, 2008). Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011) describe them therefore also as source of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. When asked why they participated in the first place, few interviewees already mentioned the importance of communities. One of them explicitly stated that he planned to utilize his community in order to increase his chances to win the contest:

> *"[Q: Can you tell us what exactly made you participate? Feel free to elaborate on that.] First I was just bored but I remembered that last year they had a McBrezel which was superjummie! :D and I thought: Hmm I will succeed in creating something more amazing.[...] Well then I had the idea with the Mc9Gag, last year every burger had a community in his back, so why not the best one [community]" [David, 17]*

He as active, immersing participant posted a call for help in his online community and was immediately supported, resulting in the reward of social recognition through this international online community.

> *"[..] I am in the 9gag community now for quite a while and I thought: Hey it would be awesome to create a Mc9gag, because 9gag would definitely help with that Then I made a post and after one minute 500 people liked it already and I thought just like: aaaaaweeesome"[David, 17]*

This community engagement shaped his experience fundamentally. It changed the experience environment and extended the presence of the experience to other platforms, thereby increasing his involvement. When confronted with another rivaling community who engaged in the contest the unity grew and his community backed up the burger, increasing the engagement even more. Within this unity we found a reflection of the intrinsic motivation of 'Community Identification', relating to his outside community (Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit, 2011), as his experience was strongly affected by his affiliation to the community.

"[...] but there was a second community with the name 4chan... grrr [Q: Yes please explain.] They have created over 20 burgers, because they were mad at me, because I asked 9gag for help (they did that because only the best 20 burgers will make it to the next round) and then later I was on the 21st rank- well and then they subtracted 400.000 votes from my burger because McDonalds could not explain to themselves how it was possible in only 3 days to generate so many votes.. well and then I only had 70.000 votes left but was on rank 4... no 3 but still it was enough [...] but the 20 burgers [4chan's burgers] were thrown out of the competition" [David, 17]

This 'battle' between his community and competing communities increased the level of personal relevance due to the arousal it caused and therefore directly influenced his involvement. Furthermore, the elements of novelty and surprise (Poulsson and Kale, 2004) relate to his encountered experience as the community involvement and its surprising effects were something new for the respondent and directly impacted the involvement in the encountered experience.

The fact that certain participants mobilized bigger online communities was considered negative by other respondents.

"[…] I quickly realized that others have capitalized on their internet presence, something we did not do because I told everyone of my people to vote only once and not to use a bot to manipulate votes like others did it…[..] The problem is that they did not really control, when how and why a burger could achieve 60 votes in one minute, even if it were different IPs." [John, mid 40's]

Here the united engagement of communities is seen to deprive the contest of its authenticity. This respondent perceived the support of communities as manipulation of the contest. Another respondent, who recognized the community engagement explicitly, stated that it is "not unfair", but nevertheless de-motivating and therefore negatively influencing his involvement.

"[...] Sure it is not unfair to start with your community but sadly the small guy has no chance anymore." [George, 32]

Review of Received Votes

After the product creation and promotion the review of submitted votes for the own created product plays an important role for the overall experience. Although this stage of the event takes part during another time and is not immediately the next step of the creation, we are considering it as part of the experience. All of our interviewees who actively participated in the contest checked the number of received votes in a time period after their product creation. This fact shows that the experience contains an 'Engagement-Element' for them. This element, as presented by Poulsson and Kale (2004), shows that this contest is

exceeding the level of pure entertainment for the participant. Resulting from a connection to personal relevance their active involvement in this stage further increases interest and possible joy (Poulsson and Kale, 2004; Shernoff, Csikszentmihaiyi, Schneider and Shernoff, 2003).

But since most of our respondents did not receive many votes from their peers we can find proof in the opposite; a certain de-motivation after checking the number of votes submitted for them. When asking about the follow up with their voting our respondents answered quite in line with each other.

> *"I might have looked at it three times and then I checked the top 10 and gave up.. [Did you do anything after that to increase the number of votes?] No not anymore... I think the first rank already had over 1000 and I had like 30 or so." [Laura, 27]*

> *"no [I didn't follow the voting] it would have depressed me, I already knew that before and if I would win they would contact me." [Julia, 26]*

> *"Then I checked the page once in a while how it is going. At the end I gave up, because I did not have enough likes and did not want to stress my friends with that." [George, 32]*

This 'giving up' and de-motivation at this stage of the contest can be related to the intrinsic 'Enjoyment Based Motivation' as in line with Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011). Relating this de-motivation to the 'Task Identity' construct, the participants perceive the task as not completed, meaning that it is not feasible to receive a tangible result from their work. This leads to a decrease of motivation and therefore to giving up. Moreover, it can be related to the construct of 'Direct Feedback from the Job', as they did not feel a sense of achievement during the task execution they were de-motivated and gave up on collecting votes. However, this giving up can also relate to the extrinsic motivation construct of 'Indirect Feedback from the Job'. Because the participant does not receive enough votes he possibly feels that he does not receive the commendation by individuals for his work results, therefore feeling de-motivated.

Voting for Other Creations

In the final stage of the determined experience, the participants could engage in the contest as vetting peers for other product creations. In this case we see the relevance of other experience elements like Novelty and Surprise, which have not shown in earlier stages. The respondents reacted on submitted ideas which were exceptional and outside the norm considering their ingredients or in particular naming and were therefore regarded as new and unexpected.

> *"I checked the top 10 or 20 and voted for some of them! [Q: What was interesting for you concerning the other burgers? For which burgers did you vote?] Oh I cannot really recall that*

anymore. Name and burger itself were crucial. When it looked good and I thought that would taste good I voted for it. There was also a McGuttenberg which was similar to an existing burger, I still voted for that one. I thought it was funny :D" [Laura, 27]

"Yes sure! [I voted for other burgers as well] There were so many awesome burgers, I would have wished for a lot of them to win!
And then only the most ugly and boring burgers won" [David, 17]

"Yes [I checked and voted for other burgers?] [Q: What interested you with that and on basis of what did you vote?] Based on creativity with the name giving and originality." [George, 32]

Within the interview data we found an acknowledgement and appreciation of creativity and originality of other product creations. These were the products our respondents rewarded with their votes, thereby honoring these participants with social recognition. The interviewees were not aware of the reasons why they received upvotes from peers. This means that they were not aware if they were rewarded with recognition for their creations or voted for based on a different reason. Nevertheless we found that they were actually giving social recognition to others. As they were still involved in authoritative performances or the authenticating acts of others, their engagement might have still bared personal relevance (Arnould and Price, 2000 in Ratneshwar, Mick and Huffman, 2003; Poulsson and Kale, 2004). The element of Engagement itself exceeds the mere entertainment level of the experience and the still relevant active involvement through voting and the possibility to interact with the brand at this stage continuously provides interest and joy (Poulsson and Kale, 2004; Shernoff, Csikszentmihaiyi, Schneider and Shernoff, 2003).

We found that those interviewees, who rewarded other creations with their votes, were mainly those who had already resigned for themselves. The competitive element was therefore already resolved at that stage. Nevertheless, due to their participation as vetting peers, they were still involved and engaged in the contest to a relevant extent. We believe that the elements which increase their level of engagement were determined by Novelty, Surprise and perceived power of co-determination.

5.3 Resulting Effects

In this part of the analysis we are focusing on the reflective dimension of the experience, as introduced by Margolin (2002). We are looking into the opinions, attitudes and feelings consumers have about the product/brand and the meaning they give to it after engaging in the operative part of the experience.

Consumer Perception

The earlier defined and analyzed experience ended with the announcement of the Top 20 and the ending of the voting period. Since the complete crowdsourcing contest covers more stages in which consumer engagement is wished for by the company, we were interested in the effects of their encountered experience on their engagement in the following stages of the contest. We found that the overall opinion about the contest was very positive. Our respondents felt valued as they were given a voice and the power of co-determination.

> *"[...] McDonalds puts the user in the centre of attention and gives him the possibility and a platform to present himself." [George, 32]*

> *"It is actually a cool action! I think it's always good if a company is incorporating fans or starts creative actions like that. McDonalds always does a lot and I like that." [Laura, 27]*

The participants are engaging as enabled consumers and perceive their participation as empowering action. Although the respondents did not state a conscious awareness of the concept of co-creation or their participation in the co-production of brand value, we still see its relation to their experiences. As argued by Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004a), the real value is generated in the respective experience of an individual consumer, determined by a specific point in time, at a specific location and in the context of a specific event. Their possibility to engage in the co-determination of a final product which will be produced and sold at the end increases the self-relevance. Since they are investing their own personality and preferences into the object they are producing we find further support for their engagement as craft consumers (Campbell, 2005). Their craftwork during the product creation and promotion of this contest enables them to engage in a creative, authentic and self-expressive activity (Campbell, 2005). This furthermore allows the increase of perceived brand authenticity as explained by Bertilsson and Cassinger (2010). This authentic self-expression through a creation was indicated by John in the following excerpt:

> *"[Q: Is your burger representing you in some way?] That is a good question, but isn't something you create always representing the designer and his creativity? I think so." [John, mid 40's]*

The reflection upon the general contest furthermore brought about feedback considering the design of the contest. Some participants were so involved in the contest itself that, although we did not explicitly asked for it, they mentioned detailed points of improvement. What was noticeable was that especially both respondents who stated dissatisfaction due to manipulation and community engagement were the ones who offered an alternative contest concept.

"[…] I would have suggested that McDonalds for the next time should only allow five burgers per person and make the jury 25 people who should review all burgers and the double creations can be filtered out through a software and those remaining will be read through by the jury who then collects 100 out of which the fans can vote. A random generator will be rotating on the page so you will not see the top voted once at first… and at the end you can do it like they are doing it now, the top 5 will come in a final round to be test cooked and sold and out of those the best should be voted for… That is how I would create a fair 'Mein Burger'." [John, mid 40's]

"I think that semi-popstars and former nazi's (McHaudegen) should be excluded from a contest like this because they only want to increase their popularity with it. Furthermore the mechanics of the game would need to be optimized so that people without a strong community would have a chance as well. Maybe enable Facebook ads, teaser, banner, or PreRollAdds." [George, 32]

<u>*Participation in Contest Phase 2*</u>

As the contest continues in the second phase with the voting for the Taste-Winner among the five selected finalists, we found that many respondents lost interest in the overall contest as there seems to be no personal relevance for them anymore. Only a couple interviewees showed their involvement by mentioning their further engagement in the second contest phase.

" […] I also wrote under the announcement of the Lauginator, that I will try all burgers, but will not vote on any of them. Yes, I think that McDonalds did not act enough and that the terms and conditions of the game should be adapted in the future.." [John, mid 40's]

"[Q: Did you check the other burgers?] No
But I will try all burgers of the finalists." [Ryan, 21]

The respondents who primarily encountered the 'Escapist Experiences' (Gilmore and Pine, 1998) due to their active participation and willingness to promote and share their creation through immersion are now moving into the realm of 'Entertainment Experiences' (Ibid.). Their participation becomes rather passive and for themselves, meaning they absorb this part of the experience in this second stage of the contest. This shows through the statements of the respondents who were the only ones mentioning the next stage of the competition and merely expressed their intention to "try" the finalist creations without voting for them.

The lack of motivation to actively engage in the following steps can be related to lower personal relevance possibly due to perceived lower authenticity of the products as well as the realization that their power of co-determination is limited and there is no further reward of an achievable prize. A possible lower perceived authenticity of the products can come from the fact that these final burgers are not

created by themselves and have the backing up from large communities, making it impersonal. Besides, the involving elements of Novelty, Surprise and Engagement which exceeds mere entertainment (Poulsson and Kale, 2004) are wearing off. This wear off can be explained by the resignation which already occurred during the experience stage of 'Review of Received Votes' as consequence of lacking 'Indirect Feedback from the Job' (Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit, 2011). Furthermore, the elapsed time between the announcement of the Top 20 and decision on the five finalists until the actual sale and voting for the Taste Winner can detach a participant from the following stages of the contest.

Re-participation

Regardless of minor dissatisfaction with parts of the contest, the feedback on intended participation for the next McDonalds 'Mein Burger' contest was in general positive. The majority of interviewees would participate again, while some would only engage if something about the contest itself or the incentive would be adapted or the outside community would wish for the participation as part of the group. When asked if they would participate again our respondents answered:

> *"Sure [..]*
> *I don't have anything to lose with it and can profit by getting on TV for example.. so that's why I would participate again." [Ryan, 21]*

> *"Maybe… but in order to participate again I would need a bigger incentive. Or a different regularisation." [George, 32]*

> *"I would not participate at McDonalds anymore, except my people would push me to do it, but I would always point out the possibility to manipulate and that we should always be fair. Maybe at another company, because I have no experience there so far." [John, mid 40's]*

These statements and the opinion of the participants are inseparable from their perceived contribution, expectations and subsequent reward, which will be explained more detailed in the following.

Contribution and Return

As we believe the consumer perception of his contribution to the company impacts the overall evaluation and intended re-participation we were interested in their expectations for the contest. Most interviewees felt that they contributed something to McDonalds. These contributions ranged from advertising to idea submission. Mainly the contribution of advertising came forward as a finding throughout the interviews. Although half of our respondents reflected upon their role as advertisers by themselves, none of them stated a negative feeling of 'being used' by the company.

"Maybe from a marketing point of view yes. But not consciously. I didn't really care." [George, 32]

"Yes sure I made advertising for the action... On my blog and on Facebook etc.!
[Q: And what do you think about it that you made advertising for McDonalds?]
I don't think it's bad. You often do that unconsciously to advertise for other brands. If I recommended deodorant to a friend etcetera. And it was not a bad action so I didn't mind to make advertising for it." [Laura, 27]

Other contributions center around the awareness that the participant data and idea submissions can be used by the company to generate profit. As also seen within the use of participants as advertisers there is no negative feeling regarding this participant-utilization.

"Hmmmmm… well if my burger would be on the McDonalds menu one day, then McDonalds would have received my contribution without spending money on it and without giving me as creator any reward. It is a clever thing, this competition. And if my burger would be on the menu, it would be enough for me to know that it was my creation. No one else would care. Names are just shallow." [John, mid 40's]

"Well at least I somehow was engaged with their products even if I'm just a small fish, They could see what I as a customer would expect from my burger so that probably was useful for them.." [Julia, 26]

When asked to further reflect upon this, two of our respondents became aware of a dissatisfaction which they then shared with us. Our respondent Julia for example developed a strong opinion about this, once she was encouraged to rethink her contribution and received return.

"well – it's like this, one sits down and spends time doing something for a million-dollar-company of which people with a realistic expectation can't expect anything of.. but they are using the data for something, otherwise they wouldn't do it... so they could have at least given away some vouchers for a small milkshake or crap like that, they could have done something as it doesn't really cost them anything to it- it's not like a million people would simultaneously want to get their milkshake.. statistically speaking only few people who get a voucher actually use it, especially if it is only a code or something to print out like that, most people think it's too much effort to print or that the code might be wrong and they don't want to embarrass themselves- but at least one would have thought that it pays off in some way .. or that they are recognizing it [your participation] ..I mean it would have been [just] a soft drink they are selling for one euro" [Julia, 26]

Moreover, when asking Ryan, who reflected on his engagement as advertiser for McDonalds, he expressed that he felt slightly being taken advantage of.

> *"A little booby [consolation] prize for all participants shouldn't have been a problem and if it's only a little cheeseburger but every participant advertises so to say."[Ryan, 21]*

Nevertheless he would participate again, as he views this crowdsourcing action more as a gamble than a real contest.

> *"I don't have anything to lose with it and can profit by getting on TV for example.. so that's why I would participate again." [Ryan, 21]*

As other participants share this opinion regarding the characteristic of the contest being more of a "gamble" than a contest, their expectations were in general unspecific and their participation was only motivated by fun.

> *"[Q: Do you think you got something in return for your participation?] No. [Q: Does that bother you?] Not really... at the end it is just a gamble in which you can lose as well. [Q: What did you expect out of the competition?] That I would win and everyone would eat my burger ;) [Q: Were you disappointed that you did not make it?] No maybe I was brought back to reality a bit."[George, 32]*

Attitude towards company

In the previous we explained our findings that the overall experience and feelings relating to the 'Mein Burger 2012' crowdsourcing contest are positive, but that there are some minor dissatisfactions. To find out how the contest influenced the participants' attitude towards McDonalds we asked them whether their attitude changed after their engagement. Most of the interviewees responded that after their participation, their attitude towards McDonalds are still the same. Thus, when asking whether their attitude changed these excerpts represents some of the answers:

> *Nope. McDonalds is unhealthy but jummie :D [Laura, 27]*

> *McDonalds is and remains the restaurant I trust. As these games are usually conducted by third parties, the McDonalds employees in marketing are not really thinking about them in my opinion. In case of complaints information/reactions of consumers on the Facebook wall those are only forwarded to McDonalds. [John, mid 40s]*

> *"Hmm I am anyhow still preferring Burger King :D*

Well I mean, I was allowed to eat for free in the McDonalds restaurants close by :D for two or three times :D they all knew who I was :D [Q: So your attitude did not change not even a little bit?] Nah :D I just go there because I don't have a Burger King close by :D" [David, 17]

As shown, these interviewees still think and feel the same about McDonalds. This finding is surprising as some of the interviewees also expressed their dissatisfaction with certain contest elements. However, they were in general positive about their experience and feelings in the contest, meaning that these feelings overruled their dissatisfactions. This can also come from the finding that most of these interviewees did not state specific expectations considering the contest in the first place. Hence, as there were no real expectations they could not be dissatisfied, leaving their feeling towards McDonalds to be the same as they were before participating. Moreover, the perception interviewees have of the company influenced their expectations. As shown by the excerpt of Julia, she views the company due to its size as unapproachable and made her expectations accordingly.

"Haha I just wanted to say that- I have not even checked what I can win ... But as it is McDonalds and they are stingy it wouldn't have been much …
[...] it's like this, one sits down and spends time doing something for a million-dollar-company of which people with a realistic expectation can't expect anything of.." [Julia, 26]

5.4 Action

An extra finding, which is not covered by our research questions, came out of our interviews and as we aimed to bring insight to Consumer Identity Projects as well we want to state this unexpected discovery. The finding is, that the participation in the crowdsourcing contest can lead to real life action. This additional contest related activity extends the experience of the encountered contest and transfers the engagement into the consumers' offline life. The action, based on the contest, led three participants to undertake a product creation on their own. As shown in the following excerpts some participants decided to buy the ingredients, based on their burger creation, and recreate it for themselves and friends at home.

*"[…] the bad thing is, that you thereby are getting really hungry... like me now *laugh* [Q: I can imagine. How do you feel about your created burger?] I think of it very highly because I can rebuild it at home and it tastes good... my friends also confirmed that, when I made it for a barbeque party... hehehe…"* [John, mid 40s]

"I would have been happy if it would have made to the finals.. since this sadly didn't work out I decided to make it myself and went out and bought all the ingredients at Metro for example and prepared it myself at home and I still do once in a while when I have guests over." [Ryan, 21]

Thus because of their participation in the contest these participant were triggered to get the ingredients they chose for their online burger creation themselves and make it at home for themselves and friends. This stage of the extended experience reflects Poulsson and Kale's (2004) experiment elements of Learning and Engagement. We relate Learning to the capability of the own burger creation at home, as the participants were inspired by their online creation and learned what to include when making the product in real life. According to Poulsson and Kale (2004) Learning adds a certain richness to the experience which increases the participant's Engagement. Task and skill were balanced and the respondents felt able to make their own burgers. The thereby increased Engagement can furthermore strengthen the level of personal relevance and perceived interactivity of the overall experience.

The participants acted as the crowdsourcing contest made them feel hungry and curious about their own online creation. Because the contest would not allow them to fulfill their hunger and curiosity they undertook action. This action expresses their use value (Humphreys and Grayson, 2008), of satisfying intrinsic motivations which relate to constructs of 'Task Identity' and 'Direct Feedback from the Job' of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011). Hence, by making the burger themselves they feel like they still got a tangible result from their work and thereby they fulfilled their motive of 'Task Identity'. Besides, in this way they also fulfilled the motive of 'Direct Feedback from the Job' as by creating their own burger they got for themselves a sense of achievement. As these consumers decide after their participation in the crowdsourcing contest to take control and make their own individual burger these consumers can be seen as fully embracing their role as craft consumers (Campbell, 2005). In line with Campbell (Ibid.) these consumers decided to reject the existing options and choose instead to 'craft' the product themselves. Hence, they are craft consumers as they exercised control over all the processes involved, from design of the product to making the end result themselves.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

In this chapter the findings, their relevance and contribution for each research question are discussed, after which the conclusion of this study is stated. Moreover, the contributions are presented according to their theoretical utilization. Finally, the limitations of this study and suggestions for future research are given.

6.1 Discussion of Consumer Motives

The aim of the first research question was to answer what motivates consumers to participate in a crowdsourcing contest in the FMCG industry. The rich interview data which we collected allowed us to answer this research question, showing that in line with existing crowdsourcing studies (Brabham, 2008b, online; 2010; Leimeister, Huber, Bretschneider and Krcmar, 2009; Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit, 2011) participants of the 'Mein Burger' FMCG crowdsourcing contest are motivated by a mixture of both intrinsic and extrinsic motives. The intrinsic motivations for the 'Mein Burger' FMCG contest are 'Fun', 'Co-determination', and 'Joining the Mainstream', while the extrinsic motivations are 'Prize' and 'For His Own Community'. In accordance with Zhen, Li and Hou (2011) the intrinsic motives are stronger than the extrinsic motives, meaning that consumers are mainly driven to participate by intrinsic motives. This entails that the consumer is above all participating as the task holds a certain intrinsic interest for him, which can come from an appeal of novelty, challenge, or aesthetic value for that consumer (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Hence, the motive to participate to achieve something (e.g. a reward) separable from the crowdsourcing task is less strong. As it was expressed by all participants, especially the intrinsic motive of 'Fun' is dominant, thereby supporting Füller's (2010) study in which it is argued that the main reason to participate in co-creation is to have fun through satisfying the intellectual interest or curiosity. However, besides the motive of 'Fun' it was person specific which other motives led to participation.

In the theme of intrinsic motivation three of the found motives are related to categories of 'Enjoyment Based Motivation' and 'Community Based Motivation' of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011). Both dimensions of intrinsic motivations connect to the Marxist 'use value' (1867/2001), since the participant is motivated to create something for himself or his community instead of aiming for an exchange value. The motive of 'Fun', meaning that consumers participate to enjoy or entertain themselves, is clearly related to the 'Enjoyment Based' category. Finding this motive is not surprising as it has been as well a result in other crowdsourcing contest studies of Brabham (2008b, online) and Ipeirotis (2010). However, it is interesting that in line with Füller (2010) this motive to entertain oneself by participating is the

strongest among all participants. This shows that within the 'Mein Burger 2012' FMCG crowdsourcing contest having 'Fun' is the most important reason to participate. The consumer wants to entertain himself by configuring their online idea creation. This motive of 'Fun' shows as well a feature of craft consumption in which the consumer is looking for an aesthetic dimension in consumption for 'fun and play' (Rogan, 1998 in Campbell, 2005). However, as this contest is an idea-generation contest we would have expected that in line with Brabham (2008b, online) the creative element would also be an important aspect for consumers, but it did not show as a motivation in the interviews. Interesting is that this feeling of fun is not specifically generated by fulfilling a need for being creative. A possible reason for why consumers were not motivated by the creativity aspect is that they could feel like the contest did not allow for too much creativity in the contest design.

The other intrinsic motive of 'Co-determination' is as well related to the 'Enjoyment Based' category and can to a certain extent be associated with the constructs of 'Direct Feedback', 'Task Identity' and 'Task Authenticity' of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011). Even though this motive of 'Co-determination' can be loosely related to these constructs, we rather see it as a new motive which, to the best of our knowledge, has not been found in other studies. A consumer with this motive participates because he is not satisfied with the current situation or status quo and would therefore like to change it for the self. Thus instead of being a passive consumer, in this motive we clearly see the newly taken role of the postmodern consumer in line with Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004a/b) as one who is active and wants to exercise influence on the business system. As consumers are not satisfied with the available choices they interact with the firm to co-create value. Through co-creating brand value these consumers exercise power over the brand and thus fulfill the role of consumer agents (Muniz and O'Guinn (2001). Moreover, the co-creation of value is an individual experience in which a consumer invests his personality in crafting an idea (Campbell, 2005), thereby it has a personal relevance for the participant (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004a/b).

The last intrinsic motive of 'Joining the Mainstream' is interesting as it is relating to the category of 'Community Based Motivation' of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011), however it does not fit to any of the constructs within it. Consumers with this motive participate in the FMCG crowdsourcing contest as others are doing so. This does not mean that they socialize with these other participants or comply to their norms and values. It rather means that they are following the mainstream or community because in this way they feel they belong to something bigger. Therefore, we argue that this motive still belongs to the category of 'Community Based Motivation', but is a new motive within this category. In line with Huberman (2008) we argue that consumers with this motive are participating because others are doing so. This motive is additionally supported by Simmel (1904) since we as well argue that this imitating

behavior is a way through which consumers receive some individual satisfaction of not standing alone. Hence, following Thompson and Arnould (2005) and Arvidsson (2008) the consumers who are expressing this motive participate as a way of self-expression in which they gain a form of identity establishment for themselves. Thus, participants who are motivated by 'Joining the Mainstream' are doing it for themselves as they get by participating a feeling of belonging to the crowd. In our study the participants did not express the other constructs/motives of 'Community Identification' and 'Social Contact' of the category of 'Community Based Motivation'. However, we believe this is due to the design of the researched FMCG crowdsourcing contest. This contest platform did not allow communication among participants, but was rather focused on individual idea-creations. Therefore, an online contest community was not established. We want to point out that even though we did not find these intrinsic motives this does not mean that participants in other FMCG crowdsourcing contests will not have them.

In the theme of extrinsic motivation we merely found two motives, namely 'Prize' and 'For His Own Community'. When relating these motivations to the model of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011) they can be linked to the categories of 'Immediate Payoffs' and 'Social Motivation'. However, this means that the other category of 'Delayed Payoffs' was not supported with our study. None of the motives expressed by participants in the researched FMCG crowdsourcing contest was relating to this category. Hence, none of the consumers was motivated to participate because of benefits which could be strategically used in their future. However, we believe that this is due to the nature of this specific researched FMCG crowdsourcing contest, which was open for amateurs and did not require any special skills. This means that no special skills which could lead to delayed payoffs could be shown through participating, making this motive for this specific research neglectable. However, we want to specify that this does not mean that this motive could not be found in other FMCG crowdsourcing contests, especially in which special skills are shown through participating.

Not surprisingly an extrinsic motive to participate in the researched contest was 'Prize'. Many crowdsourcing studies found this extrinsic participant motive, but relate it solely to monetary rewards (Leimeister, Huber, Bretschneider and Krcmar, 2009; Brabham, 2008b, online; 2010; Ipeirotis, 2010; Organisciak, 2008). In this researched crowdsourcing contest the prize was a non-monetary reward. Thus, in line with Leimeister, Huber, Bretschneider and Krcmar (2009) we argue that the prize can be a monetary or non-monetary reward. This motive can be directly related to the category of 'Immediate Payoffs' of the model of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011). However, in their model they only recognize 'Payment' as construct within the category of 'Immediate Payoffs'. Hence, we argue that this construct needs to be changed to 'Prize', meaning that an immediate payoff can be monetary and/or non-monetary or that another construct reflecting the non-monetary prize is added to the category.

The other extrinsic motive of 'For His Own Community' explains the motive to participate because the consumer wants to give something to his own community separate from the crowdsourcing contest community. Hence, it is an extrinsic motive as the participant is not participating for himself but instead wants to give something to his own community. To the best of our knowledge other crowdsourcing contest studies did not find this motive, thereby it is a new found motive. However, we argue that we can relate this motive to the 'Social Motivation' category of the model of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011) as it shows that the participant is socially motivated from outside the platform community. Out of the constructs of the category of 'Social Motivation' we can only relate it to the construct called 'Indirect Feedback from the Job' as the consumer by sharing the contest with his own community can get feedback from it. Thereby, this consumer also strengthens his role in this community, meaning that in line with Arvidsson (2005) he achieves recognition from his community. The other constructs called 'Action Significance by External Values' and 'Action Significance by External Obligations and Norms' are not shown in the motive of 'For His Own Community' as the consumer does not participate because the values of the community are important for him and he does not participate because he is obliged to. Instead the consumer participates solely to give something to enjoy for his own community. Hence, we argue that in the model of Kaufmann, Schulze and Veit (2011) this motivation could be coupled to the construct of 'Indirect Feedback from the Job'.

6.2 Discussion of Consumer Experiences and Attitudes towards the Brand

In our second research question we aimed at the discovery of the effect that consumer experiences of their crowdsourcing contest participation have on their attitude relating to the brand. When analyzing the respondent data we noticed that the participants did not change their attitude towards the brand. We were able to interview participants with individually different attitudes towards the brand from the beginning on and furthermore gained insights from participants who achieved different results in the contest. Therefore, we believe to be able to properly answer this question for the analyzed crowdsourcing contest.

Surprisingly the attitude towards the brand or company itself did not change positively or negatively due to the participants' engagement in the crowdsourcing contest. When a consumer experienced negative feelings he directed those towards the contest instead of the brand. Therefore, we see a separation in how the consumer evaluates the contest and how he perceives the brand itself after participating. The consumers' brand perception seems to remain untouched from the encountered contest, which detaches the company and its brand from the overall experience and disables effects on the brand. So far we were not able to relate this 'separation phenomenon' to existing literature. Cova and Dalli (2009) state a

negative influence on the brand perception after a crowdsourcing participant had negative experiences during the co-creation process. Therefore, we were surprised to find that even participants who were dissatisfied with certain elements of the contest did not change their attitude towards the company or brand based on their discontent. Important to add here is that the overall event was still regarded as positive, regardless minor dissatisfactions.

Despite this possibility of disconnection of contest and company or brand we still argue for the occurrence of actual co-creation of brand value due to an undeniable interaction with the brand and a high degree of consumer involvement (Vargo and Lusch, 2004; Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2000; 2004a/b). As Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2000; 2004a/b) state, value is already co-created through the encountering of personalized experiences which are unique to each individual consumer. Although the conscious effect on their brand perception remains unchanged, the found extent of personal relevance of the encountered experience and the engagement speak for the space the brand takes up in a participant's life.

Experience

The realms of experience regarding the analyzed crowdsourcing contest are reflected upon by the theoretical groundwork of Gilmore and Pine (1998). Our interviewed participants did not vary much in their initial realm of experience, as most of them were encountering an 'Escapist-Experience'. As already stated earlier the only two respondents which could be placed within the 'Educational-Experience' and the 'Esthetic-Experience' were recruited through our social network. Since the initially active and immersing participants of the 'Escapist-Experience' realm turned into passively absorbing contest participants, they moved into the realm of 'Entertainment-Experience' during the second phase of the contest. Therefore, we can affirm the relevance of Gilmore and Pine's model with all of the four realms of experience for our case.

The role a participant takes during his engagement is described as value co-creator (for example Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2000; 2002; 2004a/b). Since the actual creation of their product in the experience shows the focus towards a self centered 'use value' and not a production in order to achieve an 'exchange value', they would rather be characterized as consumers in line with Marx (1867/2001) definition of the term. Nevertheless, we see their participation as interaction with a brand, which results in the co-creation of additional brand value. Their individual experience and ideation contribution as well as further contest engagement clearly speaks for their active co-creation as in line with Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2000; 2004a/b), Vargo and Lusch (2004) and Arvidsson (2008). We thereby support Humphreys and Grayson (2008), in their view that the consumer creation and intrinsic motivation towards a use value does not

change their fundamental role in the economic system. Especially when considering the fact that the product of the consumer labor is sold by a *company* who generates profit there from. Although the participants are motivated by achieving a use value, they simultaneously take over steps in the value chain and create exchange value for the company, which makes them so called 'prosumers' (Humphreys and Grayson, 2008).

When discussing the most important elements of experiences the element of Personal Relevance, which was emphasized by Poulsson and Kale (2004), comes out as most eminent. When participants perceive a lower personal relevance their involvement decreases and changes their degree of engagement in the contest. As pointed out in our analysis we found this decrease as soon as people reviewed how many votes were submitted for their creations. This can be related to their motivation of co-determination, which was not satisfied as they realized their impact was relatively low. Since consumers seek to to help design value of the products they use and want their voices to be heard (Ramaswamy and Gouillard, 2010) a negative setback of this wish leads to a lower involvement. The perceived empowerment plays an important role when participants estimate the personal relevance of a crowdsourcing contest experience. The concept of perceived relative power, as introduced by Füller, Mühlbacher, Matzler and Jawecki (2010), emphasizes the empowerment as strengthening a consumer's perception of self-determination and self-efficacy, thereby linking it to personal relevance. They furthermore acknowledge that a sense of powerlessness leads to a lack of responsibility and therefore also de-motivation. This concept can help to explain the observed decrease in the interest to further follow the contest and should not be underestimated as it directly links to a possible source of dissatisfaction and maybe even disappointment. An individual experience which is characterized by an increased level of self-determination, efficacy and therefore empowerment can lead to increased trust in the empowering organization and consequently increase the motivation of the consumer to repeat the empowered behavior (Ibid.). Although most respondents would participate again as the experience was still regarded as 'Fun' and therefore fulfilling their initial motivation to participate, the two respondents who stated they would not engage in this contest again can be related to this concept and possible re-participation. Since the experience element of engagement is constituted by active involvement due to a possibility to interact with the brand, which can increase concentration, interest and joy (Poulsson and Kale, 2004; Shernoff, Csikszentmihaiyi, Schneider and Shernoff, 2003) it can be also related to the just explained concept of consumer empowerment. The perceived possibility to interact relates to the consumer wish of being heard and having an impact like for example in co-determining the created products.

When discussing our findings we want to point out that none of the respondents mentioned the experience elements of Novelty and Surprise. This leads us to evaluating the crowdsourcing contest engagement in

general, with regard to the possibility that it is developing into a hype in the FMCG industry. Crowdsourcing has reached a stage in which everyone is easily enabled to conduct his own crowdsourcing measure, which increases the danger of consumer rejection due to overexposure in general. Our respondents clearly mentioned that they do not want to bother or spam their friends with voting requests. Therefore, we see the probability that the positive spinoff effects, which are usually generated when consumers share their participation experiences through their social network online, are likely to turn into reluctance when their numbers increase and is perceived as spam. According to Hubermann (2008) the dynamics of collective attention are constituted by two competing effects. First the increasing number of contacts, paying attention to content, and second the habituation which makes the content less attractive over a longer time period. This would result in the loss of one of the greatest benefits for consumer brand companies, as future spinoffs, due to the exposure over a certain time period were proven to exceed the value of direct spinoffs (Pater, 2009, online).

The consumer awareness of spamming and the adversary against the all-encompassing brandspace are encouraging us to take a more critical perspective on the phenomenon of crowdsourcing contests in general. As more and more companies are using this tool to involve their customers and increase brand awareness the danger of overexposure and consumer reluctance increases as the Novelty and Surprise element would decrease. Consumers are increasingly reflecting upon their role as participants and as our respondents already state, are becoming aware of their utilization as advertisers for the company. Although our interviewees did not regard it as negative, this might change in the future. Some respondents already realized a certain degree of exploitation and we believe that consumers are becoming more aware of their contribution and the deprivation of a compensating return. This could lead to a point in which consumers perceive these experiences as a way of exploitation, like described by Zwick, Bonsu and Darmody (2008), who see the concept of co-creation in general as a continuously emerging way of exploitation of consumer labor.

Attitude and Feelings towards the Brand

The explained concepts of our theoretical framework as well as the theory on consumer empowerment closely interrelate with the concept of authenticity. Although authenticity is, according to Poulsson and Kale (2004), part of the element of Personal Relevance in which consumers are able to express their personality, it can be related to the brand as well. The trust in the empowering organization (Füller, Mühlbacher, Matzler and Jawecki, 2010) could increase the perceived level of brand authenticity and, if recognized by the participant, could lead to a positive influence on the feeling towards the brand. Bertilsson and Cassinger (2010) furthermore present brand authenticity, which is produced in the co-

creation process as possible explanation for the consumer participation in co-creational processes despite their awareness of the fact that their creation will be owned by the company who generate profit from it.

For our case in particular, in which 'Fun' was identified as main motivator across the participants, we could not see a dissatisfaction considering their initial motivation. They were looking for a fun entertainment and this is what they got out of their participation. Therefore, the overall evaluation of the experience was positive. Elements of the experience which were regarded dissatisfactory did not change this overall assessment, and therefore did not impact their opinion about the brand. This insight is to some extent contradicting to the findings of Cova and Dalli (2009). Their study showed a negative impact on the attitude towards the company due to critical incidents during the experience, although the consumers actually enjoyed the co-creation and the recognition of the company and community. We believe that one of the main reasons for the unchanged attitude towards the company lies in the initial expectations of the participants when entering the contest. Since firstly the respondents did not expect anything serious out of their participation except of fun and secondly the McDonalds company and brand seem to be regarded as somehow distant and untouchable.

6.3 Conclusion

In this study we identified a gap in the existing literature surrounding the consumer perspective in co-creation and more specific in crowdsourcing ideation-contests in the FMCG industry. In order to fill this gap we researched the consumers' motivations to participate in a FMCG crowdsourcing contest, their experience during this contest, and their attitudes towards the brand afterwards. Hence, our aim was to answer the following research questions:

- What motivates consumers to participate in a crowdsourcing contest in the FMCG industry?
- How do consumers' experiences of crowdsourcing contest participation affect their attitudes related to the brand?

We researched one successful FMCG crowdsourcing contest of McDonalds, which is called 'Mein Burger 2012'. By conducting semi-structured IM interviews with seven contest participants we were able to collect rich interview data. However, first a theoretical lens was created by using existing theories which supported us in interpreting our interview data. For this theoretical lens we explored what a crowdsourcing contest is and related it to different concepts like open innovation and co-creation. Moreover, we explored the crowdsourcing contest phenomenon with support of the CCT and the concept

of Social Production in an Ethical Economy. Finally, we applied an existing motivation model relating to crowdsourcing and incorporated concepts relating to consumer experiences. With these theories we created our own theoretical lens which enabled us to systematically interpret the interview data, which allowed us to answer the research questions.

Our findings are that consumers show a mixture of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations, wherein intrinsic motives are more dominant. The intrinsic motive of 'Fun' is expressed by all the interviewees and is therefore the strongest motive. However, as well other intrinsic motives were found like 'Co-determination' and 'Joining the Mainstream'. We also found the extrinsic motives of 'Prize' and 'For His Own Community'. When it comes to the effect of the crowdsourcing experience on the consumers attitude towards the brand we found that the participants tended to distinguish between the encountered experience of the crowdsourcing contest and the conducting brand and did not change their initial attitude. Within the encountered experience participants were mainly involved through the elements of Personal Relevance and Engagement.

Extra findings out of the scope of the research questions derived from the interview data. Main insights were that the participants showed a realization of their employment as brand advertisers and that their promotion throughout their social network can be perceived as spam. We furthermore discovered that the encountered online contest experience of respondents leads to real life action in which the participants compensate for their unsatisfied needs.

6.4 Theoretical Contribution

This study is a contribution to the under researched field of the consumer perspective in crowdsourcing and more specifically crowdsourcing contests in the FMCG industry. Within the crowdsourcing contest phenomenon we distinguish two perspectives, the optimistic and critical perspective. The findings of this study support and contribute to both perspectives. Although we found minor indicators which are supporting researchers following the critical perspective, these were overruled by findings supporting the optimistic view. Even though our respondents showed minor dissatisfactions which are reflecting the critical perspective, they nevertheless evaluated their participation and the contests in general positively. We contributed to the optimistic perspective as in line with Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004a/b) we found that consumers value the co-creation aspect of the crowdsourcing ideation-contest which allows them to embrace their role of empowered and self-determined postmodern consumers. This study also contributes to the so far mainly theory based critical perspective through its findings and insights

considering postmodern and advertising averse consumers and their reflection upon their unrewarded employment as advertisers and ideators.

Furthermore, we are able to add insights to the CCT regarding Arvidsson's (2008) concepts on Social Production and Ethical Economy, relating to consumer self-expression, identity establishment, recognition from a community and the consumption of experiences. Our contribution to the research domain of Consumer Identity Projects within CCT consists of the findings relating to consumer motives and perceptions in experiential consumption. The findings of this study are supporting the applicability of existing concepts of consumer motivation to engage in crowdsourcing contests for the FMCG industry. Our found motives support to a certain extent previous motivation studies but also add new insights. Relating to the under researched field of experiential consumption of crowdsourcing contests we were able to give insights to the relevance of certain experience elements and the experience environment. Moreover, we connected initial consumer expectations to experience outcomes and thereby discovered its potential for further research.

Finally we would like to state the possible transferability of insights of our research to other disciplines which give priority to the analysis of motivations of individuals to engage in experiences and their perception of their participation. Therefore, we see the relation of our study to the fields of Business, Psychology, Sociology and Anthropology.

6.5 Limitations and Future Research

In this study we were able to answer the research questions and bring new insights into the phenomena of consumer participation in crowdsourcing contests in the FMCG industry. However, we do acknowledge that this study has certain limitations and future research is needed. First of all, even though our sample reflects variety regarding respondents' gender, age and profession it is a relatively small sample of seven respondents. With a larger sample we could possibly find more support for our found themes and/or find more themes or categories. Besides, the respondents were mostly found due to their approachability through online promotions (except for two participants), meaning that the respondents mainly reflect involved contest participants. Having mainly actively engaged contest participants could have influenced our findings relating to their motives, experiences and attitudes to the contest and brand. Thus future research in consumer participation in crowdsourcing contests in the FMCG industry should have a larger sample consisting of participants with different levels of involvement. Secondly, we researched solely one contest in the FMCG industry. This focus on a contest in the FMCG industry also means that these

findings are specific for crowdsourcing contests in this industry. Therefore, the transferability to other industries is limited. Besides, we researched only one contest in one country which can result in findings which are only representing this particular contest. To get a better understanding of the phenomenon of consumer participation in crowdsourcing contests in the FMCG industry and to see whether our findings withstand in future research, multiple crowdsourcing contests across several countries should be conducted. Our findings could be culturally biased, meaning that the found motives, experiences and feelings can be culturally specific. Still we see the transferability to consumers in so called 'hot societies' of western, developed countries in which crowdsourcing contests become particularly relevant (Levi-Strauss 1966; 233). Nevertheless, we want to point out that our findings should be related to consumer research within societies which are culturally close.

Even though this study brings more insight into the research field of consumer participation in crowdsourcing contests more research is needed. In the existing literature surrounding crowdsourcing contests there is still a gap regarding the consumer perspective; therefore we request more research in this field. Future research in how consumer expectations affect their brand feelings after participating in the contest will be interesting, as this can give organizations insight on how to manage consumer expectations. As we found the new insight that participation can lead to actions as well, further research on this topic is needed. Moreover, gaining a better understanding of consumer motivations, experiences and attitudes in general considering their participation in crowdsourcing contests will be helpful for organizations which want to organize crowdsourcing contests. Lastly, we request research on consumer feelings about crowdsourcing contests as we expect that the novelty of crowdsourcing contests will wear-off, leading to consumers being more reluctant against participating in contests. Hence, we believe that even though this study shows that consumers are still mainly positive, consumers in future research could be more critical and reflective.

References

Aaker, D.A. (1996). *Building Strong Brands*. New York: The Free Press.

Aitamurto, T., Leiponen, A., and R. Tee (2011). The Promise of Idea Crowdsourcing – Benefits, Contexts, Limitations. *Nokia – White Paper June 2011*, pp. 1-30.

Alvesson, M. (2003). Beyond Neopositivists, Romantics, and Localists: A Reflexive Approach to Interviews in Organizational Research. *The Academy of Management Review*, 28(1), pp. 13-33.

Alvesson, M. and S. Deetz (2000). *Doing Critical Management Research*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Alvesson, M. and K. Sköldberg (2009). Reflexive Methodology: New Vistas for Qualitative Research. 2nd Edition. London: Sage.

Amabile, T.M., Hill, K.G., Hennessey, B.A., and E.M. Tighe (1994). The Work Preference Inventory: Assessing Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivational Orientations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 66(5), pp. 950-967.

Archak, N. and A. Sundararajan (2009). Optimal Design of Crowdsourcing Contests. *ICIS 2009 Proceedings.* Paper 200.

Arnould, E. J. and L.L. Price (2000). Authenticating acts and authoritative performances: questing for self and community in Ratneshwar, S., Mick, D, and C. Huffman (2003), *The why of consumption contemporary perspectives on consumer motives, goals, and desires,* New York: Routledge Press.

Arvidsson, A. (2005). Brands : A critical perspective. *Journal of Consumer Culture*, 5, pp. 235-258.

Arvidsson, A. (2008). The Ethical Economy of Customer Coproduction. *Journal of Macromarketing*, 28, pp. 326-338.

Bertilsson, J. and C. Cassinger (2010). Governing Consumers through Freedom: A Theoretical Discussion of the Co-creation Branding Paradigm. *European Advances in Consumer Research,* 9, pp. 1-5.

Bourdieu, P. (1990). *In Other Words: Towards a Reflexive Sociology*, Cambridge: Polity Press.

Brabham, D.C. (2008a). Crowdsourcing as a Model for Problem Solving. *The International Journal of Research into New Media Technologies: an introduction and cases*, 14(1), pp. 75–90.

Brabham, D.C. (2010). Moving the Crowd at Threadless. *Information, Communication & Society*, 13(8), pp. 1122 - 1145.

Brabham, D. C. (in press; to be published June 2012). Crowdsourcing: A model for leveraging online communities. In A. Delwiche & J. J. Henderson (Eds.), *The participatory cultures handbook* (pp. 120-129). New York: Routledge.

Bryman, A. (1989). Research Methods and Organisation Studies in Saunders, M. and P. Lewis and A. Thornhill (2009). *Research methods for business students*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Bryman, A. and E. Bell (2011). *Business Research Methods,* New York: Oxford University Press.

Bröring, S and L.M. Cloutier (2008). The role of market alliances and customer supplier interfaces in innovations in the food industry. *British Food Journal. Special Issue on Value Analysis, Creation, and Delivery in Food and Agriculture Business-to-Business Marketing*, 110 (1), pp. 76-97.

Campbell, C. (2005). The Craft Consumer: Culture, craft and consumption in a postmodern society. *The Journal of Consumer Culture*, 5(1), pp. 23-42.

Chesbrough, H. (2003). *Open Innovation: The new imperative for creating and profiting from technology.* Boston, Massachusetts: Harvard Business School Press.

Chesbrough, H., Vanhaverbeke, W., and J. West (2006). *Open Innovation: Researching a New Paradigm.* New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

Christodoulides, G. (2009). Branding in the post-internet era. *Marketing Theory*, 9(1), pp. 141-144.

Cohen, E. (1989). Authenticity and commoditization in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research,*15, pp. 371-386.

Colaizzi, P. (1978). Psychological research as a phenomenologist views it in Valle, R. and M. King (1978). *Existential Phenomenological Alternatives for Psychology*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Cova, B. and Dalli, D. (2007). Community Made: From Consumer Resistance to Tribal Entrepreneurship in Cova, B. and D. Dalli (2009). Working consumers: the next step in marketing theory? *Marketing Theory*, 9, pp. 315-339.

Cova, B. and D. Dalli (2009). Working consumers: the next step in marketing theory? *Marketing Theory*, 9, pp. 315-339.

Davis, M., Bolding, G., Hard, G., Sherr, L. and J. Elford (2004). Reflecting on the experience of interviewing online: perspectives from the Internet and HIV study in London in Kazmer, M.M. and B. Xie (2008). Qualitative Interviewing in Internet Studies: Playing with the media, playing with the method. *Information, Communication & Society,* 11(2), pp. 257-278.

Druckery, T. (1996). *"Introduction," in Electronic Culture: Technology and Visual Representation*, ed. Timothy Druckery, New York: Aperture Foundation, pp. 12–25.

Easterby-Smith, M., R. Thorpe and P.R. Jackson (2008). *Management Research,* London: Sage Publications.

Euchner, J.A. (2010). The Limits of Crowds. *Research Technology Management*, Industrial Research Institute, Int., pp.7-8.

Filep, B. (2009). Interview and translation strategies: Coping with multilingual settings and data. *Social Geography Discussions*, 5, pp. 25-49.

Fisher, C. (2007). *Researching and Writing a Dissertation - A Guidebook for Business Students.* Harlow: Prentice Hall.

Firat, A.F. and A. Venkatesh (1995). Liberatory Postmodernism and the Reenchantment of Consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22, pp. 239-267.

Fournier, S. and J. Avery (2011). The uninvited brand. *Business Horizons*, 54, pp. 193-207.

Franke, N. and F. Piller (2004). Value Creation by Toolkits for User Innovation and Design: The Case of The Watch Market. *Journal of Product Innovation Management,* 21(6), pp. 401–415.

Frey, K., Lüthje, C., and S. Haag (2011). Whom Should Firms Attract to Open Innovation Platforms? The Role of Knowledge Diversity and Motivation. *Long Range Planning*, 44, pp. 397-420.

Füller, J. G., G. Jawecki, and H. Mühlbacher, (2007). Innovation creation by online basketball communities. *Journal of Business Research,* 60(1), pp. 60–71.

Füller, J. (2010). Refining virtual co-creation from a consumer perspective. *California Management Review*, 52(2), 98-123.

Füller, J., Mühlbacher, H., Matzler, K. and Jawecki, G. (2010). Consumer Empowerment Through Internet-Based Co-creation. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 26 (3), pp. 71–102.

Gassmann, O. and Enkel, E. (2004) Towards a theory of open innovation: three core process archetypes. *Proceedings of The R&D Management Conference*, Lisbon, Portugal, July 6–9.

Gabriel, Y. and T. Lang (2008). New Faces and New Masks of Today's Consumer in P ongsakornrungsilp, S. and J.E. Schroeder (2011). Understanding value co-creation in a co-consuming brand community. *Marketing Theory,* 11, pp. 303-332.

Goulding, C. (2005). A comparative analysis of three qualitative strategies for marketing research. *European Journal of Marketing*, (39; 3/4), pp. 294-308.

Gorz, A. (2003) L'immatériel. Paris: Galilée in Arvidsson, A. (2005). Brands : A critical perspective. *Journal of Consumer Culture* , 5, pp. 235-258.

Grayson, K. and R. Martinec (2004). Consumer Perceptions of Iconicity and Indexicality and Their Influence on Assessments of Authentic Market Offerings in Thompson, C. and E.J. Arnould (2005). Consumer Culture Theory (CCT): Twenty Years of Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31 (4), pp. 868-882.

Guba, E.G. and Y.S. Lincoln (1994). Competing Paradigm Research in Bryman, A. and E. Bell (2011). *Business Research Methods*. 3d edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Guest, G., Bunce, A. and L. Johnson (2006). How many interviews are enough?: an experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, 18(1), pp. 59–82.

Hackman, J., and G.R. Oldham (1980) Work redesign in Kaufmann, N., Schulze, T., and D. Veit (2011). More than fun and money. Worker Motivation in Crowdsourcing – A Study on Mechanical Turk. *Proceedings of the Seventeenth Americas Conference on Information Systems, Detroit, Michigan (August 4th-7th 2011)*, pp. 1-11.

Hanna, R., Rohm, A. and V.L. Crittenden (2011). We're all connected: The power of the social media ecosystem. *Business Horizons*, 54, pp. 265-273.

Harvest Communications. (2002). Fwd: This made me laugh: How viral ad parodies impact your brand in Fournier, S. and J. Avery (2011). The uninvited brand. *Business Horizons*, 54, pp. 193-207.

Hilgard, E.R. (1980). Impulsive Versus Realistic Thinking: An Examination of the Distinction Between Primary and Secondary Processes in Thought in Holbrook, M. B. and E. C. Hirschman (1982). The Experiential Aspects of Consumption: Consumer Fantasies, Feelings, and Fun. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(2), pp. 132-140.

Hoffman, D.L., and M. Fodor (2010). Can You Measure the ROI of Your Social Media Marketing? *MIT Sloan Management Review*. 52, pp.41-49.

Holt, D. B. (2002). Why Do Brands Cause Trouble? A Dialectical Theory of Consumer Culture and Branding in Thompson, C. and E.J. Arnould (2005). Consumer Culture Theory (CCT): Twenty Years of Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31(4), pp. 868-882.

Holbrook, M. B. and E. C. Hirschman (1982). The Experiential Aspects of Consumption: Consumer Fantasies, Feelings, and Fun. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(2), pp. 132-140.

Howe, J. (2006a). The Rise of Crowdsourcing. *WIRED*, 6(6), pp. 176-183.

Howe, J. (2008), *Crowdsourcing-Why the Power of the Crowd is driving the future of business*, New York: Three Rivers Press.

Hubermann, B.A. (2008). Web Technologies: Crowdsourcing and Attention. *Computer*, 41(11), pp. 103-105.

Hudson-Smith, A., Crooks, M.B.A. and R. Milton (2008). Mapping for the Masses: Accessing Web 2.0 through Crowdsourcing. *UCL Centre for Advanced Spatial Analysis - Working Paper Series - Paper 143*, pp. 1-18.

Humphreys, A. and K. Grayson, (2008). *The Intersecting Roles of Consumer and Producer: A Critical Perspective on Co-production, Co-creation and Prosumption.* Sociology Compass 2, Journal Compilation, Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Hycner, R.H. (1985). Some Guidelines for the Phenomenological Analysis of Interview Data. *Human Studies*, 8, pp. 279-303.

Ipeirotis, P. (2010). Demographics of Mechanical Turk. *CeDER-10–01 Working Paper*, New York University.

Jopling, D. (1996). Sub-phenomenology. *Human Studies*, 19(2), pp. 153-173.

Kambil, A. (2008). What is your Web 5.0 strategy? *Journal of Business Strategy,* 29(6), pp. 56-58.

Kaminski, J. (2009). Harnessing the Wave of Co-Creation. *Online Journal of Nursing Informatics*, 13 (3), pp. 1-7.

Kaplan, A.M. and M. Haenlein (2010). Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of Social Media. *Business Horizons*, 53, pp. 59-68.

Kaufmann, N., Schulze, T., and D. Veit (2011). More than fun and money. Worker Motivation in Crowdsourcing – A Study on Mechanical Turk. *Proceedings of the Seventeenth Americas Conference on Information Systems, Detroit, Michigan (August 4th-7th 2011)*, pp. 1-11.

Kazmer, M.M. and B. Xie (2008). Qualitative Interviewing in Internet Studies: Playing with the media, playing with the method. *Information, Communication & Society*, 11 (2), pp. 257-278.

Kietzmann, J.H., Hermkens, K., McCarthy, I.P. and B.S. Silvestre (2011). Social media? Get serious! Understanding the functional building blocks of social media. *Business Horizons,* 54, pp. 241-251.

Kozinets, R. V. (2001). Utopian Enterprise: Articulating the Meaning of Star Trek's Culture of Consumption in Thompson, C. and E.J. Arnould (2005). Consumer Culture Theory (CCT): Twenty Years of Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31 (4), pp. 868-882.

Kozinets, R. V. (2002). Can Consumers Escape the Market? Emancipatory Illuminations from Burning Man in Thompson, C. and E.J. Arnould (2005). Consumer Culture Theory (CCT): Twenty Years of Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31 (4), pp. 868-882.

Kozinets, R.V., Hemetsberger, A. and H.J. Schau (2008). The Wisdom of Consumer Crowds : Collective Innovation in the Age of Networked Marketing. *Journal of Macromarketing,* 28, pp. 339-354.

Kvale, S. (1996) Interviews: An Introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing in Kazmer, M.M. and B. Xie (2008). Qualitative Interviewing in Internet Studies: Playing with the media, playing with the method. *Information, Communication & Society*, 11(2), pp. 257-278.

Lakhani, K.R. and R.G. Wolf (2005). Why hackers do what they do: Understanding motivation and effort in free/open source software projects, *Perspectives on free and open source software,* MIT Press.

Laverty, S.M. (2003). Hermeneutic phenomenology and phenomenology: A comparison of historical and methodological consideration. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, Vol. 2 (3), pp. 1-29.

Leimeister, J., Huber, M., Bretschneider, U., and Krcmar, H. (2009) Leveraging Crowdsourcing: Activation-Supporting Components for IT-Based Ideas Competition, *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 26, 197–224

Levi-Strauss, C. (1966). The Savage Mind in McCracken, G. (1986). Culture and Consumption: A Theoretical Account of the Structure and Movement of the Cultural Meaning of Consumer Goods. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13 (1), pp. 71-84.

Lindenberg, S. (2001) Intrinsic Motivation in a New Light in Kaufmann, N., Schulze, T., and D. Veit (2011). More than fun and money. Worker Motivation in Crowdsourcing – A Study on Mechanical Turk. *Proceedings of the Seventeenth Americas Conference on Information Systems, Detroit, Michigan (August 4th-7th 2011)*, pp. 1-11.

Manovich, L. (2001) *The Language of the New Media*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Marchand, R. (1985) *Advertising the American Dream*. Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press.

Marx, K. (1939/1973). *The grundrisse*. London: Penguin.

Marx, Karl (1867/2001). *Capital: A Critique of Political Economy*. Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England. New York: Penguin Books in association with New Left Review.

Margolin, V. (2002). *The Politics of the Artificial. Essays on Design and Design Studies*. Chicago and London: The University of Chicago Press.

McClelland, D.A. (1965). Achievement and enterprise in Easterby-Smith, M., R. Thorpe and P.R. Jackson (2008). *Management Research,* London: Sage Publications.

Mick, D.G. and C. Buhl (1992). A Meaning-Based Model of Advertising Experiences in Thompson, C. and E.J. Arnould (2005). Consumer Culture Theory (CCT): Twenty Years of Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31 (4), pp. 868-882.

Muniz, A.M. and T.C. O'Guinn (2001). Brand Community. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, 27(4), pp. 412-432.

Murray, J. B. (2002). The Politics of Consumption: A Re-Inquiry on Thompson and Haytko's (1997) 'Speaking of Fashion in Thompson, C. and E.J. Arnould (2005). Consumer Culture Theory (CCT): Twenty Years of Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31(4), pp. 868-882.

Morse, J. (1994). Designing funded qualitative research in Guest, G., Bunce, A. & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough?: an experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, 18(1), pp. 59–82.

Orlikowski, W. and J.J. Baroudi (1991). Studying information technology in organizations: research approaches and assumptions. *Information Systems Research*, 2, pp. 1–28.

Penaloza, L. (2000). The Commodification of the American West: Marketers' Production of Cultural Meanings at a Trade Show in Thompson, C. and E.J. Arnould (2005). Consumer Culture Theory (CCT): Twenty Years of Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31 (4), pp. 868-882.

Penaloza, L. (2001), Consuming the American West: Animating Cultural Meaning at a Stock Show and Rodeo in Thompson, C. and E.J. Arnould (2005). Consumer Culture Theory (CCT): Twenty Years of Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31 (4), pp. 868-882.

Gilmore, J.H. and B.J. Pine (1998). Welcome to the Experience Economy. *Harvard Business Review*, 4, pp. 97-105.

Gilmore, J.H. and B.J. Pine (1999). The Experience Economy. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Pires, G.D., Stanton, J. and P. Rita (2006). The internet, consumer empowerment and marketing strategies. *European Journal of Marketing*, 40(9/10), pp. 936-949.

Pongsakornrungsilp, S. and J.E. Schroeder (2011). Understanding value co-creation in a co-consuming brand community. *Marketing Theory*, 11(3), pp. 303-324.

Poulsson, S.H. and S.H. Kale. (2004). The Experience Economy and Commercial Experiences. *The Marketing Review*, 4, pp. 267-277.

Prahalad, C.K. and V. Ramaswamy (2000). Co-opting Customer Competence. *Harvard Business Review,* 78(1), pp. 79-87.

Prahalad, C.K. and V. Ramaswamy (2002). The Co-Creation Connection. *Strategy + Business*, 27, pp. 1-12.

Prahalad, C.K. and V. Ramaswamy (2004a). *The Future of Competition: Co-creating Unique Value with Customers*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Prahalad, C.K. and V. Ramaswamy (2004b). Co-creating unique value with customers. *Strategy & Leadership*, 32 (3), pp. 4-9.

Prahalad C.K. and V. Ramaswamy (2004c). Co-creation Experiences: The Next Practice in Value Creation. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 18 (3), pp. 5-14.

Ramaswamy V. and F. Gouillard (2010). The Power of Co-Creation: Build it with Them to Boost Growth, Productivity, and Profits. New York: Free Press.

Rifkin, J. (2000), *The Age of Access* in Schau, H. J. and M.C. Gilly (2003). We Are What We Post? Self-Presentation in Personal Web Space. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 30, pp. 385–404.

Ritson, M. and R. Elliott (1999). The Social Uses of Advertising: An Ethnographic Study of Adolescent Advertising Audiences in Thompson, C. and E.J. Arnould (2005). Consumer Culture Theory (CCT): Twenty Years of Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31 (4), pp. 868-882.

Ritzer, G., and N. Jurgenson (2010). Production, Consumption, Prosumption. *Journal of Consumer Culture*, 10 (1), pp. 13-36.

Rogan, B. (1998). On Collecting as Play, Creativity and Aesthetic Practice in Campbell, C. (2005). The Craft Consumer: Culture, craft and consumption in a postmodern society. *The Journal of Consumer Culture*, 5(1), pp. 23-42.

Rowley, J. (2004). Just another channel? Marketing communications in e-business. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 22 (1), pp. 24-41.

Ryan, R.M. and E.L. Deci (2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, pp. 54-67.

Salzer-Mörling, M. (2010). Consumption of brands in Ekström, K.M. (ed.) (2010). *Consumer Behavior - A Nordic Perspective*. Lund: Studentlitteratur AB.

Saunders, M. and P. Lewis and A. Thornhill (2009). *Research methods for business students*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Simmel, G. (1904). Fashion. *International Quarterley*, 10, pp. 130-155.

Simmel, G. ([1903] 1971). The Metropolis and Mental Life in Firat, A.F. and A. Venkatesh (1995). Liberatory Postmodernism and the Reenchantment of Consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22, pp. 239-267.

Simmel, G. ([1900] 1978). The Philosophy of Money in Firat, A.F. and A. Venkatesh (1995). Liberatory Postmodernism and the Reenchantment of Consumption. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 22, pp. 239-267.

Schau, H. J. and M.C. Gilly (2003). We Are What We Post? Self-Presentation in Personal Web Space. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 30, pp. 385–404.

Schutz, A. (1966). *Some structures of the lifeworld*. The Hague: Collected Papers, 3, Martinus Nijhoff.

Schutz, A. (1967). *The Phenomenology of the Social World*. Evanston: Northwestern University Press.

Scott, D.M. (2011). *The New Rules of Marketing & PR. 3rd ed*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Scott, L. (1994). The Bridge from Text to Mind: Adapting Reader- Response Theory to Consumer Research in Thompson, C. and E.J. Arnould (2005). Consumer Culture Theory (CCT): Twenty Years of Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31 (4), pp. 868-882.

Shernoff, D. J., Csikszentmihaiyi, M,, Schneider, B, and E.S. Shernoff (2003). Student engagement in high school classrooms from the perspective of flow theory. *School Psychology Quarterly,* 18(2), pp. 158-176.

Surowiecki, J. (2005). *The Wisdom of Crowds. why the many are smarter than the few* in Ebner, W., Leimeister, J.M. and H. Krcmar (2009). Community Engineering for Innovations: The Ideas Competition as a method to nurture a Virtual Community for Innovations. *R&D Management*, 39(4), pp. 342-356.

Terranova, T. (2004). *Network Culture: Politics for the Information Age*. London and Ann Arbor: Pluto Press.

Terwiesch, C. and Y. Xu (2008). Innovation Contests, Open Innovation, and Multi-agent Problem Solving. *Management Science*, 54 (9), pp.1529-1543.

Thompson, C.J. (1997). Interpreting consumers: a hermeneutic framework for deriving marketing insights from the texts of consumers' consumption stories. *Journal of Marketing Research,* (XXXIV), pp. 438-55.

Thompson, C. and E.J. Arnould (2005). Consumer Culture Theory (CCT): Twenty Years of Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31 (4), pp. 868-882.

Thompson, C.J. and E. C. Hirschman (1995). Understanding the Socialized Body: A Poststructuralist Analysis of Consumers' Self-Conceptions, Body Images, and Self-Care Practices in Thompson, C. and E.J. Arnould (2005). Consumer Culture Theory (CCT): Twenty Years of Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31(4), pp. 868-882.

Thompson, C.J., Pollio, H.R. and W.B. Locander (1994). The Spoken and the Unspoken: A Hermeneutic Approach to Understanding the Cultural Viewpoints That Underlie Consumers' Expressed Meanings. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 21(3), pp. 432-452.

Vargo, S.L. and R.F. Lusch (2004). Evolving to a New Dominant Logic for Marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 68, pp. 1-17.

Verona, G., Prandelli, E., and M. Sawhney (2006). Innovation and virtual environments: towards virtual knowledge brokers. *Organization Studies*, 27(6), pp. 765-788.

Walcher, D. (2007). Der Ideenwettbewerb als Methode der aktiven Kundenintegration. in Ebner, W., Leimeister, J.M. and H. Krcmar (2009). Community Engineering for Innovations: The Ideas Competition as a method to nurture a Virtual Community for Innovations. *R&D Management*, 39 (4), pp. 342-356.

Wexler, M.N. (2011). Reconfiguring the sociology of the crowd: exploring crowdsourcing. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 31 (1), pp. 6-20.

Wind, Y.J., (2008). A Plan to Invent the Marketing We Need Today. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 49 (4), pp. 21-28.

Zheng, H., D. Li and W. Hou (2011). Task Design, Motivation, and Participation in Crowdsourcing Contests. *International Journal of Electronic Commerce*, 15 (4), pp. 57–88.

Zwick, D., S. K. Bonsu and A. Darmody (2008). Putting Consumers to Work : `Co-creation` and new marketing governmentality. *Journal of Consumer Culture*, 8, pp.163-196.

Yin, R.K. (2003). *Case Study Research: Design and Method* (3rd edition). London: Sage.

ONLINE

Brabham, D.C. (2008b). Moving the crowd at iStockphoto: the composition of the crowd and motivations for participation in a crowdsourcing application, First Monday, 13(6) [Online] Available at: http://www.uic.edu/htbin/cgiwrap/bin/ojs/index.php/fm/article/view/2159/1969 [Accessed 11 April 2012]

Brabham, D.C. (2009) Crowdsourcing process2.jpg, Wikipedia. [Online] Available at: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Crowdsourcing_process2.jpg [Accessed 31 March 2012]

DesignCrowd (2010). Crowdsourcing is not new - the history of crowdsourcing [Online] Available at http://blog.designcrowd.com/article/202/crowdsourcing-is-not-new--the-history-of crowdsourcing-1714-to-2010 [Accessed 31 March 2012]

Horizon.net Deutscher Fachverlag GmbH (2012). McDonald's erklärt Crowdsourcing zum wichtigen Aspekt seines Marketings (*McDonald's declares crowdsourcing as most important marketing aspect for their company*) http://www.horizont.net/aktuell/marketing/pages/protected/McDonald%92s-erklaert-Crowdsourcing-zum-wichtigen-Aspekt-seines-Marketings_105799.html [Online] Available at: HORIZONT:NET [Accessed 17 February 2012]

Howe, J. (2006b). Neo Neologisms', [Online] Available at: http://www.crowdsourcing.com/cs/crowd_bites_back/ [Weblog, 16 June 2006; Accessed 01 April 2012]

Kelleher, C. (2011). Open Service Innovation and Co-creating the Value Proposition in Online Community Based Idea Contests, [Online] Available at: http://www.som.cranfield.ac.uk/som/dinamic-content/media/ISRC/Open%20Service%20Innovation%20in%20Online%20Community%20Based%20Idea%20Contests.pdf [Accessed 31 March 2012]

Lakhani, K.R., Jeppesen, L.B., Lohso, P.A. and J.A. Panetta (2007). The Value of Openness in Scientific Problem Solving. Harvard Business School Working Paper No. 07-050 [Online] Available at: http://www.hbs.edu/research/pdf/07-050.pdf [Accessed 11 April 2012].

Lester, S. (1999). An introduction to phenomenological research. [Online] Available at: http://www.devmts.demon.co.uk/resmethy.htm. [Accessed 26 April 2012].

McDonald's Deutschland Inc. (2011). Überraschender Abschluss: Fünf Gewinner beim „Mein Burger" Finale von McDonald's (*Surprising final: Five winners of the "My Burger" contest of   McDonald's)* [Online] Available at: McDonalds http://media.mcdonalds.de/MDNPROG9/mcd/files/pressecenter/downloads/pdf/McDonalds_MenBurger_Finale.pdf [Accessed 01 February 2012]

McDonald's Deutschland Inc. (2012a). Mein Burger: Fünf aus 327.000 (*My Burger: five out of 327,000*) [Online] Available at: McDonalds http://www.mcdonalds.de/metanavigation/presse/pressecenter/suchergebnisse/detailansichtpm.cfm?pressId=131 [Accessed 10 April 2012]

McDonald's Deutschland Inc. (2012b). Mein Burger 2012 Offizielle Teilnahmebedingungen (*official terms and conditions a participation*) [Online] Available at: McDonalds http://www.mcdonalds.de/files/pdf/TNB_Mein_Burger_2012.pdf [Accessed 03 February 2012]

McDonald's Deutschland Inc. (2012c). Häufige Fragen (*Frequently asked questions*) [Online] Available at: McDonalds http://www.mcdonalds.de/mein_burger/mein_burger_faq.html [Accessed 03 February 2012]

McDonald's Deutschland Inc. (2012d). Das erwartet den Geschmackssieger (*This is what is waiting for the Taste-Winner)* [Online] Available at: McDonalds http://www.mcdonalds.de/mein_burger/index.cfm#/finalisten [Accessed 06 May 2012]

Pater, M. (2009). The 5 Guiding Principles in Co-creation. [Online] Available at: Fronteer Strategy http://www.fronteerstrategy.com/writings-events-news/whitepapers [Accessed 03 February 2012]

Story, L. (2007). The high price of creating free ads. [Online] Available at: The New York Times http://www.nytimes.com/2007/05/26/business/26content.html [Accessed 28 February 2012]

Socialbakers.com (2012). Facebook Brand Statistics in Germany Q1 2012 [Online] Available at: Socialbakers http://www.socialbakers.com/facebook-pages/brands/germany/ [Accessed 22 April 2012]

Opdenakker, R. (2006). Advantages and disadvantages of four interview techniques in qualitative research, Forum: Qualitative Social Research, 7 (4:11) [Online] Available at: http://www.qualitative-research.net/index.php/fqs/article/view/175/391[Accessed 26 April 2012]

Appendix

A: Interview Guide

1. Personal information/ Background
- Can you tell us something about yourself?
- What do you do in your free time?
- What are you doing when you're online?

2. Contest
- How did you get to know about the 'Mein Burger' contest of McDonalds? (different mediums, friends, etc)
- Can you tell us why you choose to participate? (e.g. can you elaborate on that?)
- Can you tell us about your experience in participating? (How easy or difficult was it for you? Time-consuming?)
- What do you think about this contest?
- Was there anything particularly good or bad?
- How do you see the process of the contest?
- Name of the Burger?
- How do you feel about your created burger? (more specific)
- Does your burger somehow 'represent' you?
- Did you use o the provided promotion material or talked to friends
- Did you take a look at the other burgers?
- Did you vote for burgers yourself?
- Why?
- For which burgers did you vote?
- Did you keep track of the number of votes?
- Did you do something to increase this number?

3. After the Contest
- Do you think you have contributed to the company/brand?
- How are your feelings towards McDonalds?
- Do you feel you got something in return for your participation?
- What did you expect from the contest?
- Was hast du von dem Wettbewerb erwartet?
- Have you read the terms and conditions?
- Were you aware of your intellectual property rights on your creation?
- Would you participate again (either at McDonalds or a contest this kind of another company)?
- Is there anything you were not able to share with us so far?

B: Ethical Protocol

Ethical protocol:

First of all we would already like to thank you for your participation. As explained in our first message we are Master students researching participants' experiences in the 'Mein Burger' contest of McDonalds.

Before we start the interview, we would like to reassure you that as a participant you have several rights. First, participating in this interview is voluntary, meaning that you are free to refuse to answer any question at any time. Besides, you are free to withdraw from the interview at any time. Secondly, this interview will be kept strictly anonymous, meaning that your personal information is only available to the researchers. Finally, we would like to ask you whether you want the interview transcripts to be confidential (only the researchers can use it) or would like to make it available for other studies.

Please confirm that you agree with these rights before we start the interview.

C: Consumer Interviews

Pseudonym: 'Nicole'; Date: 24.04.2010; IM interview conducted with Skype

Pseudonym: 'Julia'; Date: 25.04.2010; IM interview conducted with Skype

Pseudonym: 'Laura'; 03.04.2010; IM interview conducted with Facebook

Pseudonym: 'John'; 03.04.2010; IM interview conducted with Facebook

Pseudonym: 'George'; 05.04.2010; IM interview conducted with Facebook

Pseudonym: 'Ryan'; 08.04.2010; IM interview conducted with Facebook

Pseudonym: 'David'; 09.05.2010; IM interview conducted with Facebook