GAMIFICATION AND CROWDSOURCING AS ENGAGEMENT TECHNIQUES FOR HUMAN RIGHTS ORGANIZATIONS

By

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<u>Declaration Form</u>

The work I have submitted is my own effort. I certify that all the material in the Dissertation which is not my own work, has been identified and acknowledged. No materials are included for which a degree has been previously conferred upon me.

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Abstract

Human Rights organizations have a history in fighting against violations and issues that are affecting the individuals, groups and nations worldwide, however, constant challenges faced by such organizations proved to delay effective advancement in access to human rights. The research aims at tackling the challenges from the standpoint of a necessary change in the organizational perception of campaigning systems to improve performance and achieve significant outcomes. The research proposes the inclusion of new technological trends of engagement that proved effective and resourceful in other sectors. The motivations underlying the behavior of human beings are influenced by the tendency to satisfy psychological needs, such as self-achievement, meaning, recognition, status and altruism. The research will discuss the psychological motivations behind people's engagement in online activities and extend them to explain why gamification and crowdsourcing harnessed success and why such methods would be significant adaptations for campaigning in human rights. Case study methodology was adopted for this research to examine campaigns of human rights organizations that used gamification and crowdsourcing techniques, where data pertaining to the cases have been collected from the concerned websites and other reliable social media and networking online resources. The findings revealed a positive impact from applying gamification and crowdsourcing in the two selected cases, translated in the raised funds, awareness levels, contribution, participation and interaction. The outcome of this research will help identify what the expectations of people are when they logon into their social profiles and will consequently; assist human rights organizations in selecting the components of their campaigns and various engagement elements according to the interests of the targeted users of social platforms.

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1.INTRODUCTION

This section will include a statement of the problem that explains challenges faced with human rights organizations in engaging their audience due to the altruistic and the intangible reciprocity nature of their activities. Further, a background on social media and networking will present facts and statistical figures in order to pave the context of the study. This chapter will also state the purpose of the study, the selected research question and the structure of the study.

1.1. Statement Of The Problem

Social media and Social networking have occupied a significant share in raising awareness, campaigning, fundraising, advocacy and other non-profit activities. Human rights organizations are racing towards employing social media and networking tools for achieving their objectives. However, and as there is an altruistic element to it, such organizations often face challenges in proving reciprocity, which is the outcome of exchange of gain between organizations and supporters. As social media and networking platforms changed how organizations communicate with audiences, human rights organizations should tune into the interactivity aspect, instead of continuing to apply the one-to-many communicative approach in promoting their causes.

Human rights organizations rely on individuals who would be donating or advocating in return of receiving psychological or social satisfaction, such as sense of doing good, recognition or reputation. Based on this satisfaction, such organizations can broaden their audiences as an alternative to attending only to individuals and groups that already have the tendency of doing goodwill deeds.

From this standpoint, the research will review possible motives for engagement in the online context in general, while aiming at highlighting the intangible gains that internet users obtain from this involvement, and hence, altering the perception formed about the targeted audience and their reasons for support. Looking in depth into motives for online engagement will help human rights organizations to distinctively view internet users' behavior and therefore, create a win-win situation by catering to the audience's satisfaction accordingly.

1.2.   Background

The terms 'social media' and 'social networks' are used interchangeably to refer to social websites especially that many of these sites provide services that are under both, media and network.

Social networks are defined by Boyd and Ellison (2007) "as web-based services that allow individuals to construct a public or semi-public profile" (p.211), while communicating with other users and managing their list of connections through the website.

Social media signifies a series of tools that encourage social interactions online (Hansen et al., 2011), while denoting a novel user involvement, compared to other traditional media. The internet and its related technologies have shaped the communicative process of social media into a dialog format. Also, social media echo the term 'web 2.0', where two core aspects are engulfed by the concept. First, the term includes the appearance of social media and their related development and wide adoption. Second, it encompasses the shift in power control between content providers and users. Web 2.0 exposed the reality that users are as involved in the control of interactions across this media as organizations, traditional media and other users are (Poynter, 2010). This shift has been described as a transfer from an Adult<>Child model to an Adult<>Adult model (Comley, 2006).

Social media and network sites: including microblogging websites, such as Twitter, social network sites such as Facebook, Mixi (Japan's most used social networking site) and Cyworld (South Korea's), Wikis as the collaborative encyclopedia Wikipedia, social bookmarking such as Delicious, StumbleUpon and Digg, photo sharing such as Flickr, video sharing such as YouTube, music sharing such as Jango and Last FM, discussion forums such as Google, Apple or Ebay discussion forums, product and service reviews as TripAdvisor, virtual worlds like Second Life and World of Warcraft, and multiplayer games like YoVille, Zynga Poker and Farmville.

Further, the terms social media, social sites and social web can be used in the context of this research to indicate websites and online activities related to both social media and social networking, while the description of Kaplan and Haenlein (2009) shall be adopted, where social media includes collaborative functions, blogs, content groups, social networking platforms and online virtual gaming worlds.

In the present times, social media and social networks are not only used to generate millions in sales, attract traffic to a website and pressure companies to stop environmental violation practices, but also such sites have been employed to topple dictators and disturb ingrained governmental regimes, and hence, it is necessary to reflect on how users of such applications exist on the internet and the social web. Slevin (2000:118) stated that:

> [t]he internet is now having a considerable impact on this world in transition. We seem to be facing a whole new agenda, complete with its own rhetoric and its own buzz word. With the new agenda seem to come vague promises of new ways of organizing our world.

Recent statistics showed that over 30% of the world's population is using the internet (Internet World Stats, 2011). However, for developing countries in Africa, Latin America and the Middle East, accessing the internet may not often serve the same objective as that of the developed world. Transactions of online purchasing or accessing official governmental documents and applications may still rank second, if not less, compared to other web activities. For instance, with over 68 million internet users (Internet World Stats 2011), including 17 million users on Facebook alone, the Middle East region witnessed a shift in the use of social media for mobilizing and covering events of the Arab Spring (Arab Social Media Report, 2011). The anti-government riots started in Tunisia, however, the movement spread vastly through to other Arab countries. Communications happened on the citizen level rather than the official political level. People identified with others from different Arab countries and related to their situation and cause, hence creating the motive to act, starting from social media and networking platforms.

To put in this in the frame of potential impact and reach, the figures below show user statistics on some social networking and media sites (Table 1):

Name	Number of Users	Description
Facebook	901,000,000	a social networking service and website launched in February 2004, operated and privately owned by Facebook Inc.
Twitter	500,000,000	an online social networking service and microblogging service that enables its users to send and read text-based posts of up to 140 characters, known as "tweets"
Qzone	500,000,000	a Chinese social networking website, which was created by Tencent in 2005. It permits users to write blogs, keep diaries, send photos, and listen to music
Sina Weibo	300,000,000	a Chinese social networking service that is similar to Facebook
Google+	170,000,000	a social networking and identity service operated by Google Inc.
LinkedIn	150,000,000	a business-related social networking site founded in December 2002 and it is mainly used for professional networking
Badoo	133,000,000	a social discovery website founded in 2006 and popular in Latin America, Spain, Italy and France
Vkontakte	111,578,500	a Russian social network service popular in Russia, Ukraine, Kazakhstan, Moldova and Belarus
Myspace	100,000,000	a social networking service owned by Specific Media LLC and pop star Justin Timberlake
Friendster	90,000,000	a social gaming site that is based in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The company now operates mainly from three Asian countries: the Philippines, Malaysia and Singapore
hi5	80,000,000	a social gaming website based in San Francisco, California and popular in Nepal, Mongolia, Thailand, Romania, Jamaica, Central Africa, Portugal and Latin America
Tumblr	51,500,000	a microblogging platform and social networking website, owned and operated by Tumblr, Inc.
Instagram	40,000,000	a free photo sharing program launched in October 2010 allowing users to take a photo, apply a digital filter to it, and share it on a variety of social networking services, including Instagram's own platform
Tagged	20,000,000	a social discovery website based in San Francisco, California, United States, founded in 2004. Tagged allows members to browse the profiles of other members, play games and share tags and virtual gifts
Foursquare	20,000,000	a location-based social networking website for mobile devices, such as smartphones. Users "check in" at venues using a mobile website, text messaging or a device-specific application by selecting from a list of venues the application locates nearby
Pinterest	11,700,000	a pinboard-styled social photo sharing website. The service allows users to create and manage theme-based image collections. The site's mission statement is to connect everyone in the world through the 'things' they find interesting

Table 1: Users and Descriptions of Social Websites

The millions of users on social networking websites outnumber populations of many countries and consequently bear a huge potential and promise. For example, it is been

reported, at moments, a number of around 12 new accounts per second were being created, while Twitter awaits reaching its 600 million users in early June 2012 (Twopcharts, 2012). Figure 1 illustrates the number of new accounts over 24 hours on March 22, 2012.
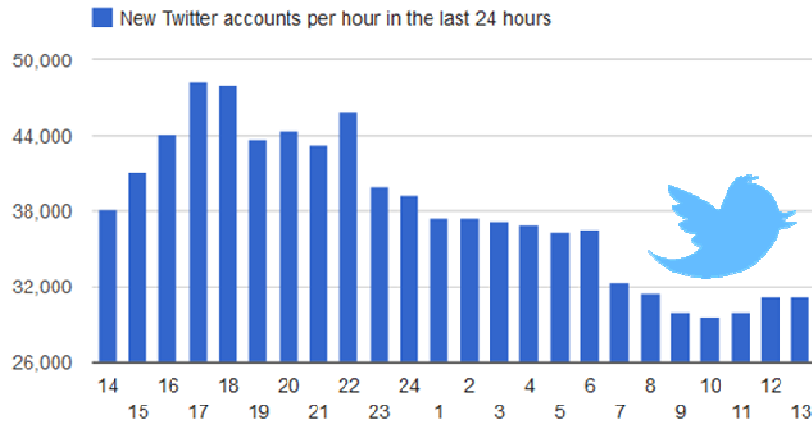
Figure 1: New Twitter Accounts - Source Twopchart, March 22, 2012

Facebook number of users already exceeded 800 million and the global distribution is illustrated in Figure 2:

Figure 2: Facebook by Country - Internet Statistics Compendium 2012

Pinterest is a new addition to the social media platforms allowing its users to socialize based on their common interests. It has rapidly made its way to the third position in number of visits to its website after Facebook and Twitter in the United States (Experian, 2012). Traffic to the website increased by 50% in first two months of 2012, thus topping Tumblr, LinkedIn and Google+. Major brands are already pinning on this social platform and others have already launched their Pinterest campaigns (VentureBeat, 2012).

In general, social networking and media figures for 2012 point at increasingly engaging platforms, where estimates of annual sharing of approximately 400 content materials will take place on Facebook, an average of 23 minutes per day will be spent on Twitter, over 300 million daily tweets will be posted (MediaBistro, March 2012) an estimate of 60 hours of video uploads per minute will appear on YouTube and over 4 billion videos will be viewed each day (YouTube, March 2012). Moreover, corporate social media and networking statistics show that 70% of the people surveyed have participated in brand-related contests or activities with a 24% contributing to content generation as part of the participation process (Fields, 2012).

In its fourth annual Social Media Marketing Industry Report (Stelzner, 2012), Social Media Examiner surveyed 3800 marketers and 83% of the respondents believe that social media is significant for their business, with agreement of 85% that it helped in exposure, 69% that it increased traffic and 65% that it granted market insights. Also, the marketers identified Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, blogs and Youtube as the main used social websites for marketing their business campaigns. Finally, the report reveals that the surveyed marketers are planning to increase their use of Youtube and video (76%), Facebook (72%) and Twitter (69%).

Also, according to a study conducted by Column Five and Get Satisfaction, the percentages corresponding to the top reasons for liking, following or becoming a fan were as follows (Fields, 2012):
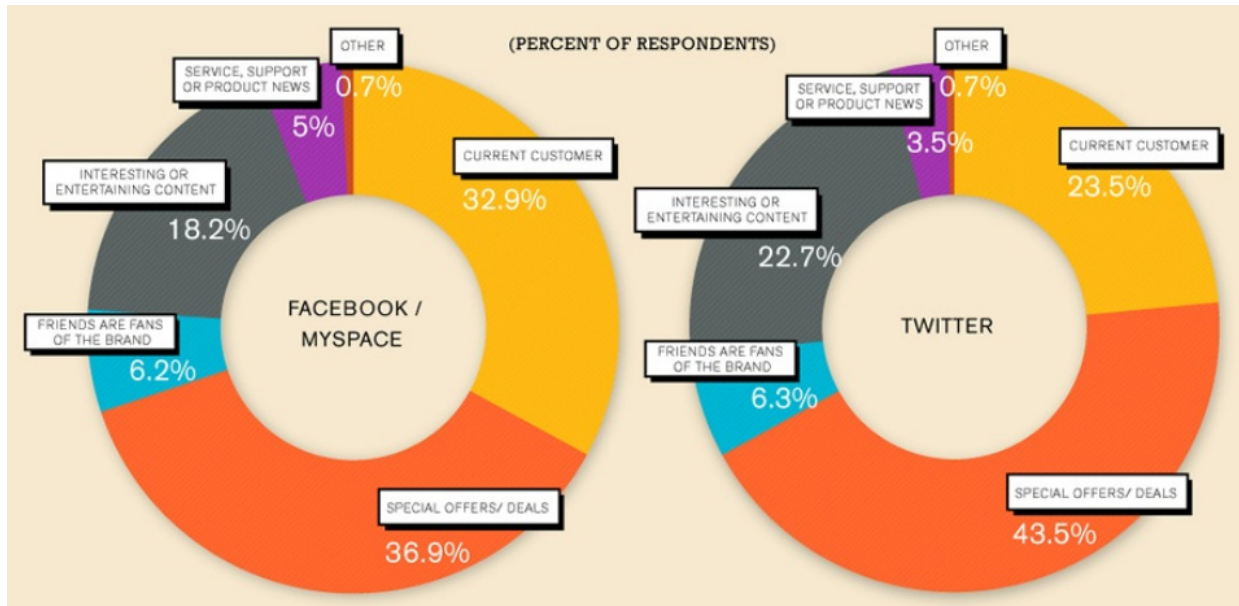
Figure 3: Top Reasons for Following Brands - Column Five and Get Satisfaction 2012

Thus, looking at the above figures compels a shift in approach for human rights organizations, whereby each of the reasons in Figure 3 could be translated into their terms of causes and consequently, considered from the perspective of campaigning for human rights. For example, "Interesting or Entertaining Content" as a reason for customer involvement on the social web applies to human rights organizations as well, especially that many of such organizations disseminate interesting information that entertains audience, not necessarily in a 'fun' way, but rather in terms of acquiring knowledge on violations or success stories, forming views and opinions, and, at possible later stage, advocating a stand among their social circle.

1.3.   Purpose of the Study

This research will discuss gamification and crowdsourcing as new methods of engagement through online social media and networking sites and their insufficient application among the human rights organizations. The purpose of the research is to highlight the gaps in using social media and networking engagement methods and present the importance of such methods in cause campaigns. This will attempt to shed light on how human rights organizations can create more significance and impact, while, simultaneously, provide the audience with entertainment, motivation and incentive.

The aim of the study stems from the lag of human rights organizations in using engagement techniques via social sites, where such techniques garnered significant online success for many other agencies and brands. Thus, studying the methods and the underlying motives for involvement will help frame what drives people to engage and how human rights organizations can better promote their campaigns and benefit from this new development in the market research field.

1.4.   Research Questions

While many corporations are fighting to win the approval of their customers in return for a profit, most human rights organizations are still anticipating automatic engagement from their audience as part of the latter's duty to do good, sympathy or other altruistic traits. Yet, and as people may be aware of the violations to human rights surrounding them, nevertheless, their engagement is still limited compared to that with corporations, where they are actively involved in discussion forums, posts of new introduction or purchase of items. For instance, Amnesty International UK is one of two organizations, and the only human rights organization, that ranked ninth among the top ten brands by 0.31% average engagement rate on Facebook; where the average engagement rate is the percentage of Fans on the organization's page that interact with its post on daily basis and the highest rate on the top ten chart was 1.32%. A similar study was conducted in the United States and none of the human rights organizations appeared on the top list (Social Bakers, 2012).

Based on this, the study will attempt to answer the question: How can engagement methods be applied by human rights organizations using social media and social networking? And to answer this question, it will be necessary to review current data on social marketing trends pertaining to engagement practices, such as statistical data on investment in gamification, use of crowdsourcing and trends on collaborative and online behavior. Presenting such data will reveal how the market in general is investing in digital media trends and will give an overview of what is driving the audience online; two important aspects for human rights campaigns. Further, and to put the market research into context, case studies from the human rights field will be examined vis-à-vis the literature.

1.5.   Structure of the Research

Chapter I will review relevant literature on theories of motivation for engagement on the internet, where a revision of individual psychological needs that contribute to driving motivation to participate and engage in online gamified processes and participatory contexts will be presented. Aspects distinguishing internet audience will also be highlighted in an attempt to lead a revision on motives for online interactive communicative process.

Chapter II will discuss the methodology adopted for the research. An argument supporting the use of case study method will be portrayed along with validity and generality of findings. Further, an interpretivist analysis approach of data pertaining to the campaigns, gamification and crowdsourcing will be implemented to answer the current research question. Also, this chapter will present the findings and any limitations that faced the researcher in data collection.

Chapter III will present case studies from two organizations, United Nations World Food Program (WFP) and Amnesty International (AI) and will examine how these organizations have applied gamification and crowdsourcing as part of their campaigning. The cases will be used to provide analytics on the engagement processes used and will be examined in the context of psychological aspects reviewed in the literature.

Chapter IV will conclude the research with recommended practices for the use of gamification and crowdsourcing in cause campaigning, other views formed during the course of writing this study and recommendations for further research.

2. REVIEW OF MOTIVATIONS FOR ENGAGEMENT IN ONLINE LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

This section will include a comprehensive review of the needs that drive motivation to engage in online platforms. A psychological framework will be presented to explain the reasons and the ways that people interact online and the expectations and satisfaction they aspire when involved in online activities.

Social media and Social networking have occupied a significant share in raising awareness, campaigning, fundraising, advocacy and other related activities. Human rights organizations are racing in employing social media and networking tools for achieving their objectives. However, and as there is an altruistic element to it, such organizations often face difficulties in proving reciprocity. Human rights organizations majorly rely on individuals who would be donating, supporting or advocating in return of receiving psychological or social satisfaction, such as sense of affiliation, recognition or altruism. However, such organizations are behind in applying new marketing practices that address the needs of their audience.

Human rights organizations should attend to, not only individuals and groups that already have the tendency of doing goodwill deeds, but also to those who possess the potential to get engaged. Yet the challenge lies in understanding the motives of the people behind engaging in online platforms as these are the keys to induce a preferred course of behavior. Therefore, in order for human rights organizations to effectively target their audience, they must acquire an understanding of the forces that mobilize those people on the web.

However, before reviewing the current literature on the motives that possibly lead to engagement outcomes it is necessary point out that the concept of social media and social networking is still in its early development stages and, consequently, borrowing from research on internet in general and online and digital communications and user generated content in particular, will be inevitable for fulfilling the purpose of the research.

2.2.   Definitions

A definition of the terms and an overview on 'gamification' and 'crowdsourcing' will be presented in order to set the frame for the literature on motivations for engagement.

2.2.1. Gamification

> Gamification is the process of using game mechanics and game thinking in non-gaming businesses to engage users and to solve problems.
>
> (The Gamification Summit, 2012)

> Gamification typically involves applying game design thinking to non-game applications to make them more fun and engaging… [It] can potentially be applied to any industry and almost anything to create fun and engaging experiences, converting users into players.
>
> (Gamification.org, 2012b)

Gamifying a non-game process will require a design of structure and guides that support gaining points, badges, progress and other mechanics that, in turn render the dynamics of self-expression, altruism and others to be effective, while maintaining a multi-communicative flow throughout the process.
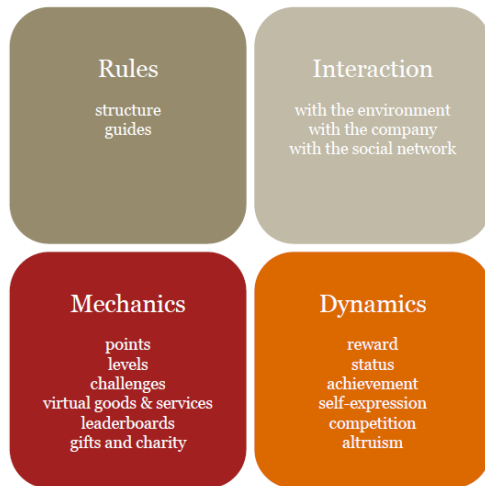
Figure 4: Elements of Gamification
Source: Playmatics, Bunchball (PwC, 2011)

Game mechanics are referred to as the standards, imperatives and mechanisms that manage the performance of the users by using incentive, feedback and reward models (Wu, 2011). Gamification.org (2012) lists a number of game mechanics (Table 2) that can be applied to non-game processes to increase fun and engagement, such as:

Achievements	a virtual or physical representation of having accomplished something
Appointments	game dynamics in which at a predetermined times/place a user must log-in or participate in game, for positive effect
Bonuses	a reward after having completed a series of challenges or core functions
Cascading Information Theory	information should be released in the minimum possible snippets
Community Collaboration	a dynamic wherein an entire community is rallied to work together to solve a riddle, a problem or a challenge
Countdown	a dynamic in which players are only given a certain amount of time to do something
Epic Meaning	a sense of discovering something great or working towards achieving something bigger than the players themselves
Levels	a system by which players are rewarded an increasing value for accumulation of points
Points	a running numerical value given for any single action or combination of actions
Status	A rank or level of a player. Players are often motivated by trying to reach a higher level or status

Table 2: List of Game Mechanics as adopted from Gamification.org 2012
Source: Gamification.org (2012a)

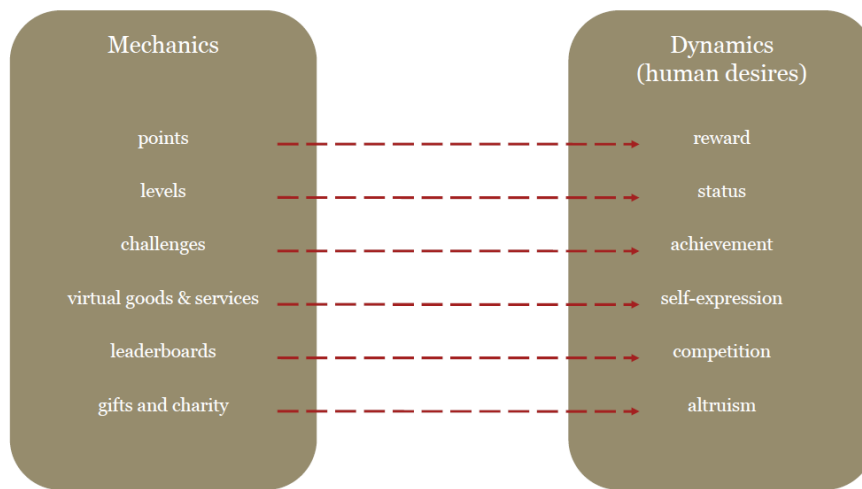Figure 5 illustrates how game mechanics are aligned with satisfying human needs (Rolland and Easteman, 2011).

Mechanics		Dynamics (human desires)
points	- - - - - →	reward
levels	- - - - - →	status
challenges	- - - - - →	achievement
virtual goods & services	- - - - - →	self-expression
leaderboards	- - - - - →	competition
gifts and charity	- - - - - →	altruism

Figure 5: Alignment of Mechanics and Dynamics
Source: Bunchball (PwC, 2011)

2.2.2. Crowdsourcing

The term 'crowdsourcing' was coined by Jeff Howe (2006a) referring to a business model through which undefined groups of connected individuals contribute innovative impressions in order to present a solution. Although it is extended from the concept of outsourcing, yet crowdsourcing differs from outsourcing, where the latter involves a systematic and defined group of people, such as paid employees of a service provider company, to perform the task or find a solution. Alternatively, crowdsourcing is an open call for the public and includes a broad network of potential contributors (Howe, 2006b), thus leaving the decision of helping on the task to the contributor's own self (Lakhani and Panetta, 2007). Also, crowdsourcing is characterized by the collaboration of "people who used to be the silent audience to make something better" than what could have been done by one entity, such as an individual or organization (Powazek, 2010).

Millions of individuals are contributing to crowdsourced collaborations and unravelling new goods and services that surpass those of the highly skilled and financed corporations (Tapscott and Williams, 2006). The "weapons of mass collaboration" (Tapscott and Williams, 2006:11) are inexpensive platforms, and sometimes at no cost, that allow its

users to co-participate, co-create and co-innovate with very low cost to themselves, thus making the experience doable and appealing. Furthermore, this open participation is opening possibilities for individuals to establish self-organized groups that serve communities, organizations, national democracies and other global issues, such as the case in Arab Spring.

Figure 6 lists the elements that crowdsourcing application includes in order to appeal to the crowds:

Figure 6: Crowdsourcing Mechanics

2.3.   Internet Users as Audience

Scholars has been trying to conceptualize the internet audience vis-à-vis other media audience in an attempt to set basis for dealing with such audience. According to Downes (2002), the internet audience may be viewed in a frame ranging from the notion of the internet as a traditional mass medium to that of a divided and interactive space of dynamics that widely differs from that of traditional mass media. He distinguished three different forms of internet audience being as a market, as a public and as a relationship.

Internet audience as a market is viewed as consumers, pointing at users who conduct online purchasing transactions, and as content-users, referring to receptors of advertisements and commercials (McQuail, 2000). In both scenarios, the audience is involved in a consumer-producer relationship, rather than in a communicative one (McQuail, 1997).

As a public, the audience is viewed in terms of internet-generated community connections (Downes, 2002), whereby internet community's unity is an outcome of common experience (Rheingold, 2000). Downes (2002) adds that the audience on the web should be

viewed beyond a crowd of online consumers, to include them as participatory public, who have access to information that was neither geared to editors' preference nor subjected to time and space constraints as in traditional media.

On the relationship level, which is of great relevance to this study, the internet audience moves more towards a co-participatory manner in the process, where it is further viewed as an interactive and necessary element of the communication system. Unlike, the market model of one-sided relationship between producer and consumer, internet platforms nurture a reciprocal communication between the content producer and the audience (Downes, 2002). It is, thus, necessary to view internet audience as actively and consciously involved in the formation, dissemination and display of content (Nightingale, 1996).

Callejo (2001, as cited by Downes 2002) addressed this relationship in the interactivity and fragmentation spectrum of the internet. He believes that internet is no longer perceived as a solely informative channel, but as a communicative medium and hence, generates a different type of audience; an audience that is neither passive due to interactivity, nor massive due to fragmentation. And although, web content reaches to masses, yet Neuman (1991) identifies specific characteristics pertaining to new media: increasing speed, increasing volume, increasing channel diversity, decreasing cost, decreasing distance sensitivity, increasing two-way flow, increasing flexibility, increasing extensibility, and increasing interconnectivity (p. 60-74).

It is also pressing to mention that the term interactivity has been introduced as a distinguishing element for new media from traditional media (Voiskounsky, 2008) and it refers to users' possibility for responding to other content sources through generating their own content (Ha and James, 1998), thereby, leading to a merger between what has been characterized as a consumer and a producer as a result of this vague control. The term 'prosumer' was coined to describe the feature of a shared generation and dissemination of content (Toffler, 1980).

It is important to set the distinction clear between communications of mass media and new media in an attempt to provide a mindset out of which organizations should operate on the web. For instance, Thompson (1995) refers to how the term 'mass communication' can be misleading, by breaking it down and presenting it in the context of comparison of information transmitted through the internet. It may be that the information is available to a large

audience, i.e. the 'mass', yet still, and unlike in the mass media passive usage, the proactive seeking of information contributes to the fragmentation and specialization of such audience. Further, 'communication' is different from that in mass media, as the content producer may, as well, be a recipient of information, thus allowing for co-participation.

However, it is just recent that internet audience administration has been different from other traditional media, and hence, addressed distinctively, but changes are still reserved and slow in the organizational culture. Neuendorf (2001) points the tendency to refer to various types of audience while comparing with the past, rather than current or prospect situations. Television audience has been the reference point (Downes, 2002), yet this maintains the reality of ignoring new settings and their significant conversion abilities, since in the television broadcasting, the "crowd silence" cancels interaction with the content producer (Sennett, 1977:283).

Due to this interactivity aspect of the internet, scholars (Morris and Ogan, 1996; Rafaeli and Sudweeks, 1997) ascribed a distinctive marketing communication approach to the internet, which does not similarly apply to other traditional marketing platforms. The approach focused on the ability of customers to interact in a virtual market, irrespective of time and physical location, and hence stretched to studies that examined motivations and outcome activities of internet usage (Himmelman et al., 2001).

Hence, if internet audience requires new approach to the communicative process, then organizations will have to alter, if not eliminate, the one-sided communication while attempting to gain the attention of such audience. In reality, organizations, particularly in the human rights field, tend to narrow co-participation possibilities on the web as a preventive method against inflicting harm on the reputation and image of their organizations, or simply for lack of expertise in managing this sort of unchained discourse. However, following a secure strategy on the internet will not only limit the potential that the web has to offer, but will also contribute to disinterested audience. Slevin (2000) points out that organizations need to address the challenges by seeking new opportunities if they want to achieve "reciprocal bonding and collaboration" in response to new technologies such as that of the internet(p. 90). Thus, the risks and uncertainties associated with such new technologies shall not hinder attempts to understand the concerned processes, and consequently, develop new methods for coping. However, and as organizations are always dealing with processes, approaches and strategies that involve audience, then it is necessary to build up the argument from the

practices of individuals, groups, communities and other audience and their respective engagement triggers.

2.4.   Motivation

So how does engagement occur? First, engagement is defined as "occupying the attention or efforts of a person" (Owen and Mundy, 2011:3) and it consists of three aspects: 1) *Belief* is a psychological consent for something and confidence in its reality or validity, where engagement is illustrated when an individual believes in the organization. 2) *Incentive* is an anticipation of reward that triggers an action or endeavour, where an individual is aware that the action will produce value. 3) And *Action* is the state of doing something, thus translating into carrying out the individual's part of the process (Owen et al., 2001).

Tom Chatfield (2010) suggests that engagement happens when the brain is rewarded, where reward consists of both liking and wanting to induce positive emotions. Therefore, in order to engage people with the organization, it is necessary to give a strong reason that will make them want to help and to build schemes that will make them like what they are doing.

Engaging audience through entertainment constitutes a key success factor; however, entertainment ought to be perceived in its broader context, thus including any activity through which a person aspires to experience stimulation, excitement or a non-usual kind of activity (Ford, 1992).

Human rights organizations tend to rely on factors to engage their audience, mostly not related to tangible gain for the audience, therefore making it more challenging to gain their attention and engage them. From this standpoint, if such organizations aspire for effectiveness and impact, then they have to pay closer attention to motivations of audience towards satisfying their intangible needs, like recognition, affiliation, self-actualization, value and others. Joinson (2003) refers to several motives for the use of the internet and which apply to the users of social media and networking sites, among which are self-enhancement, affiliation, efficacy and meaning.

Self-enhancement aims at sustaining worth and meaning (Baumeister et al., 1989) through seeking recognition of capacities and abilities (Wood et al., 1994). Motivational

research has also found that the motivation for having capacities and skills recognized makes people integrate such positive attributes of themselves as a real aspect of their self-worth (Baumeister, 1998), and as internet offers this interaction and expression platform, then it is more likely that people will use it to authenticate self-regarded features (Bargh et al., 2002).

Another important motive that human rights organizations should attend to while attempting to engage people is to address the need for affiliation. The sense of affiliation is in itself rewarding, where people take pleasure in mental stimulation and augment their self-esteem through appreciation and acknowledgement (Hogg and Abrams, 1993). According to Joinson (2003), internet users' level of commitment and willingness to join a group is to a great extent affected by need for affiliation.

Bandura (1997) referred to self-efficacy as a belief in one's competencies, thus "in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p.3). Joinson (2003) argues that efficacy develops self-esteem and improves sense of control, whereby the latter is mostly missing in the daily life experience. This motivation of self-efficacy provides for online presence that not only is willing to use the granted control towards incremental fulfilment of prior 'uncontrollable' events, such as ending famine or polio, but it also grants new channels for control and self-esteem. Further, it is suggested that people tend to be more engaged and productive if they are functioning autonomously (Frey and Stutzer, 2002). The fulfilment of the need for autonomy and the need for competency confirms one's self-esteem and enhances self-perception, and thus increases intrinsic motivation by granting the sense of acting out of one's own choice, rather than obligation (Deci, 1971).

LaRose and Eastin (2010) examined the correlation between self-efficacy and internet expected outcomes and found that internet self-efficacy is directly related to the expected outcomes of internet usage, such as those of activity, social, status and novel (Figure 7).
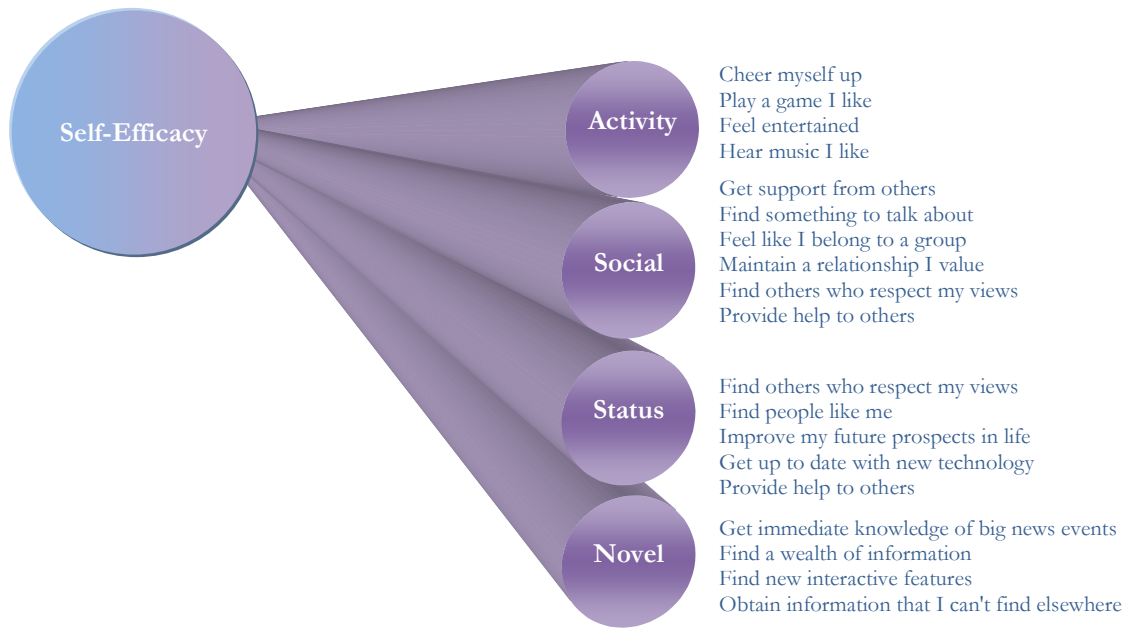
Figure 7: Internet self-efficacy relation to Internet outcomes
Source: LaRose and Eastin (2010)

Seeking meaning and value, on the other hand, have been a key motive among individuals (Joinson, 2003). Greening (2006, adapted from Bugental 1964) stated that "[h]uman beings are intentional, aim at goals, are aware that they cause future events, and seek meaning, value, and creativity" (p.3). So existing and interacting on the web shall bear meaningfulness; otherwise the element of satisfaction renders obsolete.

Downes (2002) points out, "[a]udiences seek pleasure and want to be entertained" (p.7) and that their attention should be encouraged and rewarded, a basic understanding of the self-actualization motive of internet users, in addition to the above motives, must as well be considered. As mentioned, different motives are explicitly translated among internet users as they enjoy the web content for knowledge and amusement and interact on various channels for social communication and development, however, the motive for generating their own content online feeds into an aspiration towards 'self-actualization' (Shao, 2009).

The term has been first coined by Kurt Goldstein (as cited in Modell, 1993) as the basic motive, followed by Carl Rogers, who also stressed the need to reach full potential (Rogers, 1961). Abraham Maslow took self-actualization to a further level based in the

humanistic psychology discipline and ranked it on the top of the hierarchy of needs. Trepte (2005) referred to self-actualization as "working on one's own identity and reflecting on one's own personality" (p.170), although the underlying motive to attain self-actualization is mainly not a conscious one (Mook, 1996). However, still many scholars (Bughin, 2007; Kollock, 1999; Rheingold, 1993) relate a behavioral objective, such as aspiration to acknowledgement, popularity or personal value, to self-actualization, and thus prompting a motivation towards this involvement in online production (Shao, 2009). Touching on self-actualization is important to set the foundation for understanding the motivation involved with engagement on the web and, therefore, it should not be taken for granted by organizations that are advocating for human rights causes.

On the other hand, internet users' contribution to an open source, such as the contribution of programmers, might, in addition to feeding into the self-actualization need, mirror the economical perspective, whereby participants may receive indirect rewards by improving and proving their skills and publicizing their person (Barak 2008; Hars & Ou 2001). Also, a related user-focused perspective that stemmed out of the psychological humanistic approach combined with the sociological perspective explains gratifications as a consequence to active participation. For instance, Katz et al. (1974) refer to media audience as active seekers of particular content in order to attain gratifications. Thus, scholars of cyberspace emphasized the applicability of this approach for identifying motives in virtual spaces (Grace-Farfaglia, Dekkers, Sundararajan, Peters & Park 2006; LaRose & Eastin 2010; Sangwan 2005; Shao 2009; Stafford, Stafford & Schkade 2004). Further, Flanagin and Metzger (2001) have extended their study to include new gratifications for this new medium, involving problem-solving, persuasion, relationship management, recognition and knowledge.

LaRose et al. (2001) went a step further to explain gratifications for using the internet, based on the types of incentives put forth by Bandura (1986:232-240): novel sensory, social, status, monetary, enjoyable activity, and self-reactive incentive, concluding an additional and strong positive correlation between internet usage and the status incentive. LaRose and Eastin (2010) also pointed out that the incentive for involvement in enjoyable activities is that of the entertainment gratification internet users expect to get and social interactions on this medium are enticed out of a gratifying social exchange experience. Thus, internet is not only a social medium, but it also plays a role in providing enjoyable activities

as well as status incentive when it puts its interactivity factor into action (LaRose and Eastin 2010). According to Kraut et al. (1998), the interaction on the internet acted as process towards attaining social support, which in turn advances our psychological health, however, nowadays research is indicating to a social status aspiration that is motivating internet uses (LaRose and Eastin 2010).

The aspiration to satisfaction of needs constitutes a major explanation of online communications as well. Further assertion for understanding underlying motivation can be set in the research conducted by Sundaram et al. (1998), where they based their study on Dichter's (1966; as cited in Sundaram, 1998) categorization of positive word-of-mouth communications, and came out with motives that all can be adapted to online communications:

> *Altruism*: The act of doing something without anticipating any reward in return.
>
> *Product-involvement*: Personal interest in the product, excitement resulting from product ownership and product use.
>
> *Self-enhancement*: Enhancing images among other consumers by projecting themselves as intelligent shoppers
>
> *Helping the company*: desire to help the company
>
> (Sundaram et al., 1998:41)

On a different level, research also showed that 'play' constitutes an essential element and the underlying motives are not distant from the motives discussed above. 'Play' is a drive that occurs not only among human beings (Panksepp, Siviy, and Normansell 1984) but also among most of the mammals (Bekoff, 1974, Brownlee, 1954; Caro, 1980; Hall & Bradshaw, 1998, Delfour & Aulagnier, 1997, Jensen & Kyhn, 2000 and Terranova, Laviola, & Alleva, 1993). Panksepp (1998) stated that the play drive is unbound to former experiences and it occurs naturally out of neural impulses. However, play has been always perceived as opposite to work or real life (Brown and Vaughan, 2009), but, research points at its importance for adults too. In a Ted Talk about his research, Stuart Brown (2009) refers to play as "more than just fun", in fact, in their book, Brown and Vaughan (2009) emphasize that keeping play

beyond childhood increases intelligence and well-being, and thus, should not be perceived as a "distraction from real work and life"[1].

Presenting a brief opening about 'play' as a natural drive and its extension to adulthood paves the reasons for the expected fascination in today's online social gaming which (Reeves and Read, 2009:17) described as "Game Tsunami". In fact, a study conducted on gamers detected the release of dopamine, an organic brain chemical that indicates pleasure, in the course of play, therefore, demonstrating a direct relation between playing games and pleasure stimulation (Lai, 2010).

Murphy (2011) referred to 'flow' as an essential motive for playing games. According to Csikszentmihalyi (1991), it is a state of happiness in which the person is totally absorbed, thus allowing for experiencing a high level of concentration and optimal level of challenge. Therefore, a game that is too challenging will cause annoyance to the players as it requires a higher skill and ability levels, and a game that is too easy will create boredom and disinterest. Darfur is Dying, is a flash-based narrative simulation that has been launched in 2006 to raise awareness on the situation of 2.6 million refugees in Darfur in Sudan. It has been reported that 1.2 million people played the game and tens of thousands recommended it to their friends and networks and even sent game-embedded letters to governmental officials (Serios Games, 2008). However, what this simulated game failed to address is the actual motives of the players. The cause of the game is very serious and appreciated, but did people want to play it just because it focuses on human rights issues? Players who played the game reported that its tasks were simple and did not challenge enough their self-perceived abilities. Further, it created a sense of frustration when the player could not save the Darfurian camp, and consequently, was overwhelmed with a sense of guilt that arose from this failure (Comments of players, Parkin, 2006).

Therefore, what organizations should be aware of when presenting to players is to keep them in the arousal stage through new challenges and away from anxiety, while at the same time allowing them to acquire more skills throughout the gamified process in order to feel more in control and away from boredom. Figure 8 (Csikszentmihalyi, 2004) illustrates how a person moves from low levels towards high levels of challenge and skill, hence towards the state of flow.
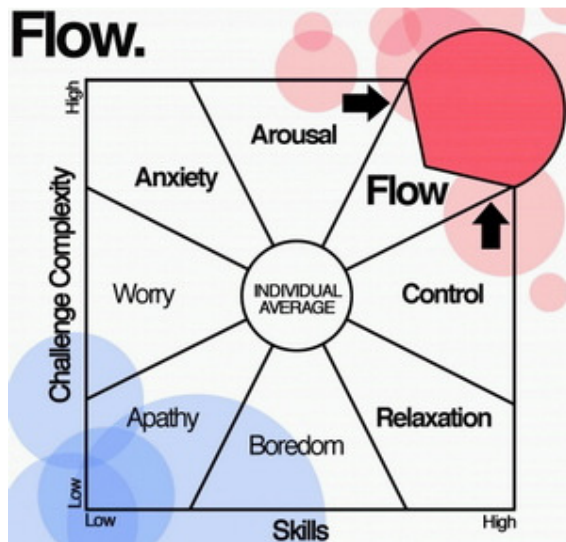
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[1] http://www.stuartbrownmd.com/about.html

Figure 8: Flow – Csikszentmihalyi 2004

Csikszentmihalyi (2004) states that money and material gain are not the reasons for making people happier. He referred to a study conducted in USA that showed that material well-being can elevate happiness; however, as it rises by few thousand dollars over the poverty level, increases in the material gain do not affect the level of happiness. This is a fundamental element towards achieving better engagement with human rights organizations. Corporations can offer discounts, free products and many other incentives to engage their fans, however, recent studies showed that this is of a short-term nature. But before dwelling further on how intrinsic and extrinsic motives affect engagement behavior, it is necessary to define both terms.

Intrinsic motivation refers to the interest and satisfaction that people derive by performing a task (Gagné and Deci, 2005; Calder and Staw, 1975). For instance, people are intrinsically motivated when they experience pleasure from performing an activity or when they feel a challenge, and thus, a drive to learn, acquire more skills, attend to an intellectual pursuit or satisfy a curiosity (Amabile et al., 1994). On the other hand, extrinsic motivations refer to doing an act in anticipation of reward or compensation (Frey and Oberholzer-Gee, 1997; Deci, 1971).

Addressing the extrinsic motives alone proved to be insufficient for long-term engagement. A study (Borst, 2010) showed that exploratory researches conducted on intrinsic and extrinsic motives seem to share a similar finding revealing that both motives play an important role in increasing involvement in performing an activity. Figure 9 lists intrinsic and extrinsic motives that are feeding into the engagement cycle of a gamified process. For instance, Leaderboard is an external reward that allows the individual to feel a sense of power or mastery, yet also if an individual places more worth on such intrinsic values, then this will result in acquiring the skills to make it to the Leaderboard.

Figure 9: As adopted from Amy Jo Kim (2011)

As intrinsic and extrinsic motives stimulate involvement in a gamified process, it also motivates people to contribute to crowdsourced activities, where the individual is motivated to contribute in order to broaden certain skills, identify and master tasks, experience autonomy and power, or in order to identify with a community and establish social contacts. For instance, increased autonomy positively affects performance (Baard et al., 2004) and creativity (Amabile, 1983) among the contributors. Extrinsically, contributors to crowdsourcing look for a material compensation, such as money or prize, an advantage, such as improving skills or gaining reputation, or a fitting into a prosocial behavior, such as fulfilling a sense of altruism (Kaufmann et al., 2011). But since in many of crowdsourcing activities, online communities are not expecting material rewards, intrinsic motivations bear a

more profound consideration in stimulating a course of behavior (Von Krogh and von Hippel, 2006). Also, among the important intrinsic motivations that produces a prosocial behavior for contributing to an open source, is altruism (Nov, 2007). In Table 3, Nov (2007) summarizes the motivational categories that explain the grounds for contribution to an open source:

Motivation	Question example
Protective	"By writing/editing in Wikipedia I feel less lonely."
Values	"I feel it is important to help others."
Career	"I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.
Social	"People I'm close to want me to write/edit in Wikipedia."
Understanding	"Writing/editing in Wikipedia allows me to gain a new perspective on things."
Enhancement	"Writing/editing in Wikipedia makes me feel needed."
Fun	"Writing/editing in Wikipedia is fun."
Ideology	"I think information should be free."

Table 3: Motivations of Contributors to the Open Source Wikipedia as adopted from Nov, 2007

According to McKenna (2008), different motives may still lead to the same behavior. For example, she states that individuals may join a support group for certain illness based on different motives, such as for gaining information on the illness, supporting a family member that suffer from this illness or getting social support. Therefore, the outcome of all these motives directed the individuals to be part of this online group. Similarly, individuals may wish to support a human rights cause online for the need for affiliation with a group that fulfils self-regard, recognition and praise, altruism and others, while all leading to the same behavior; supporting a human rights cause.

3.RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section will explain the methods used for collecting data and other related information on the case studies and on the published studies supporting gamification and crowdsourcing. It will also list the findings and the challenges faced during the stage of data collection.

3.1.   Case Studies

The nature of the study required a thorough examination of the campaigns in order to meet the case study analysis requirement. Cases studies are selected as they are the most informative in the social media and networking field due to the lack of comprehensive statistical data from human rights organizations on their campaigns. In addition, conducting a quantitative study to measure the reach and impact of such campaigns are not feasible due to constraints related to the time of the research and the identification of participants.

Case study research method is described as interpretive, where one or more cases are selected to derive specific or generic inferences relevant to particular observable facts or for differentiation in between a variety of variables related to an ambiguous or unclear relation. Case studies are known for offering real data upon which concepts, theories and models can be established. They allow for inductive research where the formation of concepts and models can result from the collected data. Also, they can acquire the deductive nature where cases provide real world occurrences, such as the selected campaigns, to explain an existing relationship. Further, and due to their holistic and systematic nature, case studies allow for a comprehensive understanding of the observed activities and their interconnected factors, thus making them interpretive and subjective (Gummesson, 2005).

The objective of the research facilitated the identification of the epistemological and methodological schemes. Positivism and quantitative research is associated with objectivity and relies on descriptive questions, like "how does x vary with y?" or explanatory questions, like "does x cause y?". On the other hand, exploratory and interpretive research, and due to

its subjective nature, is combined with qualitative research and poses queries, such as "what is x? and what is y?" (Mikkelsen, 2005:125).

In order to justify the adopted research methodology, it is essential to shed light over the positivist and interpretivist approaches. Differences between both approaches can exist in their outlook to knowledge and people and the methodological theories related to the concerned research. In the case of the positivist approach the argument is that the world should be perceived and accepted as it is (Preece, 1994). The notion is based on the claim that the social world is external, and in order to conduct a research on an external element, objective methods should be used, rather than subjective ones that entail inferences from reflections or intuitions. Positivism relies on the claim that reality and universal facts are evident, and that such truths can exist objectively and independently of the perceptions or propositions of the research's self. Impartiality is a characteristic of the positivist approach, emerging from measurement and quantification of an objective reality that is neither dependant on the researcher nor the research tools. Therefore, the approach is quantitative in nature and relies on measuring and identifying relationships among variables (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991).

On the other hand, the interpretivist approach relies on qualitative methods to arrive to conclusions concerned with understanding human experience of the situation at study, while basing this understanding on observed occurrences devoid of manipulation of precise measurement (Patton, 1987).

Thus, by being founded on individual and personal values and assumptions, the approach gets support from the philosophical school in that reality is anecdotal rather than independently verified. From this perspective, the qualitative research gained its characteristics as being inductive, holistic, constructivist, naturalistic and interpretative (Creswell, 1994, Patton, 1987).

The table below summarizes the above-discussed approaches and presents the differences and key features upon which the archetype of this research has been chosen.

	Positivist Paradigm	Interpretive Paradigm
Basic Beliefs	- The world is external and objective: True knowledge can be acquired which corresponds to reality if research is rigorous enough; - Observer is independent; - Science is value-free.	- The world is socially constructed as subjective; - Observer is part of what is observed; - Science is driven by human interests.
Researcher should	- Focus on facts; - Look for causality and fundamental laws; - Reduce phenomenon to simplest elements; - Formulate hypotheses and then test them: hypothetico-deductive research design. - Establish the boundaries of claims for knowledge being made: predictions can then be reliably made.	- Focus on meanings & authentic experiences; - Try to understand what is happening; - Look at the totality of each situation; - Develop ideas through induction.
Preferred methods include	- Standard closed-ended questions for preferable random samples; - Operationalizing concepts so that they can be measured; - Taking large samples: careful sampling with care in establishing representativeness in those studied for results to correspond to wider reality.	- Unstructured open-ended interviews - Using multiple methods to establish different views of phenomena; - Small samples investigated in depth or over time.

Table 4: (Source: Easterby-Smith et al., 1991, Silverman, 1993)

Since in this study the interpretive approach will be adopted due to lack of research in the field, statistical data and time limitation, then it is important to focus on the various configurations and meanings, and the comprehension of the underlying motives for having such different experiences among people (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991). In this context, the researcher will have to use the collected data from the case studies to derive relationships from surfacing themes and depictions as the researcher deem logical (Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

Data relevant to the case studies will be gathered from the websites of the organizations, in addition to other web analytics tools, such as Topsy, bit.ly and Twylah that allow for monitoring tweets, impressions and clicks. This method is adopted due to lack of

statistical data from the organizations themselves and due to the lack of response from their management teams to data collection request. This research will follow the case study and the interpretivist approaches using online resources and manual generation of link analytics for data collection and inductive conclusions.

The findings from online reports and studies were employed to support the discussion and assess the impact of gamification and crowdsourcing as engagement techniques. And as these tools are trending in the market research realm, certain data on the campaigns and other market data were easily accessible, including quantitative figures.

3.2. Data Collection

Data pertaining to the cases were collected from the respective websites of the organizations and their partners in the campaigns. In the case of United Nations World Food Program, data was collected from the resources section of the organization's website, in addition to relevant data available on the website of Zynga Inc., the partner on the gamified campaign. Similarly, in the case of Amnesty International, the website of OpenIdeo, the partner on the crowdsourced campaign, provided ample data on how the both organizations managed the challenge and the corresponding engagement of participants. Data on the campaign on Amnesty International's website included only information on the launch of the campaign and few other press releases with numbers of inspirations and winners announcement.

Online reports and resources on gamification and crowdsourcing were collected from prominent market research institutions, such as Experian, Gartner, ESOMAR and Social Media Examiner and from renowned websites that report on social media and networking and which have access to statistical figures, organizations and managers, such as Mashable and gamification.org.

3.3. Data Validation

Denzin (1994) states that there is only interpretation in social sciences. Validity is associated with facts, where valid research findings are to be considered true about the

subject at study, however, the interpretive element can be viewed in contrary to conventional validity assessment (Fink, 2001a).

In this research, the validity of data relies on the researcher's inspection, "questioning and theoretically interpreting the findings" (Kvale, 1994:3). The researcher also followed a systematic evaluation while re-using data in order to link the observed occurrence with the process that lead to it. Further, knowledge of the data reports and resources and their objectives was examined to ensure that the presented data would answer the research question, such as the number of participants, campaign processes and activities (Fink, 2001b).

The nature of the research is not after an absolute knowledge, and thus it is justified by replacing the latter with a notion of "defensible knowledge claims" (Kvale, 1994:3) as an aspect of social interpretation. The research aims at collecting data from online reports and resources and then basing the findings and discussion on the interpretation of the researcher. The collection of data was conducted through official websites of market research institutions and human rights organizations in an attempt to ensure the accuracy of the data.

Furthermore, two human rights organizations campaigns have been selected based on their use of gamification and crowdsourcing techniques in order to go further in depth into each occurrence. The data on the cases from the selected organizations were insufficient to prove the significance of gamification and crowdsourcing, which made the process more complicated and thus, needed a further collection of data from resources that publish on the above-mentioned engagement techniques.

The interpretivist method has been validated through comparing facts and figures on the campaigns on several online resources.

3.4.   Findings

The findings have been presented separately for each of the gamification and crowdsourcing techniques. Although crowdsourcing and gamification overlap in mechanics, where both can be based on recognition, achievement, status, altruism, collaboration, self-expression, reward and competition, yet separation was necessary in order to obtain a profound understanding on each occurrence and its impact on human rights campaigns.

3.4.1. WFP and Zynga

WFP extended its partnership to private sector corporations aiming at innovative solutions to tackle hunger issues. Such partnerships will broaden the targeted audience and most importantly will introduce a novel approach to the organizational campaigning strategies. WFP's Executive Director announced the partnership with Zynga Inc. as part of an innovative campaign to fight hunger around the world (WFP, 2010). Zynga is a leading social game services provider with more than 240 million people playing its games each month. Its gaming services include *CityVille*, *Zynga Poker*, *FarmVille*, *CastleVille* and *YoVille*. The games can be played on various platforms, such as Facebook, Google+, Yahoo!, Myspace and other smart phone operating systems. Zynga Inc. players brought over $10 million in donations for causes (Zynga Inc., 2012).

The collaboration between WFP and Zynga came in the form of limited edition items that were released to the players, where they purchased such items to enhance their game and the total amount raised was donated to WFP. After an earthquake hit Haiti in January 2010, Zynga and WFP introduced a virtual High Energy Biscuit that enhanced the farms with more productive capacity to Farmville players who purchased the item. The item release was purchased by the huge player base of Farmville and over $1 million was donated to Haiti children within two weeks. High Energy Biscuit is a real term that describes nutritious biscuits that the WFP distributes during emergencies and disasters. Such biscuits are ready-to-eat, high in supplements and last long time without any special storage system (WFP, 2012e).

Moreover, in Frontville, players can purchase a cage to protect from a certain animal, and in YoVille they can acquire two special bears to enhance their gaming experience. On the other hand, players of Explorers of Treasure Isle were able uncover a boat that increased their energy. As for Zynga Poker players, a special poker chips pack was released for $2 and also all the proceeds went to WFP. Moreover, $1 was donated from each purchase of all other chips packs collection (WFP, 2012e).

In total Zynga contributed to WFP's campaign with an overall amount of $4 million for Haiti relief (FoxNews.com, 2011).

3.4.2. AI and OpenIdeo

AI joined efforts with OpenIdeo in September 2011 to initiate an innovative open challenge that employs crowdsourcing in an attempt to identify technological tools that will help those held in prisons without any means of communication with the outside. The aim of the crowdsourced concept was to design digital tools that will decrease unfair imprisonment conditions and raise the number of fair trials for detainees (Kadri, 2011).

OpenIdeo is a website designed to bring people together to collaborate, exchange ideas and extract innovations in order to solve a problem or attend to a challenge. Usually, the website posts challenges in the form of questions that in turn are sponsored by non-profit organizations (OpenIdeo, 2012a). For instance, AI posed the question: *How can technology help people working to uphold human rights in the face of unlawful detention?* To answer such questions, the designers behind OpenIdeo website realized the significant number of online interactions, collaboration and activism and aimed at a design that can gather human resources for the social good (AIGA, 2011).

In the case of AI OpenIdeo challenge brief, the public was asked to empathize with such detainees by imagining that they were themselves detained without being given any information on the accusations directed against them, or held in secret prison without access to their family or lawyer. Then AI asked the public: If they were subjected to the above conditions, what technological tools would help the detainees, their families and the human rights defenders to bring about justice (Kadri, 2011).

3.5.   Challenges and limitations

The challenges that faced the research are greatly attributed to obtaining the data on the selected cases from the human rights organizations. Several electronic correspondence were sent to team leaders on the campaigns and to the campaigning departments, however, no response was received from any of the organizations. In the case of WFP, and email was sent to the Office of Global Private Partnership and Social Media and to the Global Media Coordination Team. Also, for Amnesty International, two emails were sent to both the Head

of Online Communities Team and to the Campaigning Team, in addition to a Facebook message to a contact person inside the International Secretariat.

However, as obtaining the data directly through a schedule proved not possible, the researcher had to alter the data collection and rely on published data on the organization's website, which was treated on the level of primary data due the authenticity of the source.

Being unable to conduct a schedule with campaign leaders, deterred the researcher from obtaining further data on redirected link clicks across the various social media and networking sites, and which were unavailable through manual online search on the specialized search sites. This data would increase the understanding of the users' behavior across the social websites and inferences could have been presented on how individuals exchange links pertaining to the campaigns on the World Wide Web.

Finally, sharing campaign insights with the public is not a common practice among the human rights organizations. Usually, data available are in the form of webpage entry, press release or campaign overview, contrary to corporations that share more profound marketing campaigns that act as promotional material in academic cases or in news coverage.

4.ENGAGEMENT AND HUMAN RIGHTS ORGANIZATIONS

This section will introduce the organizations and describe the engagement activities related to each case and discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the cases, while comparing with current successful engagement trends.

4.1. Gamification: The Case of WFP

4.1.1. The Organization

The World Food Programme (WFP) was founded in 1961 as a section of the United Nations that provides food assistance to individuals and families that are not able to produce or get sufficient food. WFP operates from its headquarters in Rome, in addition to more than other 80 offices worldwide and it employs over 15000 people (WFP, 2012c). It is the largest organization attending to hunger issues around the world, where food provisions reach an average of 90 million people each year in 73 countries, out of which 58 million are children (WFP, 2012d).

WFP's Executive Board consists of 36 representatives from member states and is headed by an Executive Director that is jointly appointed every five years by the UN Secretary General and the Director General of the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) (WFP, 2012a).

The organization is funded by voluntary contributions in order to meet its humanitarian and developmental objectives. Governments, corporations and individuals donate to WFP in the form of cash, food or other items (WFP, 2012b).

4.1.2. Discussion

Surely, the social networking site Facebook and its millions of players succeeded in providing a cause campaigning platform that translated virtual worlds into actual aid. The design of such games relies on engagement processes that encourage social networkers to play on Facebook and augment their social gaming experience through sharing, competing and helping others.

The players are granted virtual rewards when they return to the game within a short period of time. For instance, FarmVille asks its players to come back after 4 hours in order to harvest their crops, which is the aim of the game. Thus, this encourages players to come back and play further. Also, the fact, that the game offers certain activities only once per day, keeps the player wanting to come back to benefit from unlocked functionality before it expires. Such opportunities allow the player to compete and perform better, which in turn provide them with higher status and recognition on the ranking charts worldwide and within their circle of friends.

Further, players are rewarded for assisting their friends each day. For example, giving gifts to friends, such as 'fertilizing their crops' will increase the player's level of experience that allows them to gain more points and at the same time elevate their self-perception and altruistic feelings when they help others. And in order to make this social game more social, the players are rewarded with extra virtual cash and points once they visit other friend's farm. Or invite others to join the cause.

WFP logo was showed on the items, thus allowing the players who purchased the relief items to show their contribution to friends and share it on their social media and networking platforms. Further, snippets of information about how the items will be used to help people in real life were released in an amusing manner in order to maintain the entertainment factor of social gaming. Also, the introduction of a humanitarian cause into a simple processing game facilitated the campaign as players were not asked to go into another website to fill in a form or sign a petition, on the contrary the 'point and click' process of FarmVille was maintained. Players can log into Facebook and play FarmVille for only few minutes, a time more than sufficient for clicking to harvest or cultivate their farms, and thus, a one-step purchase transaction with Facebook credit to contribute to WFP.

Progress bars are displayed on the game platform, as well as on Facebook profile, thus motivating its players to achieve more. Buying the 'Biscuits' meant a progress in farming skills rather than solely a charity deed. Also, presenting past actions on the game everywhere on Facebook through coins, ribbons, cash and others allowed the users to value their actions and them meaning. Therefore, offering WFP items as part of a game satisfied players who are looking for more status, achievement and recognition, presented an aid opportunity to those who are willing to contribute to a human rights cause, and those who are after a bit of both.

In addition, the engaging part of the game is having Facebook friends playing too. This feature allowed networkers to stay more and keep coming back to check on the crops and the progress of other friends. The game prompts interaction with friends who are exchanging tips and spreading online word-of-mouth about new introductions, skills and items. Actions made by friends trigger similar behavior, hence leading to acquiring WFP items as part of the social gaming circle.

Acquiring the WFP biscuits also allowed the players to tackle the challenges of this social gaming experience. The design presents the players with increasing complexities as their experience, i.e. time spent playing the game and acquired skills, increases in order to keep them engaged and prevent boredom. WFP items helped in overcoming the game challenges and allowed the players to have more fun in upgrading their virtual farms and at the same time benefit the organization in attending to its cause.

The impact that WFP has made using a social gaming platform exceeds the actual money raised for the campaign. Forrester's report of May 2012 showed that 23% of social gamers are between the ages of 45 and 65, a range that includes middle to senior career individuals who are likely capable of donating to the organization. In addition, the research showed social gamers have a higher tendency to interact with brands on social networking sites (Kleinberg, 2011). Therefore, by getting into the platforms of social gamers rather than trying to pull them out to support a cause, the organization succeeded in addressing the urgency with people who are either willing to have fun or willing to help.

On the gaming level, although social games are not equivalent to gamification, yet the introduction of WFP items into social networking sites, in this case social gaming, and presenting them in the form of points, levels and badges, does make the fundraising campaign

a gamified process. Purchasing WFP items entailed fun, interaction, tactics, strategies and incentives, all of which motivated the behavior that the organization aspired for.

Moreover, what WFP items contributed to was the sense of progress and achievement that social gamers expect when they play FarmVille. This feeling of progress motivates the players to earn more points and levels, and consequently buy more of WFP's items to unlock further mastery in the game. The leaderboard of the game also showed the players contribution to the cause, thus satisfying their need for recognition as individuals who support and care for human rights causes (Kleinberg, 2011).

The WFP's gamified fundraising campaign lends its success to the organizations clear and well-identified objective. Although, gamification is the newest trend and top brands are employing it in their marketing campaigns, yet executing such processes just to follow the trend might not generate an impact, and it might harm the brand if poorly executed. It is clear that WFP recognized the potential of investing in social networking and media sites and what people are doing once they are logged in to such sites. WFP identified its objective: raising money, awareness and interest in Haiti relief after the earthquake in January 2010. Then the organization assessed the user behavior that would help achieve the goal of the campaign: motivation to satisfy the need for achievement, recognition, efficacy, altruism, prosocial behavior and others. However, to address those needs WFP connected its way to realize the goal through selecting the appropriate tactics that can trigger the behavior: gameplay. And finally, WFP presented an incentive that translated into a reward in points, skills and more productive virtual farms that lead to a meaningful experience of contributing to a humanitarian relief.

Gartner (2011) identified four ways that contribute to drive engagement through gamification, and which WFP's campaign complied with due to its partnership with a social gaming platform. First, instant feedback that the player receives when playing the game, and even after sharing, commenting and interacting on the social networking site, strongly contributes to higher engagement levels. Also, gamifying the fundraising process was carried out in accordance with FarmVille's simple and easy-click play process, thus enhancing the users' sense of achievement through an effortless and unconventional type of support. Further, presenting a persuasive narrative for the description of WFP's items and their corresponding impact within the boundaries of the game and beyond it encouraged players to engage and achieve the aim of the action. Finally, challenging the users throughout the game,

while providing certain items that can make short-term goals of the game achievable, such as the case with WFP's biscuits, also triggered the behavior to purchase the items and stay engaged.

In conclusion, gamification introduced engaging techniques to technology by relying on psychological tendencies to encourage the aspired behaviors and engage users in gaming. The dynamics of gamification motivated individuals to perform tasks that are usually perceived as boring or burdensome.

4.2.   Crowdsourcing: The Case of AI

4.2.1. The Organization

Amnesty International (AI) is a non-governmental organization that works for human rights worldwide. The organization focuses on key issues related to ending torture, eliminating death penalty and the rights of refugees, prisoners of conscience, women, children, indigenous peoples and minority groups (Amnesty International, 2012b).

AI is a movement-based organization that has over 3 million members and activists fighting against human rights violations in over 150 countries. The organization focuses on mobilizing its members and supporters by calling for protesting, writing letters, offline and online campaigning, lobbying and advocating (Amnesty International, 2012a).

It was established in 1961 to fight against unjust and arbitrary detention and currently, focuses on pressuring governments and officials to comply with the international laws and standards. AI is known for its long history in fighting human rights abuses and it has gained a significant recognition from governments, media and other organizations (Ron et al., 2005).

4.2.2. Discussion

In order to clarify the objective of the campaign, AI provided easy-to-read information packets along with visual illustrations. For instance, Figure **10** shows the way AI has put forth to the public the connection and level of the involved parties in the network of

support for the detained individual. This illustration is crucial for the process of designing a digital tool to help the detainees as communications and their channels of flow strongly contribute to the success and failure of desired outcome (Amnesty International, 2011).
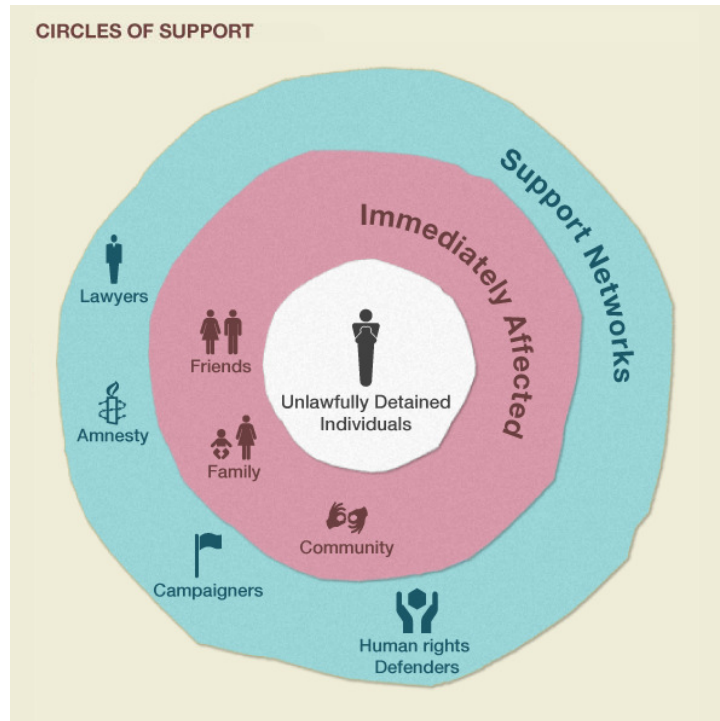

Figure 10: Ecosystem of Support, Amnesty International 2011

The open source challenge was viewed by thousands. Over 600 Facebook users recommended the challenge on their profiles (OpenIdeo.com) and 320 ideas were conceptualized (Kadri, 2011). The ideas that the public submitted followed an engaging process throughout the competition. Inspirations are the first steps of the challenge, where users posted videos, stories, pictures and other relevant resources to inspire each other and discuss difficulties and possible solutions.

Facilitators of the challenge work with the participants throughout the process, thus allowing them to move from the inspirational phase to the posting concepts and real ideas about solving the challenge. Participants post ideas ranging from business models to sections of codes to be embedded in existing technologies and websites. During the concept stage, facilitators focus on making the design more narrowed and adaptable, after which the challenge moves into the evaluation phase. Participants are given the opportunity to evaluate,

comment, point out weaknesses or praise ideas. Towards the end of the challenge a collaboration stage is initiated, where participants, along with facilitators, focus on using top ranked ideas to add features or mix them with other ideas to produce a final pool for voting. Although OpenIdeo participants compete to have their ideas win, yet since the team emphasizes the collaborative aspect of the challenge, even participants whose ideas did not make it to the top of the list are still encouraged to contribute to other people's ideas, by re-sharing, remixing and reusing inspirations (OpenIdeo, 2012b).

Selecting the winning concepts is carried out by expert panel after the ideas have been evaluated and voted for to the finalists list. The 16 finalists were presented to AI's panel that consisted of the Deputy Director of the Campaigns Team, Director of Digital Communications, AI Researcher and Interaction Designer. The panel selected 9 winning ideas based on AI's evaluation criteria: *technological feasibility, adaptability to different regions and groups, sustainability and reach out* (OpenIdeo, 2011).

This technique of open participation and crowdsourcing is not novel, but technology facilitated the widespread of such tools (Howe, 2006a) and users are engaged in such platforms for several reasons. People can feel a sense of recognition once their ideas are discussed and applauded. The motivation for achieving, creating, helping and sharing is directly influenced by the psychological disposition of the users. The rewards and although could be external, such as winning the AI's challenge and gain status and experience, but they also could satisfy the need to self-enhancement, self-achievement or the need to be prosocial and altruistic as is the case with Wikipedia.

OpenIdeo's website offered AI a new approach to outsourcing. The organization is actively trying to digitally tackle the issue of unlawful detention, whether through its human resources or through the services of another party. However, widening the circle to include the crowd, and among which those who are directly related to detention incidents, economically increased the number of the innovative technological suggestions that could be used for the cause.

The experience also added a fun element to the process. Gamified techniques, such as social rewards, recognition and status contributed to the engagement of the participants and motivated them to follow through the process and until the winners were announced. Further, the need to do 'good' and help others helped in maintaining a high participation in voting and

applauding, even when the person's idea was not selected, simply because the main goal is to help the unlawfully detained.

It is obvious in the comments posted by participants during the challenge that there are high levels of engagement as after the inspiration stage, some participants collaborated in teams and combined their ideas in order to meet the criteria of the competition. Also, the feedback posted on the uploaded concepts was taken into consideration by the idea initiators who in turn modified, upgraded or defended their concepts.

Participants were rewarded according to their contribution with points called Design Quotient (DQ) that was available on their profiles and which could easily be embedded into their social networking profiles. The DQ allowed the participants to share their achievement with all their friends and get feedback from them as well. This also, encouraged social networking friends to click on the link and go to the website for information or participation. The DQ acted as a motivation for the participants since it increased every time they collaborated, commented or built upon other people's concepts, thus showing the level of performance on social good and design proficiency (OpenIdeo, 2012b).

The website is already embedded with plug-ins that directly connects to most popular social networking and media sites, such as Fabeook, Twitter and Pinterest, which made it easier for the participants to spread the challenge and widen the circle of feedback.

AI is one of the human rights organizations that shifted towards investing in social capital as a source of problem-solving. Coleman (1988) referred to social capital as an accumulation of resources due to relationships formed by people.

4.3.   Recommendations for Human Rights Organizations

Gaming can be associated with unemployment and youth, a labeling that many researchers challenged (Brown 2009, Griffiths, Davies, and Chappell, 2004; Reeves and Read, 2009; and Youn, Lee, and Doyle, 2003). Reeves and Read (2009) point out that 35 years is the average age of gamers, 26% of the players are above the age of 50 and the mean household income of players in a widely played online game amounted to $85,000. Furthermore, they describe their term "Big Time" as pertaining to a one massive group of

people in their thirties that are exceeding 25 hours per week of online games, while still attending to their jobs and families.

In a study conducted by M2Research in 2011, it is estimated that the current gamification market will increase from $100 million to $2.8 billion in 4 years and the leading gamification service providers expect 197% growth in one year (M2 Research, 2011). Further, Gartner Report (2011) expects having a minimum of one gamified function in over 70% of the Global 2000 organizations. This is in addition to over 200 million people that are playing social games with no incentive or reward than that of a virtual world (BunchBall, 2011). Therefore, human rights organizations should not exclude their campaigns from this trending tool that is proving successful across the sectors. Such organizations may view gamified processes as a form of undermining the seriousness of the issues at hand; however, this assumption should be altered for several reasons. The people are available online, yet the times when organizations and corporations would wait for their clients and consumers to initiate a move has long gone. Smart campaigns are those that identify the platforms that people are hanging out in and seek to engage them in their own activities, rather than trying to pull groups into an activity that they neither find it entertaining nor appealing to engage with.

Predictions for the future of gamification based on market research evidently point at the innate human nature for play. People have tendency to enter into contests with each other, seek rewards and aspire for a good comment, all of which are felt in earning virtual points, likes, recognition, badges, progress and levels. Gamification is based on satisfying the people's desire to be recognized for their skills and proficiency.

Introduction of gamified processes also positively contributed to the success of crowdsourcing as it presented the tasks in an entertaining way, hence, allowing the users to enjoy the competitive dynamic. People enjoy contributing to a challenge, but if the tasks are formulated to entertain and engage them. For example, The Public Catalogue Foundation and the BBC opened a challenge for contribution, where the public was asked to tag the electronic images of the paintings collection in the National Gallery. Tagging the electronic images of the paintings will help in providing further information about each painting and will make it appear in more sophisticated searches. The website for this challenge, Your Paintings Tagger, also uses incentive schemes, such as Top Tagger, Tagger level and campaign progress bar (Your Paintings Tagger, 2012).

To utilize the potential of crowdsourcing, human rights organizations should identify the targeted public, whether it is everyone or only certain groups on social media and networking sites. Knowing the targeted crowd will significantly contribute to reaching them in the most efficient manner. Also, a clear and specific task should be posted to the crowds to help them invest skills and time in finding a solution, rather than disengage them with misunderstanding and frustration. In addition, organizations should ensure that the campaign processes and submission dates are clear for the participants in order to keep them engaged and looking forward to the next level in the challenge, while maintaining a sense of competition to meet the deadlines. Another important factor is the reward and incentive systems. Human rights organizations should seek to reward the participants throughout the process and even if their ideas or concepts were not selected, as is the case with AI and OpenIdeo, because any participant can still be engaged in feedback, suggestions and voting.

Human rights organizations also tend to separate themselves from the crowds, and thus leaving communications to authorized departments or individuals, however, people would feel more encouraged if the organization management got involved in the conversation or posted comments and feedback. This will give a sense of guidance, care and recognition. Moreover, the voting scheme in crowdsourcing also plays an important role in keep the crowds engaged. A sense of control over the outcome of the challenge will definitely give meaning to the contribution and significance to the participation.

Similar recommendations apply to gamified process. It is always necessary to define clear and specific goals and tailor them to the users' interest and platforms. Also, highlighting important activities that the users should prioritize will prevent confusion, outcast and disengagement and jazzing the process up with point scale system, leaderboards, levels, badges, ribbons and titles will quantify the value of the users' activity. Also here, feedback is essential in motivating the users, as it provides an instant reaction to their actions, therefore making them feel important and valued. Gamification also depends significantly on the social aspect of the internet. Human rights organizations should ensure that social media and networking friend circles are migrating into their campaign as teams. This will boost the participation as they will be encouraging each other.

Finally, using social media and networking sites in gamification and crowdsourcing is very important in promoting campaigns, however, it is also necessary to have a campaign

station through which all communications initiate and land. This will give the users a holistic view of the campaign, its progress and their achievements.

5.CONCLUSION

5.1.   Concluding remarks

The research aimed at shedding light on an unconventional perspective that human rights organizations would benefit from. Monitoring trending marketing schemes is very crucial if human rights organizations are to increase their impact. Consumer and market research studies reveal essential information each year that would permit human rights organization to target their audience in their own platforms and with their own words. It is now the time for such organizations to drop off traditional and bureaucratic practices and adopt new technological ones to their fullest potential.

5.2.   Recommendations for Further Research

The topic is relatively new and research in any aspect would be necessary for further understanding of online engagement. However, from this research a recommendation for a quantitative study that can measure the relationship between the satisfaction of the psychological needs and online engagement with human rights causes would be hoped for, as it will help paving a successful campaigning design for human rights organizations.

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