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Influence of gamification in marketing in
consumer behavior

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Content

Introduction

Gamification is widely used in various companies to achieve goals related to engagement of consumers [Tatarinov, 2019; Leclerq, Hammedi, Poncin, 2018], employees [Muradova et al., 2019; Mitchell, Schuster, Jin, 2020], students [Orlova, Titova, 2015; Aparicio et al., 2019]. The gamification market is gradually and steadily growing [Octalysis.ru, 2019], in terms of the distribution of market shares, the use of gamification for marketing purposes still occupies the first place, while at the same time, shares in human resources management, sales and IT-development are growing.

In modern world consumers are constantly being targeted by various brand communications, ads and sponsored promotion trying to grab their attention and earn their loyalty [Solis, 2011; Kannan et al., 2017]. As a response, companies need to put an extra effort to stand out, attract attention and engage consumers. Gamification has become a successful tool quickly due to its promising behavioral shifting effect and increasing attention from people with various demographics to the game industry [Forbes, 2019].

With the help of gamification, companies strive to overcome user barriers related to the routine of operations in information systems [Koivisto, Hamari, 2019], distance learning [Huang et al., 2019; Van Roy, Deterding, Zaman, 2019], consumer distrust in advertising messages [Seiffert-Brockmann, Weitzl, Henriks, 2018; Vashisht, Royne, Sreejesh, 2019; Van Roy, Zaman, 2019], as well as stimulate the creation of positive associations with them, which subsequently can lead to loyalty, better assimilation of the material, simplification of the introduction of new systems, etc. [Seaborn, Fels, 2015; Rapp et al., 2018; Koivisto, Hamari, 2019].

The relevance of studying gamification in marketing is primarily determined by the growing conflict between the existing theoretical knowledge about gamification in information systems and the effectiveness that gamification tools demonstrate when implemented in a real business context [Xi, Hamari, 2019].

In the studies of gamification in management, several main areas can be distinguished: 1) gamification of information systems and knowledge management systems 2) gamification of processes of adaptation and training of personnel 3) gamification of processes of interaction of consumers with the brand.

In Russia, the massive use of gamification in marketing is primarily associated with grocery retailers. Since the 2010s, the largest brands in the industry, such as Dixy, Magnit, Lenta, and X5 retail group, have been launching large-scale gamified promotional campaigns on an ongoing basis [Klimova, 2018]. Among these campaigns are classic loyalty programs, short-term promotions to stimulate sales of a goods and increase the average check. In addition to them, campaigns to promote films, television shows and series are immensely popular through the creation of brand

alliances (Frozen - 2 in the Perekrestok, Avengers in the Pyaterochka, etc.). However, despite the widespread distribution of gamified campaigns, its real purpose, structure and value obtained remain questionable by both producers and consumers. Companies struggle to find proof and consistency in results of gamification application [Hassan, 2018]. Consumers are starting to grow skepticism towards the gamification due to its frequent mention in media sources and the fact that marketers use advergames as a covert advertising instrument [Wojdynski, Evans, 2019], the perception of which spillovers to gamification in any manifestation, due to lacking understanding of the concept boundaries.

Gamification involves a range of stakeholders at different stages of its development and implementation. The experience, management of outcomes, extent to which behavior is expected to change and chain of consequences it will lead at other stages of consumer behavior should take into account the interests of all parties involved and at the same time remain sensitive to this variation [Thorpe, Roper, 2019] from ethical point of view.

Most of the research in the field of gamification is devoted to the study of individual mechanics or to testing hypotheses regarding the motivational mechanisms that they act on, which is called the "era of motivational research" [Koivisto, Hamari, 2019]. The disadvantages of the conceptualization of gamification and its operationalization with the existing approaches to definition, which were noted earlier, also affect the level of publications devoted to its study. Most of them have a well-developed empirical component, but the theoretical basis and the determination of the place of gamification in management theory are fragmented. The authors put forward weighty arguments in favor of the positive effects of gamification on the behavior of users of systems and consumers of products, but their practical recommendations, as a rule, are relevant only to designers of information systems.

1.1. Research problem

Many companies struggle to choose between variety of interactive tools which can solve the issue of consumers attraction and, more, importantly, retention. Loyalty remains even more desirable outcome of relationship with consumers [Cheng et al., 2020]. Value companies are trying to create must be easily adaptable and offer the consumer what is the most pressing need. A growing number of researchers agree that utilitarian values are inferior to hedonic ones [Koivsto, Hamari, 2019] and companies need to adopt those marketing instruments that will provide hedonic pleasure of experience to consumer. Gamification is exactly that kind of instrument [Rapp et al., 2018; Eisengerich et al., 2019; Mullins, Subherwal, 2018].

The main purpose of using gamification is to modify consumer behavior [Huotari, Hamari, 2017; Hofacker, 2013]. According to an impressive list of studies testing this effect, in most cases, gamification changes behavior and shifts it toward the desired [Sailer et al., 2017; Seaborn, Fels,

2015; Mekler et al., 2017, Kim, Ahn, 2017], however, the mechanism that underlines those changes is still being argued among researchers.

Since the beginning of the study of gamification, mainly in the field of information management, the school of motivational research has been developed [Koivisto, Hamari, 2019]. Scientists who tested the effectiveness of various gamification mechanics have come to the conclusion that the changes it causes in human behavior are associated with increased intrinsic motivation [Hamari, 2015; Sailer et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2017; Mitchel et al., 2018]. The main theoretical background has become the self-determination theory (SDT) [Deci, Ryan, 2000].According to this theory the boost of intrinsic motivation helps to overcome negative effects of external stimuli or limitations and prolong the self-motivation effect [Deci, Ryan, 2000]. The theory at first has been used in education, but quickly became useful on gamification research, became almost all systems and activities which had the need to be gamified have contained at least one external stimuli [Seaborn, Fels, 2015]. However, there were some researchers that suggest that just the boost of an intrinsic motivation is not the only factor influenced the outcome of gamification implementation. Some researchers assume that personal characteristics of "users as players" are essential to determine the best way to design the gamification [Tondello et al., 2019; Lopes, Tucker, 2019]. Some argued that the characteristics of a platform, system or program that has been gamified play more significant role in determination of outcome change [Eppman et al., 2018; Leclerq et al., 2020].

Despite which of the mechanisms of gamification was taken as a basis by the researcher, several things remained unclear. First, in determining the design of gamification, the lack of clear boundaries separating gamification from other game formats led to the testing of similar hypotheses in absolutely different research designs which were difficult to compare or generalize [Leclerq et al., 2018; Eppman et al., 2018]. On the other hand, stereotyped of experimental designs chosen to test effects led to limited field that have been covered by those studies [Koivisto, Hamari, 2019]. Second, studies of the effects of gamification on behavior focused on testing the effects of specific elements [Sailer et al., 2017], and regardless of context and goals, it was assumed that consumers perceive these game elements in the same way. This assumption has not been tested in studies until recently. In the context of online courses, it was found that users functionalize certain game elements in their own way but other than have been meant, which led to the conclusion about possibility to explain gamification effect with other theories than self-determination [Roy et al., 2019]. Finally, in the context of marketing, gamification is primarily regarded as an engagement tool [Nobre, Ferreira, 2017; Leclerq et al., 2018]. Recently it have been noted that each tool that involves changing behavior should take into account the ethical aspects of possible manipulation [Thorpe, Roper, 2019]. Such a statement led to the question about consumer perspective on

gamification as a holistic process and a marketing tool. Current literature cannot provide arguments regarding the position of the consumer, due to the lack of a general positioning of gamification in the theory of consumer behavior and, in particular, the lack of a sufficient measure to grasp it.

1.2. Aim of the study

Gamification in marketing needs to be researched in the realms of consumer behavior theory to draw a full picture of a consumer perspective and understand the manipulative nature of a concept. This study aims to answer following research questions:

Research question 1: How to define the boundaries of gamification in marketing?

Research question 2: How an implementation of gamification as an engagement tool influences the formation of behavioral intentions?

Research question 3: How the recognition of a gamification manipulative intent will influence the formation of an intrinsic motivation?

The aim of the study is to develop and test a theoretical model which will allow to investigate relationships between consumer recognition of gamification as a persuasion tool, behavioral intentions and the effect it has on intrinsic motivation as underlining mechanism of gamification success.

This goal requires the following tasks:

1. Clarify the concept of "gamification" and compare existing approaches to define it
2. Introduce the approach which will allow to study gamification from consumer's perspective
3. Identify necessary measures for understanding the recognition and perception of gamification
4. Identify behavioral intentions which will help to test an effect of the recognition and perception of gamification
5. Test the relationships between the recognition and perception of gamification and behavioral intentions empirically
6. Propose a theoretical model of the relationship between the recognition of a gamification as a manipulation and it influence on intrinsic motivation.
7. Test the developed model empirically on the similar sample to the previous stage to make results at same level

1.3. Research design

To answer the questions posed, it was necessary to conduct a series of theoretical and empirical studies.

The tasks set required not only testing the hypotheses put forward, but also a consistent analysis of the literature, amending the existing conceptualization of gamification and developing a measure to use in testing the consumer perspective.

However, we began research in a not conventional way. Trying to better understand the problem of the current business where gamification is popular, we have uncovered conflicting constructs that have been used to measure the same outcome, which gamification was supposed to change - loyalty. Loyalty management is ongoing issue for the business and, since it is easier than ever for consumers to switch companies are trying to engage them even more. Expert session we have had with the business representatives have showed that they are a) have different attitude towards gamification, because they understand its complexity not in a similar way and b) they struggle to find suitable measure for loyalty where they would be able to incorporate gamification efficiency indicators. That expert session led to the research project dedicated to study various systems of loyalty management and comparison of to find the best suitable solution for each case of interactive marketing tool implementation including gamification.

The first article is a result of this project. It presents an integrated model of approaches to loyalty management which have become the foundation to the development of a research model. Results of this article also helped to select the most relevant indicators of behavioral intentions which were tested in the concluding research paper.

At the second stage it was necessary to understand the existing picture of research in the field of gamification in management. Despite the fact that the concept of gamification appeared relatively recently, its popularity led to the fact that among a huge amount of research it was difficult to track the development trends of this area in management, and even more so in marketing. The main work of researchers in the field of gamification was aimed at developing an understanding and testing of the phenomenon in the field of information management. Although the results obtained by scientists working both in the field of information management and in the fields of training were useful, they were not always applicable for the needs of marketing research. The main gap that existed was associated with blurring the boundaries of the concept and the difficulties of its operationalization. To close this gap, a structured analysis of the literature was carried out, where only publications in international journals of the ABS category and a couple of seminal papers from the major conference were taken as the basis. The literature analysis made it possible to single out approaches to the definition and operationalization of gamification. These approaches became the basis for the further development of a theoretical framework and the

development of a measure dedicated to reflecting consumer perspective. In addition, this article identified the main areas of gamification research in management, in which the main limitations and agenda for the future research were highlighted.

Despite the fact that the main conclusions on the theory of gamification in management were made on the basis of the previous article, the question remained open about the mechanisms of gamification and the applicability of the theory of self-determination in a marketing context. To answer this question, an additional analysis of the literature was carried out on the subject of existing theories about the work of gamification. To test we have decided to choose a marketing related context which would be appropriately generic but will contain the necessity to engage participants. The context we have been chosen - marketing surveys. Analysis of gamification of marketing survey not only presented main theories with pros and cons for implementation, but distinctive conceptualization of relationship between gamification design and behavioral outcomes, considering the characteristics of the participants. In addition, this study expanded the understanding of gamification in management by adopting the notion of "gamification intensity" from research stream dedicated to online surveys.

Next logical step was to develop a measure of consumer recognition and perception of gamification. To do this, we analyzed existing measures which are to some extent are related to gamification. Based on an understanding of what is missing, we resorted to a three-step process for creating and testing the scale. At the first stage, we conducted focus groups, during which the participants determined on the questions asked how much they recognize gamification. We adopted persuasion knowledge model there for the item development because our main research idea was to test the dichotomy of gamification as both motivation and persuasive tool. After we have gathered and analyzed responses the initial scale has been developed and later analyzed by the team of experts. After the experts 'discussion the scale has been shortened and an approbation has been conducted.

With a well-developed theory and a working scale, we proceeded to the design of the main study, where two theoretical models were developed. The first model was designed to find the relationship between perceived gamification - the concept we developed at the previous stage to test recognition and perception of gamification - and behavioral outcomes. We have introduced such variables as brand attitude and game attitude to fully represent persuasion knowledge tirade, where perceived gamification is the conceptualization of a persuasion knowledge and game attitude is referred as a topic knowledge. Having found out that perceived gamification along with brand attitude has significant influence to behavioral intentions we have chosen to study - advocacy and willingness to participate - we started testing the relationship between consumer identification of gamification as manipulation and intrinsic motivation. Here have introduced

another variable - playfulness. Playfulness is a necessary characteristic when it comes to involving consumers in a game-like activity, which is clothed in the form of a certain system. For testing, one of the most popular promotions of the McDonald's fast-food restaurant chain was selected and the second promo of the same chain, which contained the same game elements on the network, but has been less intensively gamified due to the lack of direct brand alliance with the game.

Further work will be structured as following:

- Texts of all aforementioned articles will be presented in appointed order
- Results of the whole research project will be discussed after.

Article 1. Подходы к управлению потребительской лояльностью: перспектива "3D"

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В данной статье ставится задача переосмыслить определение основных подходов к управлению лояльностью и выделить критерии, позволяющие компании выбрать наиболее релевантный подход. В исследовании приводится аналитический обзор литературы, посвященной вопросам определения и управления лояльностью, а также причин и следствий их многообразия. В результате анализа эволюции подходов к определению и управлению лояльностью разработана трехмерная модель классификации существующих подходов к управлению потребительской лояльностью с точки зрения трех перспектив: *Dimensions* (какие грани лояльности клиентов учитываются?), *Differentiation* (осуществляется ли дифференциация клиентов по степени лояльности и адаптируются ли управленческие усилия к специфике различных сегментов клиентов?) и *Decision journey* (учитывается ли динамика формирования лояльности на различных этапах клиентского пути?). Сравнительный анализ этих перспектив дает возможность выявить и учесть недостатки подходов, применяемых компаниями к управлению лояльностью потребителей, и предложить более широкую трактовку лояльности как феномена в изменяющихся условиях. Среди факторов, способных повлиять на выбор компанией того или иного подхода к управлению лояльностью, выделяются особенности поведения потребителей на рынке, техническая реализуемость подхода, его экономическая целесообразность, возможность получения синергетического эффекта от комбинации подходов. Дополнительную актуальность исследованию придает усложнение системы факторов, влияющих на развитие потребительской лояльности в условиях интеграции цифровых технологий и социальных платформ в ежедневное взаимодействие компании с клиентами. Одним из основных ограничений представленного исследования является необходимость

эмпирической проверки результативности применения описанных подходов к управлению лояльностью на репрезентативной выборке компаний.

Ключевые слова: потребительская лояльность, управление потребительской лояльностью, управление клиентским опытом.

ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Управление потребительской лояльностью является центральной задачей функции маркетинга. Утверждение, что привлечение новых клиентов обходится компании дороже, чем удержание существующих, стало своеобразной управленческой аксиомой [Reichheld, Schefter, 2000]. Актуальность проблемы управления потребительской лояльностью подтверждается стабильно высоким интересом к данной сфере практиков, академических исследователей и консалтинговых фирм. Публикации на тему лояльности систематически появляются в авторитетных журналах по маркетингу, менеджменту и поведению потребителей (см. обзор в [Watson et al., 2015]). За свою более чем полувековую историю концепция лояльности претерпела множество изменений, превратившись из одномерного в многомерный конструкт, включающий в себя разнообразные аспекты потребительского поведения, в том числе готовность рекомендовать продукты компании, платить за них более высокую цену и низкую чувствительность к предложениям конкурентов и др. (см., напр.: [Guest, 1944; Day, 1969; Dick, Basu, 1994; Oliver, 1999; Reichheld, 2003; De Haan, Verhoef, Wiesel, 2015]). Ведущие исследовательские и консалтинговые компании выводят на рынок собственные методики управления потребительской лояльностью (например, GfK Loyalty Plus, Ipsos Loyalty Kantar-TNS TRI*M), которые представляют собой пакеты инструментов, позволяющих оценивать и развивать лояльность клиентов.

Теоретическое усложнение концепции потребительской лояльности не нашло однозначного отражения на уровне ее практического применения. Это подтверждается высокой популярностью среди компаний индекса потребительской лояльности, или индекса промоутера — NPS (Net Promoter Score), который измеряет лояльность клиентов с помощью одного вопроса: «Насколько Вы готовы рекомендовать нашу компанию своим друзьям и коллегам?» [Reichheld, 2003]. Распространение данного подхода привело к тому, что для многих компаний основной задачей при управлении лояльностью стало увеличение количества потребителей, дающих компании максимально высокую оценку по показателю NPS. Однако авторы ряда исследований демонстрируют ограниченность такого подхода к управлению лояльностью (см., напр.: [Keiningham et al., 2007; De Haan, Verhoef, Wiesel, 2015]).

Еще одна тенденция в управлении лояльностью — это ценовое стимулирование клиентов к совершению повторной покупки с помощью разнообразных программ лояльности. В результате компании рискуют привлечь преимущественно потребителей, ориентированных на наиболее финансово выгодное предложение и готовых легко переключиться на другой продукт, как только эта выгода пропадет [Старов, 2007; Бест, 2017]. В то же время потребители, для которых построение отношений с компанией и уникальный клиентский статус являются более важными составляющими, чем разовая выгода, часто не получают должного внимания и уходят [Henderson, Beck, Palmatier, 2011].

Несмотря на высокую значимость проблемы и растущий объем исследований и разработок в области управления лояльностью, в научно-практическом сообществе до сих пор не существует единого мнения о том, что включает в себя концепция потребительской лояльности и какие инструменты необходимы компаниям для формирования, поддержания и развития лояльности клиентов [Aksoy, 2013; Watson et al., 2015]. Неоднозначное состояние исследовательской области осложняется тем, что в условиях возрастающей интеграции в потребительскую активность современных технологий, социальных платформ и электронной коммерции происходит усложнение системы факторов, влияющих на покупательское поведение, что делает устоявшиеся подходы к управлению лояльностью нерелевантными. Кроме того, цифровая трансформация дает возможность компаниям разрабатывать новые подходы, основанные на анализе больших данных, цифровых следов и персонализации. Подобные изменения порождают дополнительные вопросы о том, какое место эти подходы занимают в существующей системе координат и являются ли они универсальным ответом на вызовы управления потребительской лояльностью в современных реалиях.

Цель статьи заключается в определении ключевых подходов к управлению лояльностью потребителей и разработке критериев, позволяющих организациям выбрать наиболее релевантный подход. На основе анализа актуального состояния исследований разработана трехмерная модель «3D», классифицирующая существующие подходы к управлению потребительской лояльностью с точки зрения трех перспектив: *Dimensions* (какие грани лояльности клиентов учитываются?), *Differentiation* (осуществляется ли дифференциация клиентов по степени лояльности и адаптируются ли управленческие усилия к специфике различных сегментов клиентов?) и *Decision journey* (учитывается ли динамика формирования лояльности на различных этапах клиентского пути?).

В первой части статьи проанализированы наиболее значимые публикации по теме управления потребительской лояльностью, а также выявлены основные направления исследований в данной области. Во второй представлена «3D»-модель подходов к

управлению потребительской лояльностью, осуществлен их сравнительный анализ и предложены критерии выбора наиболее релевантного для компании подхода. В заключении приводится сопоставительный анализ перспектив и подходов, а также набор факторов, которые могут оказывать влияние на выбор подходов к управлению лояльностью на практике.

ОСНОВНЫЕ НАПРАВЛЕНИЯ ИССЛЕДОВАНИЙ ПОТРЕБИТЕЛЬСКОЙ ЛОЯЛЬНОСТИ

Концепция лояльности впервые была предложена в 1940-х гг. [Guest, 1944], после чего неоднократно пересматривалась, уточнялась и усложнялась. В рамках данной статьи анализируются ключевые публикации, имеющие высокие показатели цитируемости, авторы которых пытаются концептуально уточнить или переосмыслить подходы к управлению потребительской лояльностью. Обобщая основные предпосылки и результаты исследований, предлагается выделить три перспективы, которые отражены в акрониме «3D», где каждая буква соответствует сокращенному названию одной из них — Dimensions (измерения, аспекты, грани), Differentiation (дифференциация) и Decision journey (клиентский путь). Далее более подробно представлено каждое из направлений.

Dimensions (грани потребительской лояльности). Наиболее ранние исследования представляли лояльность как одномерный конструкт и фокусировались на изучении одного из двух ее проявлений — декларируемого потребителем превосходства бренда над конкурентами [Guest, 1944; 1955] либо фактической доли бренда на рынке [Cunningham, 1956]. Данные исследования стали основой формирования композитного конструкта, в рамках которого лояльность рассматривается как сочетание отношенческого и поведенческого предпочтения бренда по отношению к конкурентам [Day, 1969]. При этом отношенческий и поведенческий компоненты взаимодополняют друг друга, и для признания клиента лояльным необходимо одновременное присутствие обоих. Эта логика впоследствии легла в основу методологии оценки эффективности мероприятий по удержанию клиентов [Rust, Zahorik, 1993]. С ее учетом были построены исследования, посвященные обоснованию наиболее корректных методов оценки лояльности к бренду и созданию эффективного дизайна программ лояльности [Старов, 2017]. Исследователи в области промышленного маркетинга предлагали свои наборы компонентов, составляющих лояльность клиентов [Ивашкова, Гончарова, 2007; Rauyruen, Miller, 2007 и др.].

Дальнейшее развитие концепции лояльности было предпринято в работе [Dick, Basu, 1994], авторы которой попытались рассмотреть природу взаимосвязи между поведенческим и отношенческим компонентами лояльности. Исследователи пришли к

заключению, что данные компоненты не обязательно являются взаимосвязанными и можно выделить различные виды лояльности, которые характеризуются преобладанием одного из них. Например, высокая оценка потребителем бренда, не подкрепленная активным покупательским поведением, проявляется в *латентной лояльности*, а потребление продуктов компании, не сопровождающееся выраженной привязанностью или положительным отношением к ней, — в *ложной лояльности* [Dick, Basu, 1994].

Наиболее распространено мнение о том, что комбинация отношенческой и поведенческой лояльности представляет собой состояние *истинной лояльности*, к которой должны стремиться компании в рамках управления взаимоотношениями с клиентами. Однако развитие истинной лояльности на некоторых рынках не всегда достижимо. Например, ложная лояльность особенно характерна при приобретении продуктов импульсивного спроса, когда у потребителя не формируется позитивного отношения к продукту или производителю до совершения покупки, в результате чего его отношения с компанией поддерживаются по инерции и не включают эмоциональную составляющую [Rowley, 2005]. Отношенческая лояльность, не сопровождаемая покупкой, обладает самостоятельной ценностью, поскольку стимулирует потребительскую готовность рекомендовать продукт и распространять информацию о нем.

Еще более детализированный взгляд на природу потребительской лояльности представлен в работе [Oliver, 1999], ставшей одной из наиболее цитируемых по этой проблематике. Автор выделил четыре вида лояльности, каждый из которых имеет свои основания и проявления. Когнитивная лояльность базируется на осознании преимущества бренда по отношению к конкурентам и удовлетворенности от использования продуктов/услуг компании. Аффективная лояльность выражается в наличии эмоциональной привязанности к бренду. Конативная лояльность характеризуется готовностью потребителя продолжать взаимодействие с брендом, которая тем не менее не всегда сопровождается повторными покупками. Разрыв между намерениями и реализуемым поведением в данном случае может быть связан с появлением более привлекательных конкурентных предложений или другими ситуационными влияниями. Активная лояльность представляет собой более устойчивую форму взаимоотношений, когда внешние факторы перестают оказывать значимое влияние на поведение клиентов, которые демонстрируют снижение чувствительности к предложениям конкурентов, готовы расширять отношения с компанией и платить более высокую цену за ее продукты, тем самым способствуя повышению ее прибыльности.

Позднее было продемонстрировано, что поведенческая лояльность не всегда сопровождается ростом прибыльности, а иногда, напротив, снижает ее вследствие слишком

высоких инвестиций компании в лояльных клиентов, которые не способствуют дальнейшему развитию отношений (например, расширению спектра потребляемых клиентом продуктов) [Reinartz, Kumar, 2002; Kumar, Shah, 2004]. Кроме того, исследователи установили, что поведенческая лояльность не обязательно проявляется в активной форме; в ряде случаев клиенты пользуются продуктами/услугами компании по инерции и не разрывают отношения из-за высоких издержек переключения, однако развивать взаимоотношения они не готовы [Dick, Basu, 1994; Ganesh, Arnold, Reynolds, 2000; Rowley, 2005].

Таким образом, со временем понимание лояльности усложнялось в направлении от одномерного к многомерному: выделялись новые виды лояльности, которые имели специфические эмпирические проявления (рис. 1). При этом многочисленные теоретические попытки установить взаимосвязь между различными видами и проявлениями лояльности не всегда выдерживали эмпирическую проверку [Jones, Taylor, 2007; Rundle-Thiele, 2005; Zhang, Gangwar, Seetharaman, 2017]. Наличие различных видов лояльности, лишь одна из которых может быть желательной для компании, наталкивает на размышления о том, как определить, измерить, а главное — управлять различными видами лояльности для достижения максимального результата.
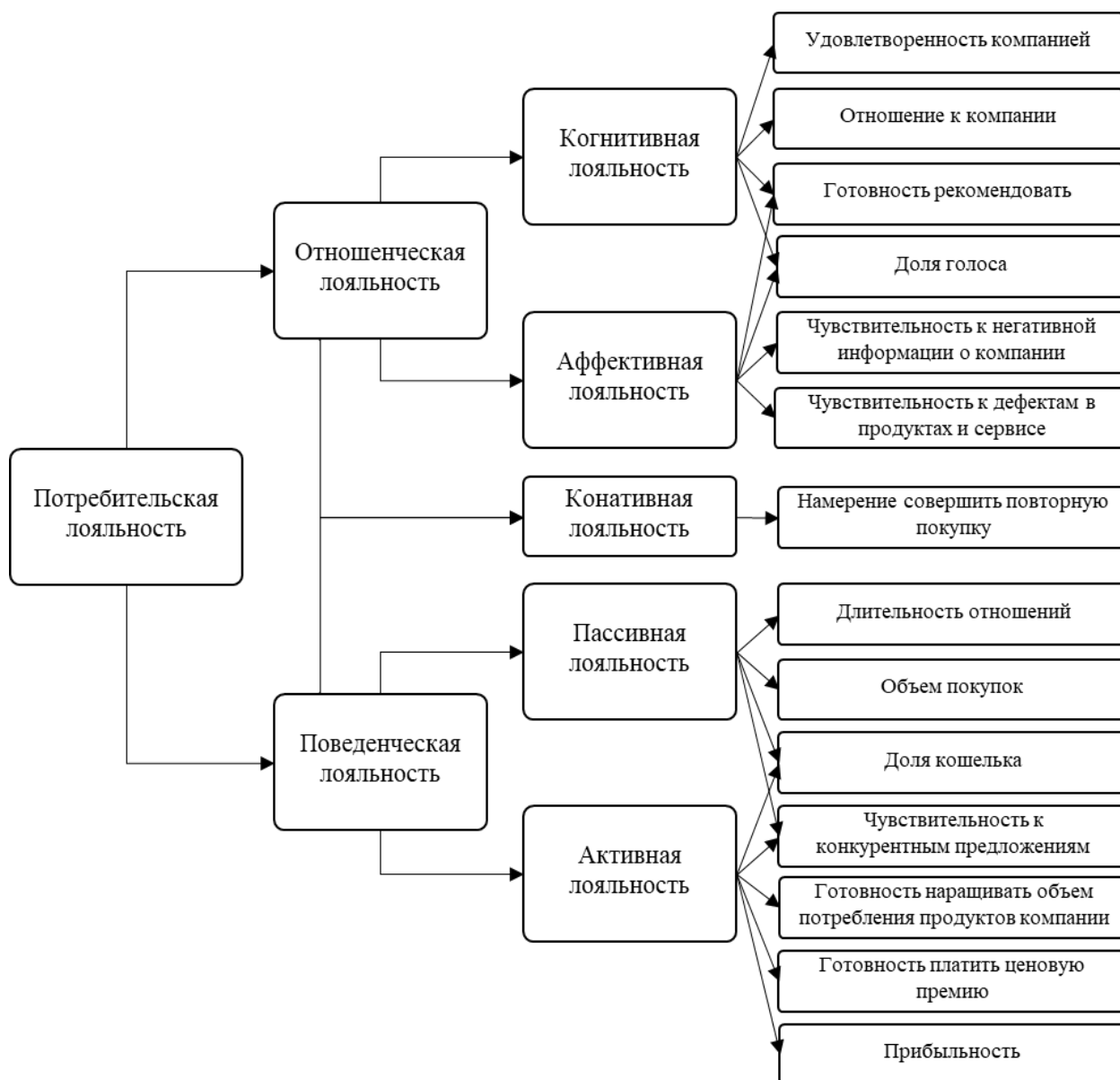
Рис. 1. Виды и проявления потребительской лояльности

Усложнение концепции потребительской лояльности проявляется в многообразии понятийного аппарата и влияет на исходное восприятие того, как выстраивать стратегию управления лояльностью — стараться охватить все виды комплексно или воздействовать на один-два более приоритетных для компании на данном этапе. На рис. 1 в правой части представлена разветвленная сеть показателей, отражающих потенциальные последствия и результаты каждого из видов лояльности. Такой комплексный подход может потребовать от компании весьма сложной системы сбора информации для ее последующего анализа.

Differentiation (дифференциация клиентов по уровню лояльности). Взгляд на различные виды лояльности как на потенциально независимые привел к появлению исследований, в которых предлагалось выделять сегменты потребителей со схожим видом лояльности (см., напр.: [Бест, 2017; Knox, 1998]). Данный подход представляет собой

следующий этап в процессе управления лояльностью и позволяет сделать взаимодействие с потребителем более персонализированным.

Одна из наиболее распространенных на рынке практик по управлению поведенческой лояльностью — стимулирование потребителей к совершению повторных покупок с помощью ценовых акций, основанных на предоставлении рациональных (утилитарных) выгод [Старов, 2017; El-Adly, Eid, 2016; Blut, Teller, Floh, 2018]. Причем во многих программах лояльности особенности потребителей, имеющих различную историю взаимоотношений с компанией, по-прежнему учитываются лишь отчасти [Шерешева, Березка, 2014], хотя предпринимается все больше усилий по персонализации программ и формированию положительного опыта взаимодействия, а не просто поощрения факта присоединения к программе. Когда постоянным клиентам, имеющим долгую историю взаимоотношений с компанией и генерирующим значительный объем покупок, предлагаются те же выгоды, что и новым клиентам, у первых может возникнуть ощущение несправедливости [Eggert, Steinhoff, Garnefeld, 2015]. Кроме того, постоянные клиенты в меньшей степени склонны изменять свое поведение под воздействием ценового стимулирования, чем клиенты с короткой историей отношений [Steinhoff, Palmatier, 2016]. В результате, проводя массовые акции, компании упускают возможность предложить потребителями уникальные выгоды, что могло бы послужить созданию дополнительной ценности как для клиентов, так и для самой компании.

В качестве ответа на возникший вызов, связанный с необходимостью учета различий в поведении потребителей при разработке управленческих решений, исследователи стали предпринимать попытки дифференции потребителей, выделяя на основании различных индикаторов группы со схожим видом лояльности (табл. 1). В первом столбце таблицы приведены концепции дифференциации потребителей по видам лояльности, главная цель которых – представить более детальный взгляд на проблему определения лояльности и управления ею.

Одной из первых концепций, получивших широкую известность, является «Бриллиант лояльности» (Diamond of Loyalty) С. Нокса [Knox, 1998]. Его идею продолжает и развивает концепция «4C» [Rowley, 2005], где в основе классификации лежит типология лояльности А. Дика и К. Басу [Dick, Basu, 1994]. Среди практиков популярна концепция Р. Беста [Бест, 2017], в которой предлагается распределять потребителей по категориям на основе «Индекса лояльности», разработанного автором, а также «Лестница лояльности» (Loyalty Ladder) М. Кристофера и его соавторов [Christopher, Payne, Ballentyne, 2002].

Все концепции строятся на предположении, что в зависимости от силы поведенческого и отношенческого компонентов лояльность будет проявляться

неодинаково, иметь разные устойчивость и индикаторы. Однако вне зависимости от различий в уровне проявления компонентов лишь одна группа потребителей продемонстрирует категоричное отсутствие лояльности, остальные будут представлять для компании интерес при грамотном подходе к управлению их портфелем. В каждой концепции предлагается своя классификация клиентов по типам лояльности, где авторы часто повторяют или слегка модифицируют предыдущие версии этих классификаций.

Наиболее распространенной основой для дифференциации является комбинация поведенческих (например, объем покупок) и отношенческих (например, удовлетворенность) индикаторов, полученных на основании данных об истории клиентов. В отличие от исторических, опережающие поведенческие (например, готовность совершать повторные покупки) и отношенческие (например, готовность рекомендовать) индикаторы направлены на измерение намерений потребителей реализовывать определенное поведение в будущем. Индикаторы прибыльности направлены на измерение ценности клиента в прошлом (например, фактическая прибыль, полученная в результате взаимодействия с клиентом) или будущем (например, пожизненная ценность, готовность платить ценовую премию).

Таблица 1. **Сравнительный анализ концепций дифференциации клиентов**

Концепция	Индикаторы дифференциации клиентов					
	Исторические			Опережающие		
	Поведенческие	Отношенческие	Индикаторы прибыльности	Поведенческие	Отношенческие	Индикаторы прибыльности
Матрица «Удовлетворенность — лояльность» [Jones, Sasser, 1995]	+	+	–	–	+	–
«Бриллиант лояльности» [Knox, 1998]	+	+	–	–	–	–
Матрица «Прибыльность — лояльность» [Reinartz, Kumar, 2002]	+	–	+	–	–	–
«Лестница лояльности» [Christopher, Payne, Ballentyne, 2002]	+	–	–	–	+	–
«4С» [Rowley, 2005]	+	+	–	+	–	–
«Индекс лояльности» [Бест, 2017]	+	+	+	+	+	–
«Пожизненная ценность клиента» [Третьяк, 2011; Venkatesan, Kumar, 2004]	+	–	+	–	–	+

П р и м е ч а н и я: « + » индикатор используется для дифференциации клиентов; «–» индикатор не используется для дифференциации клиентов.

Сопоставление основных концепций (табл. 1) позволяет выделить четыре типа потребителей по уровню лояльности, которые по своим характеристикам являются общими для большинства классификаций: лояльные, неприбыльные, «пленники» и постоянные.

Лояльные потребители (loyals) демонстрируют высокое значение обеих компонент — и поведенческой и отношенческой, — что выражается в готовности платить премиальную цену [Henderson, Beck, Palmatier, 2011], совершать повторные покупки, а также в желании делиться позитивной информацией о компании и поддерживать частые взаимодействия с ней. Противоположным типом являются *неприбыльные потребители* (unprofitable), которые характеризуются низкой покупательской активностью и отрицательным отношением к компании. Они будут пытаться злоупотреблять акциями ценового стимулирования (например, активно собирать пробники и подарки, никогда в дальнейшем не покупая товар), не испытывая позитивного отношения к компании. Кроме того, подобные покупки сопровождаются негативными отзывами (например, в связи с публичными скандалами в магазине), из-за чего этот тип потребителей иногда называют «террористами» [Jones, Sasser, 1995]. «*Пленники*» (captive) тоже представляют собой тип потребителей, негативно настроенных по отношению к компании; однако в отличие от неприбыльных они активно приобретают продукты компании, так как по различным причинам не имеют возможности переключиться на другого производителя [Бест, 2017]. Компания может использовать привычку таких потребителей к совершению покупки для их перевода в категорию более лояльных через развитие эмоциональной привязанности к определенной группе своих товаров [Zhang, Gangwar, Seetharaman, 2017]. *Постоянные потребители* (repeat) характеризуются средней частотой совершения покупок, средней суммой покупок и нейтральным отношением к компании (готовы поделиться мнением, если спросят) [Бест, 2017]. В отличие от «пленников» постоянные потребители относятся к компании позитивно, однако не испытывают к ней сильной эмоциональной привязанности. Именно такой тип потребителей больше всего склонен к проявлению *полигамной лояльности*, если речь идет об управлении лояльностью в офлайн-ритейле [Zhang, Gangwar, Seetharaman, 2017].

В работах [Бест, 2017; Knox, 1998; Christopher, Payne, Ballantyne, 2002; Rowley, 2005] для разграничения потребителей по типам лояльности также использовались такие критерии, как цели совершения покупки и этапы взаимодействия, учет которых позволил выделить еще три типа потребителей: «искатели», «адвокаты» и «новые потребители».

«*Искатели*» (seekers) постоянно заняты поиском наиболее выгодных альтернатив [Knox, 1998], и поэтому их взаимодействие с компанией в целом достаточно фрагментарно. Для них характерен высокий уровень скептицизма относительно выстраивания

долгосрочных отношений с компанией, однако они обладают умением рационально оценивать её предложения [Rowley, 2005]. Покупательское поведение «*адвокатов*» (advocate) также фрагментарно, но за счет крайне позитивного отношения к компании они с высокой готовностью делятся информацией о ней и выгодах, ассоциируемых с покупкой [Christopher, Payne, Ballentyne, 2002]. У «*новых*» *потребителей* (new) за счет недлительного опыта взаимодействия с компанией (часто однократного) присутствуют потенциал позитивного отношения к ней и готовность приобрести продукт, но пока еще нет речи о повторном совершении покупок или распространении рекомендаций [Бест, 2017].

Как отмечалось, разные авторы, стремясь модифицировать концепции дифференциации потребителей по типам лояльности, предлагали различные варианты классификации, а следовательно, и наименований типов потребителей в них. Сопоставив различные типы потребителей между собой на основе индикаторов (табл. 1) и поведенческих особенностей, описанных выше, в данной статье предлагается объединенная классификация типов потребителей (табл. 2). Эта классификация расширяет и уточняет типологию Р. Беста [Бест, 2017], которая была взята за основу, за счет добавления таких типов, как «искатели», «адвокаты» и «новые», а также смещения фокуса на анализ наиболее важных характеристик каждого из них. Преимущественно показателем неустойчивости лояльности в данном контексте выступает низкий уровень проявления отношенческой компоненты. Однако некоторые типы («адвокаты», «новые») больше склонны к взаимодействию с компанией, которое включает рекомендации, вовлеченность в различные инициативы (конкурсы, спонсируемые фестивали и пр.). Для компаний это может служить сигналом о том, что данные типы потребителей стоит использовать для достижения разных показателей через дифференцированные предложения и маркетинговые мероприятия.

Таблица 2. **Типология потребителей по выгодам/угрозам, предоставляемым компании**

Тип потребителя в объединенной классификации	Альтернативные названия типов, используемые в других классификациях	Предоставляемые выгоды/угрозы					
		Повторные покупки	Готовность рекомендовать	Готовность платить премиум-цену	Готовность пробовать новинки	Готовность поддерживать инициативы	Устойчивость к переключению
Лояльные [Knox, 1998; Бест, 2017]	Приверженцы [Rowley, 2005]; Партнеры [Christopher, Payne, Ballantyne, 2002]; Апостолы [Jones, Sasser, 1995]	Частые	Готовы	Готовы	Готовы	Готовы	Высокая
Неприбыльные [Бест, 2017]	Переключающиеся [Knox, 1998]; Террористы [Jones, Sasser, 1995]	Отсутствуют	Только негативные комментарии	Не готовы	Не готовы	Не готовы	Неприменимо
«Пленники» [Knox, 1998; Rowley, 2005; Бест, 2017]	Клиент [Christopher, Payne, Ballantyne, 2002]; Заложники [Jones, Sasser, 1995]	Частые	Только негативные комментарии	Не готовы	Не готовы	Не готовы	Очень низкая (переключаться при первой возможности)
Постоянные [Бест, 2017]	Удовлетворенные [Rowley, 2005]; Сторонники [Christopher, Payne, Ballantyne, 2002]; Наемники [Jones, Sasser, 1995]	Средней частоты	Только по запросу	Изредка готовы	Изредка готовы	Не готовы	Невысокая (полигамная лояльность)
«Искатели» [Knox, 1998]	Искатели альтернатив [Rowley, 2005]	Фрагментарные	Только по запросу	Не готовы	Не готовы	Не готовы	Невысокая (полигамная лояльность)
«Адвокаты» [Christopher, Payne, Ballantyne, 2002]	Отсутствует	Редкие	Готовы активно рекомендовать	Неприменимо	Изредка готовы	Готовы активно вовлекаться	Неприменимо
«Новые» [Бест, 2017]	Покупатели [Christopher, Payne, Ballantyne, 2002]	Однократные	Готовы	Неприменимо	Неприменимо	Неприменимо	Не сформирована

Выделение типов потребителей способствует формированию более глубокого понимания того, какой ценностью они обладают для компании и какие поведенческие паттерны отличают их друг от друга, а значит, позволяет подобрать правильные пути создания и доставки ценности для представителей каждого типа. Кроме того, такой подход обеспечивает возможность точно настраивать управление различными сегментами, исходя из существующих нужд бизнеса, и, следовательно, в перспективе делать мероприятия по управлению лояльностью более результативными — с точки зрения как удовлетворенности потребителей, так и финансовых выгод компаний и выстраивания долгосрочных отношений.

Decision journey (этапы клиентского пути). Длительное время потребительское поведение, в том числе в процессе совершения покупки, рассматривалось как линейная зависимость. Соответственно, одной из основных задач исследователей являлось определение последовательности этапов, на которых один вид лояльности сменяет другой. Подобный подход был призван помочь компаниям понять, какие виды лояльности необходимо развивать в первую очередь, чтобы сформировать истинную лояльность, включающую в себя как отношенческое, так и поведенческое предпочтение продуктов/услуг компании.

Следуя последовательному принципу, многие авторы полагают, что отношенческая лояльность выступает необходимым условием развития поведенческой лояльности [Oliver, 1999; Chiou, Droge, 2006; Cossio-Silva et al., 2016; Hariharan et al., 2018, etc.]. Например, Р. Оливер, как отмечалось, представляет развитие лояльности как процесс, состоящий из четырех последовательных этапов, на каждом из которых формируется ее новый вид [Oliver, 1999]. Альтернативный взгляд на этапы формирования лояльности был предложен М. Кристофером с соавторами: на первой стадии взаимодействия клиент может иметь негативное или в лучшем случае нейтральное отношение к организации, в то время как на заключительной стадии, к которой должны стремиться компании, он должен рекомендовать компанию и ее продукты/услуги другим и «заниматься маркетингом компании за вас» [Christopher, Payne, Ballantyne, 2002, p. 48]. Согласно этой логике, поведенческая лояльность проявляется до отношенческой лояльности.

Наряду с этим активные исследования в области маркетинга услуг сместили внимание ученых на изучение роли потребительского опыта в развитии сильных и взаимовыгодных отношений потребителя с компанией [Pine, Gilmore, 1998; Schmitt, 2011]. Потребительский опыт «носит целостный характер и включает в себя когнитивные,

аффективные, эмоциональные, социальные и физические реакции потребителя на компанию. Этот опыт создается не только теми факторами, которые компания может контролировать (например, интерфейс обслуживания, атмосфера розничной торговли, ассортимент, цена), но и факторами, не зависящими от нее (например, влияние окружения потребителей, цель покупки)» [Verhoef et al., 2009, p. 32]. Грамотное управление потребительским опытом ведет к более естественному формированию лояльности, которая возникает как следствие накопления опыта взаимодействия компании и потребителя в разных точках контакта [De Haan et al., 2015].

Первые концепции, которые позволяют рассматривать потребительский опыт с учетом этапов взаимодействия компании с потребителем, появились на рубеже XIX–XX вв., когда было предложено рассматривать принятие решений потребителем по принципу «маркетинговой воронки», более известной среди практиков как «воронка продаж» [Daugherty, Djuric, 2017]. Впоследствии более детальный анализ моделей поведения потребителей, в том числе при совершении покупки, привел к появлению 5-ступенчатой модели принятия решения, где была обозначена и объяснена важность постпокупочного поведения [Kotler, Keller, 2012]. Однако с развитием цифровых технологий способность классических концепций принятия решения к объяснению реального поведения потребителей снизилась. Появилась необходимость учитывать одновременно изменения контекста взаимодействия потребителей с компанией (сочетание онлайн- и офлайн-каналов), время принятия решения о покупке, а также доступность информации, маркетинговую грамотность потребителя и резко возросшую конкуренцию [Edelman, Singer, 2015]. Развитие концепции потребительского опыта также показало, что на самом деле лояльность формируется не последовательно от одного вида к другому, а скорее постепенно по всем ключевым компонентам, и значения по этим компонентам будут определять вид лояльности, к которому компания придет в итоге [Verhoef et al., 2009].

Масштабное исследование, проведенное консультантами McKinsey & Co., показало, что, несмотря на наличие этапов взаимодействия, траектория движения потребителя из линейной превратилась в цикличную [Edelman, 2010], при этом в случае успеха бренда/компании на «полном цикле лояльности» в обеспечении удовлетворенности покупателя он переходит на сокращенный «цикл лояльности» (customer loyalty loop) [Edelman, Singer, 2015; Fleming, 2016]. Расширенная концепция пути принятия решений легла в основу подхода к управлению взаимодействием с потребителем в точках контакта, известного как «маршрутизация пути клиента» (customer journey mapping). Концепция

цикличного, непрерывного взаимодействия с потребителем на клиентском пути или, другими словами, на пути формирования его потребительского опыта позволяет рассматривать уход потребителя как временный, предотвратимый сценарий, при котором в следующем цикле или на следующем этапе пути клиента его можно вернуть. Таким образом, лояльность в расширенной концепции принятия решений рассматривается как процесс, который может идти по двум траекториям: 1) полного цикла, включающего не только предпокупку, покупку и постпокупочное поведение, но также этап активного поиска альтернатив; и 2) сокращенного цикла, где этап поиска альтернатив пропускается.

Развитие лояльности с помощью маршрутизации пути клиента имеет ряд преимуществ и недостатков. Основное преимущество — возможность кастомизации предложений компании для конкретных потребителей, что является важным предиктором лояльности, к примеру, в электронной коммерции [Srinivasan, Anderson, Ponnavolu, 2002]. Однако необходимость отслеживания большого количества точек контакта и наличие потенциального влияния множества внешних факторов (например, отзывов референтных групп и предвзятого восприятия конкретных каналов коммуникации) усложняют измерение эффективности управления лояльностью.

Цикл лояльности, предложенный Н. Флемингом, демонстрирует преимущества работы с лояльностью на каждом этапе [Fleming, 2016], что позволяет быстрее идентифицировать паттерны поведения и основные проявления отношения потребителя к компании, а значит, корректировать действия в моменты микровзаимодействий. В итоге это должно способствовать снижению затрат на конвертацию потребителей с низким уровнем лояльности в истинно лояльных. Недостатки, связанные со сложностью анализа индивидуальных потребителей на каждом этапе, можно преодолеть, если использовать типологию лояльных потребителей, сопоставив ее с каждым этапом взаимодействия (табл. 3). Следуя описанию каждого типа клиента по уровню лояльности, представляется возможным выделить те этапы его пути, где он будет наиболее восприимчив к действиям фирмы и, соответственно, инструменты управления лояльностью будут работать наиболее эффективно.

Таблица 3. **Значимость этапов клиентского пути для формирования лояльности**

Этап клиентского пути	Точки контакта с потребителем (клиентом)	Значимость этапов клиентского пути при различных подходах к лояльности		
		Отношенческая лояльность как основа	Поведенческая лояльность как основа	Управление клиентским опытом как

		поведенческой [Dick, Basu, 1994]	отношенческой [Christopher, Payne, Ballantyne, 2002]	основа лояльности [Lemon, Verhoef, 2016]
Предпокупка	– Поисковые сайты – Сайты-агрегаторы – Рекомендации друзей	Высокая	Низкая	Высокая
Совершение покупки	– Выбор – Заказ – Оплата	Низкая	Высокая	Высокая
Постпокупка	– Потребление – Вовлечение – Сервис-запрос – Утилизация	Высокая	Средняя	Очень высокая

С о с т а в л е н о п о: [Бест, 2017; Lemon, Verhoef, 2016].

Учет этапов клиентского пути и логически выстроенные замеры показателей лояльности позволяют сфокусировать исследование на разных типах потребителей, что должно способствовать более гармоничному взаимодействию с каждым из них, а также более информированному использованию инструментов управления лояльностью для удержания потребителей на текущем или последующих этапах.

ПОДХОДЫ К УПРАВЛЕНИЮ ПОТРЕБИТЕЛЬСКОЙ ЛОЯЛЬНОСТЬЮ

Классификация подходов к управлению потребительской лояльностью. Выделенные направления исследований потребительской лояльности демонстрируют многообразие подходов к ее концептуализации, измерению, формированию и развитию. Во-первых, многочисленные исследования стимулировали переход от одномерного подхода к представлению о лояльности к многомерному, согласно которому лояльность — это совокупность разнообразных видов и проявлений, требующих различных управленческих инициатив для своего поддержания и приводящих к разным последствиям для деятельности компании [Бест, 2017; Watson et al., 2015]. Во-вторых, необходимость одновременного управления различными видами лояльности сместила акцент с агрегированного подхода, предполагающего одинаковую работу со всеми клиентами, к дифференцированному подходу, позволяющему адаптировать инструменты управления для каждого «по-разному лояльного» сегмента потребителей. Наконец, развитие технологий способствовало дальнейшему углублению понимания процессов формирования лояльности сквозь призму динамического подхода, дающего возможность отслеживать динамику формирования лояльности на различных этапах пути клиента.

С учетом проведенного анализа существующих подходов к определению лояльности рассматривать управление лояльностью предлагается в трехмерном пространстве, где каждая ось соответствует одному из выделенных направлений исследований; начало координат олицетворяет ситуацию, в которой компания не занимается системным управлением лояльностью клиентов; а движение по оси от начала координат характеризует усложнение применяемого подхода в заданном направлении (рис. 2).

Differentiation (Дифференциация)

Подход
- Дифференцированный
- Агрегированный

Dimensions (Грани)

Подход
- Статичный
- Динамический

Подход
- Одномерный
- Многомерный

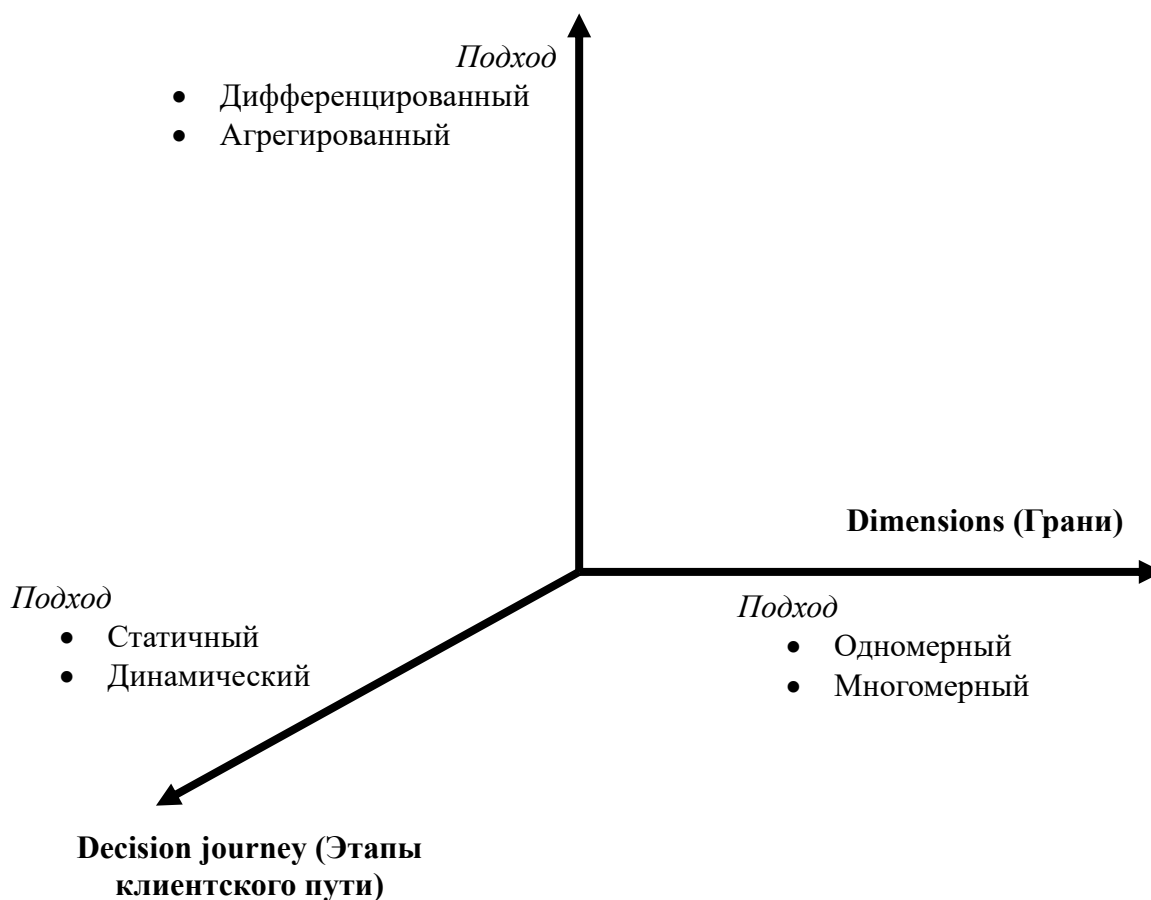**Decision journey (Этапы клиентского пути)**

Рис. 2. Модель подходов «3D» к управлению потребительской лояльностью

Согласно предлагаемой модели, развивая систему управления лояльностью, компания может двигаться в каждом из трех направлений. Например, компания может остановиться на более простом одномерном, агрегированном и статичном подходе или более сложном многомерном, дифференцированном и динамическом подходе. При этом выбор между подходами не является категоричным, а предполагает определение степени сложности итоговой стратегии управления лояльностью (в том числе и степени многомерности, дифференциации и динамичности). Применение более сложных подходов

дает компании дополнительные преимущества, связанные с большей детализацией и глубиной понимания поведения клиентов, но сопровождается усложнением бизнес-процессов и ростом инвестиций в управление лояльностью.

Одномерный и многомерный подходы. В качестве одномерного подхода рассматривается ситуация, когда компания принимает решение развивать определенный вид лояльности потребителя (чаще выбирая между категориями «поведенческая» или «отношенческая», но возможны и другие варианты), отслеживая успешность выбранной стратегии по соответствующим показателям. Многомерный подход как раз отражает решение компании одновременно работать над развитием нескольких видов лояльности потребителя и контролировать результаты с помощью расширенного набора показателей.

Индекс NPS, одна из самых популярных метрик лояльности, часто применяется как единственный показатель лояльности, что свидетельствует о распространенности одномерного подхода [Reichheld, 2003]. Он позволяет измерить текущее настроение существующих клиентов с помощью одного вопроса и сравнить результаты с результатами других компаний, которые используют аналогичный индекс. Однако при определении уровня отношенческой лояльности клиента к компании с помощью этого индекса игнорируется поведенческий компонент лояльности. Таким образом, предпочтительная категория потребителей может оказаться как истинно лояльными клиентами, так и клиентами, демонстрирующими латентную лояльность. Поскольку управление разными типами потребителей имеет свою специфику, одномерный подход с использованием только индекса NPS может привести к ложным выводам на этапе выбора инструментов управления лояльностью.

Согласно современным исследованиям в области электронной коммерции и поведения потребителей в социальных сетях, время, которое ранее отводилось на формирование отношения к бренду, неуклонно сокращается [Srinivasan, Anderson, Ponnavolu, 2002]. Однако значимость опыта, полученного потребителем от взаимодействия с брендом, растет и трансформирует восприятие потребителем своих отношений с брендом в принципе [Lemon, Verhoef, 2016]. Компании могут трактовать такую ситуацию по-разному: либо считать, что действия потребителей будут наиболее прямым отражением отношения и оставлять лояльность в плоскости оценки поведенческих характеристик, либо рассматривать каждый момент взаимодействия как построение отношений и делать ставку на показатели отношенческой лояльности.

Применительно к категориям продуктов, услуг, в отношении которых проявление нескольких видов лояльности у потребителя или невозможно, или незначимо, попытка компании фокусироваться на нескольких типах лояльности будет не просто невыгодной, но даже способной нанести ущерб. Например, если говорить об импульсивных покупках, таких как жевательная резинка, батарейки и т. д., то данная категория товаров обычно не формирует отношенческой лояльности вследствие специфики принятия решений об их приобретении [Старов, 2017]. В рамках одномерного подхода, ориентированного на развитие поведенческой компоненты, предпочтение отдается таким инструментам управления лояльностью, которые обеспечивают моментальный результат (например, постоянные скидки на категории продуктов или отдельные наименования, а также карты лояльности с фиксированной скидкой). В подобной ситуации лояльность потребителя основывается на гарантии низких цен на интересующий его набор продуктов каждый раз, когда тот пользуется услугами предприятия торговли. Данный подход характерен, к примеру, для сетевых ритейлеров, оперирующих в сегменте дискаунтеров или бюджетных супермаркетов «у дома». Вместе с тем покупка недвижимости, организация важного мероприятия — происходят нечасто, требуют серьезного осмысления и сопряжены с испытанием сильных эмоций. В этом случае проявление поведенческой лояльности — повторные покупки — будет низким и не отражающим реальную лояльность потребителя к компании, в отличие от отношенческой, которая не только способна ее продемонстрировать, но и будет служить одним из основных инструментов привлечения новых потребителей [Leenheer et al., 2007].

Агрегированный и дифференцированный подходы. Агрегированный подход предполагает понимание и учет компанией наличия различных сегментов потребителей и выбор конкретной унифицированной метрики для измерения лояльности всех сегментов, а также определения того, насколько успешны мероприятия по управлению лояльностью. В агрегированном подходе существует «эталонный потребитель», особенности которого принимаются за основу сравнения. Работа с остальными сегментами потребителей считается успешной, только если они приближаются к нему по своим характеристикам (т. е. переходят в категорию лояльных, уменьшая доли остальных). Это метрика может быть как простой (NPS), так и сложной (составной), однако при таком измерении не будет учитываться необходимость реализации выгод каждого из типов. Одним из самых распространенных примеров использования агрегированного подхода являются стандартные программы лояльности продуктовых ритейлеров (карта лояльности).

Несмотря на понимание того, что разные категории потребителей будут по-разному относиться к участию в такой программе, а значит, и приносить различную результативность, компании принимают решение стимулировать утилитарную и символьную выгоды потребителей, пытаясь таким образом нарастить долю желаемого сегмента.

Использование дифференцированного подхода к управлению лояльностью предполагает необходимость подбирать различные инструменты и метрики для управления каждым из ее типов для достижения синергетического эффекта. При таком подходе компания не только понимает существование различных сегментов, но также выстраивает такую систему управления лояльностью, при которой каждый сегмент потребителя рассматривается как уникальный и обладающий конкретным потенциалом развития. Для отслеживания результатов мероприятий по управлению лояльностью подбираются дифференцированные показатели, а показатели эффективности определяются для каждой из групп. Показатели могут быть как сквозными (индекс лояльности Беста), так и выделяться для каждого сегмента. Главный недостаток рассматриваемого подхода — это то, что для его применения необходимо проводить множественные замеры процентного соотношения типов потребителей, скорости их развития в дополнение к измерениям их уровня лояльности.

Статичный и динамический подходы. Различие между статичным и динамическим подходами связано в основном с методологией проведения измерения лояльности. Учет этапов клиентского пути в рамках динамического подхода предполагает проведение множественных измерений на различных этапах пути клиента и позволяет выявить узкие места. Реализация подобного подхода требует значительных вложений в технологическое совершенствование инструментария измерения лояльности. Она обоснована, когда потребитель имеет множество точек контакта с компанией (например, в сфере электронной коммерции, банкинге).

Динамический подход с учетом этапов клиентского пути позволяет выявить те этапы, на которых компания должна изменить свое поведение для достижения большей лояльности, что невозможно сделать при использовании статичного подхода. Например, оценка удовлетворенности обслуживанием измеряется, как правило, уже после совершения покупки и отражает оценку клиентом деятельности компании на всех предшествующих этапах. Используя такую метрику, компания получает некий моментальный срез результатов, показатель лояльности в статике, не способный продемонстрировать, какие

действия компании повлияли на оценку и на каком этапе потребители изменили свое отношение или поведение. Вследствие этого данный инструмент не позволяет выявить слабые места в процессе взаимодействия компании с клиентами. Вместе с тем понимание общей картины лояльности или успешности конкретной инициативы, отслеживание усредненного прогресса осуществляется именно благодаря данному подходу.

При реализации динамического подхода, сфокусированного на формировании поведенческой лояльности, выбор инструментов управления лояльностью обусловлен стремлением максимизировать эффективность взаимодействия компании с потребителем как во время продажи, так и на пред- и послепродажных этапах, а также выстроить с потребителем цикличное взаимодействие.

Динамический подход, ориентированный на развитие отношенческой и поддержание поведенческой лояльности через комплексное управление клиентским опытом, активно применяется даже теми компаниями, среди которых традиционно был более распространен подход к лояльности через дихотомию «поведение — отношение», без учета клиентского опыта. Для того чтобы стимулировать определенные действия со стороны потребителя, компании вводят геймифицированные программы лояльности, которые могут быть привязаны к скидкам, кешбэку или неденежным призам. Необходимость сбора наклеек, печатей или баллов, покупки специфических товаров, дающих бонусы, а также ограничение акции узкими временными рамками представляют собой вызовы, которые часто включаются в качестве элементов геймифицированных программ лояльности. Наличие подобных «препятствий» на пути к удовлетворению утилитарных нужд потребителя нехарактерно для предыдущих подходов, поскольку данный инструмент направлен не только на увеличение количества покупок, но и на развитие интереса к взаимодействию с компанией и созданию дополнительных выгод.

Необходимо отметить, что выстраивание системы управления лояльностью — сложный и долгосрочный процесс, который может изменяться вместе со стадиями развития компании, ее задачами, позиционированием, состоянием внешней среды и другими факторами, влияющими на поведение компании. В связи с этим целесообразно составление «дорожной карты управления лояльностью» (loyalty management roadmap), по которой компания могла бы определить наиболее подходящую перспективу рассмотрения лояльности, исходя из поставленных целей, а также выбрать подходы и систему показателей для возможного отслеживания результатов мероприятий по управлению лояльностью.

ЗАКЛЮЧЕНИЕ

В данном теоретическом исследовании рассмотрены и сопоставлены основные подходы к управлению потребительской лояльностью компании. На основе сравнительного изучения эволюции исследований в области определения и классификации лояльности потребителей на протяжении нескольких десятилетий в статье выделены три основные перспективы понимания лояльности с ориентацией на: грани потребительской лояльности (Dimensions); возможности дифференциации групп потребителей по степени и характеру лояльности (Differentiation); а также возможности управлять лояльностью, принимая во внимание этапы пути клиента (Decision journey).

Сочетание различных перспектив определения лояльности составили основу трехмерной модели управления лояльностью, которая дает возможность индивидуальной маршрутизации управления лояльностью для компании и построения «дорожной карты управления лояльностью» (loyalty management roadmap).

Использование более сложного подхода не обязательно приносит компании очевидные выгоды, а также не всегда подходит для решения конкретных задач по управлению лояльностью. Принимая во внимание все особенности выбора подходов, целесообразно вести речь о наборе факторов, которые следует учитывать при выборе подхода. Среди них: особенности поведения потребителей на рынке; техническая реализуемость подхода к управлению лояльностью; экономическая целесообразность выбранного подхода; возможность получения синергетического эффекта от комбинации подходов.

Результаты исследования могут быть востребованы для определения перспективы управления лояльностью, используемой компанией, а также выбора подхода, необходимого для ее реализации. Проведенный анализ также позволяет выявлять и учитывать недостатки подходов к управлению лояльностью, применяемых компаниями, способствуя более эффективному использованию инструментов, направленных на стимулирование лояльности ценовыми и игровыми методами.

Главным ограничением настоящего исследования можно назвать необходимость эмпирической проверки результативности применения описанных подходов к управлению лояльностью на репрезентативной выборке российских и зарубежных компаний. В частности, эмпирические исследования могут быть направлены на выявление связей между использованием конкретных подходов к управлению лояльностью и эффективностью

мероприятий, внедряемых компанией. Еще одним направлением может быть сравнение различных сочетаний подходов, представленных в трехмерной модели, с определенными этапами развития стратегии компаний по управлению лояльностью. Получение обратной связи от компаний может послужить основой для уточнения формулировок целей управления лояльностью, упоминаемых в данной статье, что позволит облегчить последующую адаптацию практик управления лояльностью на основе выделенных перспектив и подходов. Практическая применимость исследования может быть в дальнейшем усилена более подробным описанием спектра возможных инструментов управления лояльностью в компаниях с их последующим сравнительным анализом.

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APPROACHES TO CUSTOMER LOYALTY MANAGEMENT: "3D" PERSPECTIVE

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This paper aims to rethink the main approaches to loyalty management and highlight the criteria that allow companies to choose the most relevant one. The paper provides an analytical review of the main literature sources on the existing approaches to define the concept of customer loyalty and loyalty management as well as the antecedents and consequences of their diversity. Analysis of approaches to customer loyalty concept and loyalty management allowed us to present a three-dimensional matrix that classifies existing approaches from the three perspectives: *Dimensions* (Which dimensions of customer loyalty are taken into account?), *Differentiation* (Are customers differentiated by the degree of loyalty, and are managerial efforts adapted to it?) and *Decision journey* (Is the dynamics of loyalty formation at different stages of the customer decision journey taken into account?). One of the main limitations is the need for an empirical verification of the efficiency of described approaches to loyalty management on a representative sample of

companies. Among the factors that can influence the choice of an approach to loyalty management are the following: special features of consumer behavior, the economic feasibility and the possibility of obtaining a synergistic effect from a combination of approaches. The paper suggests considering factors that influence the development of consumer loyalty in the context of the integration of digital technologies and social platforms in a daily interaction of the company with its consumers. It also suggests approaching the loyalty management as an evolving process in the company's strategic perspective.

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Article 2: Геймификация: подходы к определению и основные направления исследований в менеджменте

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В статье представлены результаты анализа научных работ в области геймификации, цель которого выявить ключевые подходы к определению понятия «геймификация», обобщению и систематизации знаний о данном феномене в управленческих исследованиях. Рассмотрены публикации в ведущих академических журналах по информационному менеджменту, маркетингу и бизнесу в период с 2011 по 2019 г. Обобщенный анализ показал, что в современной литературе существует два актуальных подхода к определению понятия «геймификация»: как инструмента и как процесса. Изучение геймификации в менеджменте — сравнительно молодая область исследований. В настоящее время большинство работ сосредоточены на эмпирической проверке связи геймификации с мотивационными механизмами с целью создания более эффективного дизайна геймифицированных систем, улучшающих пользовательский опыт. Подобный подход к постановке проблемы исследования привел к возникновению ощутимого пробела в области развития теоретических знаний о самом феномене геймификации, определении его места в управленческих науках и сложности операционализации понятия. Междисциплинарность подходов к изучению феномена геймификации обусловливает важность дальнейшего изучения и уточнения существующих концептуализаций в управленческих и социальных

науках, а также определения этических границ использования геймифицированных систем. Полученные выводы имеют практическую значимость для исследователей как геймификации, так и других интерактивных инструментов вовлечения потребителей и сотрудников путем создания для них добавленной ценности.

Ключевые слова: геймификация, игровые элементы, игровые механики, менеджмент пользовательский опыт, вовлеченность потребителей, анализ литературы.

Введение

Геймификация широко применяется в различных компаниях для достижения целей, связанных с вовлечением потребителей [Татаринов, 2019; Leclercq, Hammedi, Poncin, 2018], сотрудников [Мурадова, Тихонов, Коновалова, 2019; Mitchell, Schuster, Jin, 2020], студентов [Орлова, Титова, 2015; Aparicio et al., 2019]. Этот тренд стал особенно очевиден в современной практике после появления таких ставших очень популярными у потребителей акций, как «прилипалы» от «Дикси», «залипаки» от «Перекрестка» и «скрепыши» от «Магнита».

С помощью геймификации компании стремятся преодолеть пользовательские барьеры, связанные с рутинностью операций в информационных системах [Koivisto, Hamari, 2019], удаленным обучением [Huang et al., 2019; Van Roy, Deterding, Zaman, 2019], недоверием потребителей к рекламным сообщениям [Seiffert-Brockmann,, Weitzl, Henriks, 2018; Vashisht, Royne, Sreejesh, 2019; Van Roy, Zaman, 2019], а также стимулировать создание у них позитивных ассоциаций, что впоследствии может вести к лояльности, лучшему усвоению материала, упрощению внедрения новых систем и пр. [Seaborn, Fels, 2015; Rapp et al., 2018; Koivisto, Hamari, 2019].

Несмотря на многообразие практических решений в области геймификации, подходы к исследованию данного феномена нуждаются в систематизации. В академических публикациях геймификация изучается преимущественно в трех областях: информационный менеджмент [Koivisto, Hamari, 2019; Mekler et al., 2017; Friedrich et al., 2019; Hassan, Dias, Hamari, 2019], обучение [Aparicio et al., 2019; Ding, 2019; Van Roy, Zaman, 2019] и маркетинг [Huotari, Hamari, 2017; Kim, Ahn, 2017; Nobre, Ferreira, 2017; Liu et al., 2019]. В каждой из этих областей, исходя из выбранного базового определения,

геймификация рассматривается либо как инструмент, т. е. набор игровых механик[1] (game mechanics) в неигровом контексте [Deterding et al., 2011], либо как процесс дизайна информационных систем [Hamari, Koivisto, 2015].

Цель статьи — выделить актуальные направления исследований в области геймификации, выявить существующие пробелы в подходах к изучению данного феномена и определить направления развития в области геймификации в менеджменте. Актуальные направления выявляются с учетом двух ключевых подходов к изучению геймификации. В зависимости от того, какой из подходов к определению был выбран, фокус смещался либо в сторону изучения механик и их влияния на результаты (т. е. геймификация как инструмент) [Mekler et al., 2017; Sailer et al., 2017], либо в сторону рассмотрения базовых механизмов, за счет которых геймификация позволяет влиять на результат (т. е. геймификация как процесс) [Mitchell, Schuster, Jin, 2020; Mullins, Subherwal, 2020].

Авторы, которые придерживаются первого подхода, как правило, сравнивают между собой различные игровые элементы[2], например бейджи, баллы, рейтинговые доски, и анализируют их влияние на результативность работы испытуемого в выбранной геймифицированной системе. Использование игровых элементов представляет собой преимущественно рутинные действия, для выполнения которых человек должен на протяжении длительного времени взаимодействовать с системой (например, создание хештегов к фото [Mekler et al., 2017], прохождение онлайн-опросов [Triantoro et al., 2019] и обучающих онлайн курсов [Van Roy, Zaman, 2019] и т. п.). Следовательно, геймификация в данном случае трактуется как инструмент, главная задача которого добиться фокусирования внимания пользователя на выполняемой задаче и улучшить его результативность.

Сторонники второго подхода рассматривают теоретические основы психологических механизмов, за счет которых работает геймификация, в том числе типы мотиваторов, стимулирующих тот или иной эффект геймификации, а также виды эмоционально-мотивационных процессов, приводящих к появлению этих эффектов. В этом случае изучаемые процессы связаны с изменением уровня внутренней мотивации участников при

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[1] Игровые механики — это правила и задачи, которые способствуют интерактивному взаимодействию игроков с игрой [Sicart, 2008]. Совокупность игровых механик формирует игровой процесс (например, необходимость вернуться в конкретное место, достичь определенного уровня и др.).

[2] Игровые элементы — базовые элементы дизайна игры, использование которых позволяет говорить о применении геймификации [Deterding et al., 2011, p. 2].

условии разных видов дизайна геймификации [Hsu, Chen, 2018; Mitchell, Schuster, Jin, 2020; Eisingerich et al., 2019], со степенью воздействия отдельных элементов дизайна на изменение эмоционального состояния участников и т. п. [Sailer et al., 2017; Leclercq, Hammedi, Poncin, 2018]. Геймификация при этом рассматривается как создание максимально позитивного и запоминающегося пользовательского опыта за счет интерактивного взаимодействия, что, в свою очередь, должен привести к желанию купить, повторно использовать продукты или услуги компании.

Статья имеет следующую структуру. В первом разделе представлен сравнительный анализ теоретических подходов к определению и изучению геймификации. Во втором — приведена методология анализа литературы и выделены возможные направления развития данной области исследований, в третьем разделе обсуждаются полученные результаты.

Геймификация: подходы к определению феномена

Принято считать, что понятие «геймификация» (иногда — игрофикация), впервые введено в научный оборот в 2011 г. в докладе группы авторов [Deterding et al., 2011] на конференции, посвященной новым медиа. Было предложено рассматривать *геймификацию как использование игровых элементов в неигровом контексте* [Deterding et al., 2011, p. 10]. Следует подчеркнуть, что в данном случае речь шла прежде всего о компьютерных играх и их механиках. Кроме того, авторы отметили ограничения данного определения, в том числе то, что с его помощью нельзя описать ряд образовательных игр, которые, несмотря на неигровой контекст применения, часто остаются полноценными играми.

Геймификация использует лишь те игровые элементы и механики, которые способны создать у пользователя ощущение игрового опыта (gameful experience) и соответствующее ему состояние полноты восприятия игры (gamefulness). Согласно данному определению, геймификация, во-первых, лишь адаптирует игровые элементы в своем дизайне и, во-вторых, обеспечивает структурированный игровой опыт [Deterding et al., 2011]. С одной стороны, авторы стремились провести границу между геймификацией и полноценными играми (симуляции, обучающие игры, адвергейминг), расширенными посредством добавления компонента реальности, компьютерными играми (например, Pokemon Go, Wizards Unite). С другой стороны, именно данная трактовка геймификации позволила выделить ее компоненты: элементы (бейджи, уровни, доски лидеров), механики (временнЫе или ресурсные рамки) и методы дизайна (степень геймифицированности, жанр) [Deterding et al., 2011; Hamari, Koivisto, 2015; Seaborn, Fels, 2015].

Данное определение подвергалось критике (см., напр.: [Werbach, 2014; Huotari, Hamari, 2012; 2017]). Среди ключевых доводов отмечалась невозможность создания универсального списка игровых элементов, который позволил бы безошибочно определять активность как геймификацию [Werbach, 2014], а также отсутствие учета пользовательского опыта [Huotari, Hamari, 2012; 2017]. По мнению К. Вербаха [Werbach, 2014], определению соответствуют некоторые виды активности, которые заведомо нельзя считать геймифицированными, например сдачу экзаменов. Формально данный процесс отвечает всем необходимым признакам: он проходит в неигровом контексте, часто имеет несколько уровней, и в итоге участник получает определенный балл, который можно трактовать как игровой элемент. Однако экзамен, как и некоторые другие виды деятельности с подобными характеристиками, не являются геймификацией.

В рамках второго подхода геймификация понимается как процесс усовершенствования пользовательского опыта посредством добавления игровой составляющей [Werbach, 2014; Huotari, Hamari, 2017]. В данное определение авторы попытались вложить мысль о том, что первичен именно опыт пользователя или потребителя, приобретаемый с помощью геймификации, а не методы, с помощью которых он создается [Huotari, Hamari, 2017]. Иными словами, определение геймификации как процесса подразумевает, что ее главная цель — не столько повышение вовлеченности пользователя в момент его взаимодействия с геймифицированной системой, сколько то впечатление, которое останется у него после использования системы, и те намерения, которые сформируются в результате [Rapp et al., 2018]. *Геймификация в таком случае становится «процессом обогащения услуги, предоставляя игровой опыт, что поддерживает процесс создания ценности для потребителя»* [Huotari, Hamari, 2017, p. 25]. Выбирая данный подход к определению геймификации, авторы опираются на теорию маркетинга услуг [Huotari, Hamari, 2017]: таким образом, элементы дизайна игры могут рассматриваться как услуги, а сама игра как система услуг.

Данный подход вызывает два вопроса. Первый относится к взаимосвязи теории маркетинга услуг и геймификации. К. Хуотари и Дж. Хамари [Huotari, Hamari, 2017] используют не классическую концепцию продвижения услуги, а так называемую сервисно-доминатную логику (service-dominant, или S-D logic) [Grönroos, 2006], в рамках которой выделяется понятие системы сервисов (service system) [Vargo, Lusch., 2008]. Определение геймификации с этой позиции усложняет установление границ понятия. Система сервисов определяется как такая организация ресурсов (включая технологии, информацию, людей и

т. д.), при которой связь с другими системами определяется через общность ценностного предложения, заложенного в основу дизайна [Vargo, Lusch., 2008; Huotari, Hamari, 2017]. Исходя из этой логики, геймификацию предлагается рассматривать как систему сервисов — создание дизайна, внедрение и управление. Это позволяет считать подобный подход правомерным, равно как и подход к дизайну любой другой системы, направленный на достижение стратегической цели, а не только операционных показателей. Однако его связь с теорией маркетинга услуг весьма отдаленная. Несмотря на то, что изначально концепция систем сервиса была предложена в рамках концепции маркетинга, в настоящее время подход к определению геймификации как процессу скорее относится к области наук о дизайне информационных систем [Koivisto, Hamari, 2019]. Позиционирование данного подхода в области наук об управлении информационными системами позволит более четко ставить задачи изучения геймификации, прийти к более универсальным способам операционализации понятия, в том числе выделив специфику рассмотрения геймификации и в исследованиях по менеджменту.

Второй вопрос касается отсутствия четко установленных границ понятия, позволяющих провести черту между полноценной игрой в неигровом контексте и геймификацией. Скорее всего, именно это стало одной из причин искажения концепции геймификации в бизнес-сообществе и смещения ее понимания в сторону брендированной игры среди остальных инструментов продвижения бизнеса [Alsawaier, 2018]. Критика геймификации представлена в двух ключевых направлениях: 1) анализ «темной стороны» геймификации, чаще связанной с этикой ее использования [Toda, Valle, Isotani, 2017]; 2) трактовка геймификации как маркетинговой уловки, а не как отдельного конструкта [Bogost, 2011]. Если первое направление предоставляет возможность для развития научных исследований, то второе, по сути, спекулирует на существующем пробеле, связанном с определением границ понятия геймификации и его операционализации.

Авторы работ по геймификации в менеджменте скорее следуют сложившимся традициям в своей области и не стремятся наилучшим образом операционализировать понятие геймификации, отражая при этом ее междисциплинарное применение. Сравнительная характеристика подходов к определению геймификации в литературе по менеджменту представлена в табл. 1.

Таблица 1. **Сравнительная характеристика подходов к определению геймификации**

Критерий	Геймификация как инструмент	Геймификация как процесс
Определение	− Применение игровых механик и элементов в неигровом контексте с целью изменения поведения пользователя [Deterding et al., 2011; Hofacker et al., 2016; Hsu, Chen, 2018; Mekler et al., 2017]	− Процесс улучшения оказываемых услуг с помощью акцента на создание игрового опыта и ощущения «полноты восприятия игры» с целью создания дополнительной ценности для потребителя [Huotari, Hamari, 2017; Mullins, Subherwal, 2020; Hsu, Chen, 2018; Eppman, Bekk, Klein, 2018]
Контекст исследования	− Обучение, включая онлайн-образование и обучение персонала компаний [Aparicio et al., 2019; Ding, 2019] − Онлайн-тестирование, прохождение опросов [Triantoro et al., 2019]; − Адаптация информационных систем [Mekler et al., 2017] − Управление онлайн-сообществами [Yang, Asaad, Dwivedi, 2017] − Управление знаниями [Friedrich et al., 2019]	− Маркетинг [Leclerq, Hammedi, Poncin, 2018] − Развитие отношений потребителя с брендом [Nobre, Ferrera, 2017] − Программы лояльности [Kim, Ahn, 2017] − Управление потребительским опытом [Eppman, Bekk, Klein, 2018] − Управление вовлеченностью персонала [Mitchell, Schuster, Jin, 2020; Ding, 2019]
Предмет исследования	− Воспринимаемая простота использования [Koivisto, Hamari, 2019; Yang, Asaad, Dwivedi, 2017] − Изменение количества и качества выполненных задач в системе [Mekler et al., 2017; Sailer et al., 2017; Van Roy, Zaman, 2019] − Продолжительность использования системы [Groening, Binneweis, 2019; Hassan, Dias, Hamari, 2019] − Реакция на рекламные сообщения [Vashisht, Royne, Sreejesh, 2019]	− Изменение отношения к системе [Hamari, 2015; Huotari, Hamari, 2012; Eisingerich et al., 2019] − Вовлеченность потребителя [Nobre, Ferreira, 2017; Leclerq, Hammedi, Poncin, 2018] − Готовность участвовать в программах лояльности [Kim, Ahn, 2017; Hwang, Choi, 2020]

Следует отметить, что в рамках одного и того же контекста в зависимости от проблемы исследования подход к определению геймификации может меняться, а дизайн системы оставаться прежним (см. напр.: [Kim, Ahn, 2017; Hsu, Chen, 2018; Ding, 2019; Eisingerich et al., 2019]). Это ставит ряд вопросов относительно причин выбора подхода и того, как это может повлиять на интерпретацию полученных результатов.

В последние годы стали прослеживаться явные различия в подходах к определению геймификации в зависимости от контекста. Так например, в работах по управлению информационными системами внимание акцентируется на том, что геймификация — это хорошо изученная техника трансформации систем [Rapp et al., 2018], дизайна информационных систем [Koivisto, Hamari, 2019] либо развлекательная технологическая система [Yang, Asaad, Dwivedi, 2017]. Исследователи применения геймификации в маркетинге изучают то, какие из ее характеристик наиболее эффективно воздействуют на изменение поведения потребителей и как их можно систематизировать [Eppman, Bekk, Klein, 2018; Leclercq, Poncin, Hammedi, 2020]. Следовательно, оба подхода к определению геймификации позволяют лучше изучить потенциал ее применения и эффективности в различных контекстах. Каждый из них имеет свои ограничения и, ввиду того что геймификация является довольно молодой областью исследований, вероятность появления новых подходов, которые позволят глубже изучить эффекты геймификации и операционализировать этот конструкт, довольно высока. В настоящее время сложились определенные традиции применения указанных подходов в разных областях знания, однако, они представляют собой скорее самоустановившийся порядок, нежели осознанное разделение.

основные направления исследований: обзор публикаций

На протяжении последних трех лет появляются новые перспективы изучения феномена геймификации (см. напр.: [Mullins, Subherwal, 2020; Morschheuser, Hamari, Maedche, 2019; Leclercq, Poncin, Hammedi, 2020]), разрабатываются шкалы измерения в альтернативных контекстах (см. напр.: [Eppman, Bekk, Klein, 2018; Hödberg, Hamari, Wästlund, 2019; Liu et al., 2019; Tondello et al., 2019]). Накопившийся объем знаний требует систематизации для более глубокого понимания уровня разработанности проблемы в конкретной области и идентификации дополнительных направлений исследований, которые позволят усилить научную базу в области геймификации.

Метод отбора публикаций. На первом этапе были отобраны статьи из наиболее авторитетных баз данных Web of Science, Scopus, EBSCO, что позволило максимально полно охватить научные работы, посвященные геймификации. В качестве источников рассматривались только те статьи, которые опубликованы в рецензируемых журналах. Из подборки исключались доклады конференций, посвященные вопросам геймификации, несмотря на их популярность (по данным о цитировании базы Google Scholar).

Во-первых, главной целью было изучение уровня разработанности проблемы геймификации в публикациях в ведущих научных журналах списка ABS (Association of Business Schools), составленного Ассоциацией бизнес-школ Соединенного Королевства в 2018 г. Во-вторых, среди исследователей одной из традиций работы над статьей по теме геймификации является трехэтапный процесс, два первых этапа которого приходятся на участие в конференциях International GamiFin Conference и Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences (HICSS), а в качестве третьего рассматривается публикация в журнале. Такая процедура была принята научным сообществом[3] во избежание перенасыщения дублирующими исследованиями в данной области.

Поиск в базах данных проводился с использованием ключевых слов "gamification" и "gamified system" без ограничения по временному периоду. Отобранные статьи охватывают период с 2011 по 2020 г. (препринты онлайн версий), что позволяет вести речь об относительной новизне выбранной области. Наибольшая публикационная активность, связанная с ростом научного интереса к интерактивным и цифровым технологиям в менеджменте, наблюдается в 2018–2019 гг.

Первый этап отбора статей по указанным выше критериям позволил получить 128 релевантных работ. При более детальном анализе аннотаций из перечня были исключены те из них, которые не соответствовали тематике. Наибольшее количество работ представляют собой эмпирические исследования (61 статья), 2/3 из которых проведены с помощью экспериментального метода (42 статьи). Также можно отметить несколько работ по разработке шкал (5 статей), обзоры в виде мета-анализа и библиографии (10 статей). Среди существующих публикаций почти не представлены теоретические работы за исключением [Deterding et al., 2011], в которой впервые концептуализировано понятие «геймификация». Наименования журналов и количество статей, выбранных в каждом из приведено в таблице 2.

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[3] По данным портала gamefinconference.com

Таблица 2. **Распределение статей по журналам, представленным в списке ABS**

Категория и название журнала	Количество статей
Журналы категории A, в том числе:	3
International Journal of Research in Marketing	1
Tourism Management	1
Journal of Consumer Research	1
Журналы категории B, в том числе:	34
Computers in Human Behavior	19
Journal of Business Research	8
Journal of Interactive Marketing	3
Journal of Business Ethics	1
Psychology and Marketing	1
European Journal of Marketing	1
British Journal of Research in Education	1
Журналы категории C, в том числе:	21
International Journal of Information Management	16
Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services	2
Journal of Marketing Education	2
Журналы категории D	18
Итого	76

Большинство научных работ в области геймификации посвящено изучению отдельных механик либо проверке гипотез относительно мотивационных механизмов, на которые они воздействуют, что получило название «эры мотивационных исследований» [Koivisto, Hamari, 2019]. Недостатки концептуализации геймификации и ее операционализации при существующих подходах к определению, которые отмечались ранее, сказываются и на уровне публикаций, посвященных ее изучению. В большинстве из них хорошо проработана эмпирическая составляющая, однако теоретическая база и определение места геймификации в теории менеджмента фрагментарны. Авторы выдвигают весомые аргументы в пользу позитивных эффектов воздействия геймификации на поведение пользователей систем и потребителей продуктов, но их практические рекомендации, как правило, актуальны только для дизайнеров информационных систем.

Результаты анализа публикаций. Научные работы в области геймификации в менеджменте можно разделить на четыре направления: 1) работа механик геймификации в системах с внешним ограничителем; 2) выделение базовых характеристик геймификации; 3) создание кастомизированного опыта у пользователей геймифицированных систем; 4) стимулирование процесса совместного создания ценности с участием потребителя (табл. 3).

Таблица 3. **Актуальные направления исследований геймификации в менеджменте**

Направление	Вопросы исследования	Опорные выводы	Автор(ы)
Работа механик геймификации в системах с внешним ограничителем	– Как связана эффективность использования сотрудниками систем при модернизации бизнес-процессов с наличием геймифицированных механик? – Какие игровые механики помогают преодолеть негативные последствия наличия отрицательной внешней мотивации (например, установленные сроки акции в программах лояльности)? – Как восприятие одной и той же механики с точки зрения достижения разных целей влияет на продолжительность и частоту использования геймифицированных систем?	– Использование принципов дизайна геймифицированных систем с позиций теории когнитивной оценки (cognitive evaluation theory) позволяет преодолеть или снизить негативные эффекты внешнего регулирования за счет удовлетворения потребностей в компетентности, автономии и социальной взаимосвязи – Эффект воздействия может изменяться в зависимости от восприятия конкретной механики пользователем	См. напр.: [Kim, Ahn, 2017; Mitchell, Schuster, Jin, 2020; Hassan, Dias, Hamari, 2019; Hwang, Choi, 2020; Morschheuser, Hamari, Maedche, 2019; Van Roy, Deterding, Zaman, 2019; Van Roy, Zaman, 2019; Xi, Hamari, 2019]
Базовые характеристики геймификации	– Какие процессы возникают при внедрении геймификации? – Какие характеристики систем делают их геймифицированными? – Каковы характеристики геймифицированных систем?	– Геймификация воздействует на каждый из трех аспектов ценности пользователя: утилитарный (повышается воспринимаемая легкость системы), гедонистический (удовольствие от использования, развлекательность), социальный (нетворк-эффект, соревнование с другими)	См. напр.: [Hamari, Koivisto, 2015; Seaborn, Fels, 2015; Eppman, Bekk, Klein, 2018; Mullins, Subherwal, 2020; Hödberg, Hamari, Wästlund, 2019; Liu et al., 2019]

		– Эмоциональный компонент делает геймифицированные системы более привлекательными	
Создание кастомизированного опыта у пользователей геймифицированных систем	– Чем отличаются поведенческие паттерны у пользователей геймифицированных систем от поведения геймеров? – Как разные элементы дизайна влияют на внутреннюю мотивацию? – Как определить типы игроков в геймифицированных системах?	– Игровое поведение, присущее геймерам, имеет некоторое сходство с поведением пользователей геймифицированных систем за счет использования схожих элементов – Есть определенные группы игровых элементов, которые лучше удовлетворяют потребность в автономии, чем другие – Существует несколько концептуализаций типов игроков, однако релевантность большинства из них не доказана	См. напр.: [Nacke Bateman, Mandryk, 2014; Sailer et al., 2017; Lopez, Tucker, 2019; Tondello et al., 2019]
Стимулирование процесса совместного создания ценности у потребителя с помощью геймификации	– Как геймификация систем взаимодействия с потребителем влияет на его вовлеченность? – Какие механики позволяет эффективно вовлекать потребителей в процесс совместного создания ценности?	– Интенсивная геймификация взаимодействия с потребителем имеет неоднозначный эффект на вовлеченность и отношение к бренду – Несложная точечная геймификация взаимодействия с потребителями в онлайн-сообществе стимулирует их вовлеченность в развитие сообщества и положительно сказывается на желании быть адвокатом бренда и участвовать в	См. напр.: [Hamari, 2015; Nobre, Ferreira, 2017; Yang, Asaad, Dwivedi, 2017; Hsu, Chen, 2018; Leclercq, Hammedi, Poncin, 2018; Ding, 2019; Hwang, Choi, 2020]

		более долговременных активностях, прилагать больше усилий для общения с брендом	

Работа механик геймификации в системах с внешним ограничителем. Появление первых подтверждений позитивного воздействия геймификации на внутреннюю мотивацию [Aparicio et al., 2012; Blohm, Leimister, 2013; Nicholson, 2015] привлекло внимание исследователей особенностями базовой теории этого процесса — теории самодетерминации [Ryan, Deci, 2000a]. Теория самодетерминации разделяет мотивацию на исходящую изнутри (intrinsic) и направляемую извне (extrinsic). Мотивация извне вызывается несколькими типами наград и ограничителей, которые, хотя и имеют мотивационную природу, влияют на продолжительность и силу мотивации негативно [Ryan, Deci, 2000b]. Стимулирование мотивации изнутри способствует преодолению нежелательных негативных эффектов внешних мотиваторов, которые чаще всего выполняют контролирующую функцию [Sailer et al., 2017; Aparicio et al., 2019]. Так, внутренние системы, внедренные компаниями с целью управления знаниями, развития лояльности к компании, получения обратной связи, воспринимаются сотрудниками как очередное ограничение автономии и приводят к их саботированию. Геймификация таких систем позволяет удовлетворить потребность сотрудников в автономии и вызвать у них чувство причастности к социальной группе, что позитивно сказывается на принятии системы и эффективности ее использования [Mitchell, Schuster, Jin, 2020; Friedrich et al., 2019].

Похожий механизм действует и при геймификации программ лояльности [Kim, Ahn, 2017]. Последние обычно предлагают внешний мотиватор в виде награды (скидки, подарки), дополненный ограничителями (стоимость, сроки, количество наград), что также может негативно сказываться на реализации потребности в автономии, которая приведет к отказу от участия либо к оппортунистическому поведению (покупать только по скидке). Оба варианта нежелательны, поэтому компании прибегают к геймификации программ лояльности и промо-акций с намерением снизить негативный эффект [Hwang, Choi, 2020]. В некоторых работах приводятся аргументы в пользу того, что позитивный эффект геймификации связан не столько с силой воздействия определенных элементов, сколько с восприятием этих элементов потребителем как игровых. Если потребитель не распознает предложенные элементы как игру, то эффект позитивного воздействия геймификации не будет наблюдаться [Van Roy, Deterding, Zaman, 2019].

Базовые характеристики геймификации. Большинство публикаций о механиках геймификации фокусируется на двух ключевых теоретических областях: 1) наличии особых характеристик, присущих только геймифицированным системам, и 2) определении теорий, лежащих в основе геймификации.

Среди теорий, объясняющих механики геймификации, выделены три ключевых: 1) модели принятия технологий [Davis, 1989; Hamari, 2015; Yang, Asaad, Dwivedi, 2017]; 2) концепция «состояние потока» [Csikszentmihalyi, 2014; Hamari, Koivisto, 2014]; 3) теория самодетерминации и ее субтеории [Ryan, Deci, 2000a; Seaborn, Fels, 2015; Sailer et al., 2017]. Каждая из этих теорий по-своему объясняет механики геймификации. В настоящее время получила распространение концепция, объединяющая элементы модели принятия технологий и теории самодетерминации для комплексного объяснения принципов геймификации [Yang, Asaad, Dwivedi, 2017; Koivisto, Hamari, 2019]. Однако большинство исследователей опираются только на теорию самодетерминации (см., напр.: [Sailer et al., 2017; Mitchell, Schuster, Jin, 2020; Rapp et al., 2018]).

Вместе с тем изучение базовых характеристик геймифицированных систем является фрагментарным. Несмотря на упоминание таких характеристик, как ощущение игрового опыта и полнота восприятия игры с момента появления первых определений [Deterding et al., 2011], способы их измерения и операционализации редко представлены в существующих научных источниках. Позитивные изменения наметились в области создания шкал, позволяющих измерять игровой опыт: "Gameful experience scale — GAMEX" [Eppman, Bekk, Klein, 2018] и "Gameful Experience Questionnaire — GAMEFULQUEST" [Högberg, Hamari, Wastlund, 2019].

Создание кастомизированного опыта у пользователей геймифицированных систем. Попытки подобрать наиболее эффективные элементы и механики легли в основу исследований, посвященных особенностям кастомизированного дизайна. На базе теории самодетерминации делаются предположения о выборе наиболее подходящего дизайна геймификации с учетом поведенческих особенностей разных типов игроков (см., напр.: [Bartle, 1996; Tondello et al., 2019]). Авторы данного подхода, который берет свое начало в литературе по дизайну компьютерных игр, выделяют типы игроков (от 4 до 6), исходя из того, какие именно задания и достижения мотивируют их на активное участие в игре [Bartle, 1990; Nacke, Bateman, Mandryk, 2014]. В работах по геймификации типы игроков определяют через сочетание ключевой потребности (автономия, компетентность, социальная взаимосвязь) и ведущих персональных характеристик из пятифакторной модели личности «Большая пятерка» (Big five) [Borgatta, 1964; Tondello et al., 2019]. Появление различных классификаций по типам игроков привело к попыткам подобрать такие игровые элементы для каждого из типов, которые позволили бы создать максимально кастомизированный опыт при дизайне геймифицированных систем. Несмотря на живой интерес к этой теме как теоретиков, так и практиков [Chou, 2017], разделение на типы игроков при дизайне систем, как правило, сопряжено с большими издержками (создание

сложного дизайна, тестирование пользователей, адаптация) при том, что эффект в реальных условиях по-прежнему не изучен и сложно поддается объяснению. Смещение фокуса с подбора соответствующих игровых элементов на изучение их восприятия [Van Roy, Deterding, Zaman, 2019; Koivisto, Hamari, 2019] может позволить в дальнейшем выйти на концептуализацию кастомизированной геймификации, в большей степени отвечающей практическим потребностям бизнеса.

Стимулирование процесса совместного создания ценности у потребителя. Вовлеченность потребителей в маркетинговые активности путем стимулирования совместного создания ценности — одна из ведущих тем в области маркетинга [Van Doorn et al., 2010; Yi, Gong, 2013; Ramaswamy, Ozcan, 2018]. Геймификация в данном случае рассматривается как идеальный инструмент создания вовлеченности не столько с помощью стимулирования гедонистического опыта, сколько при помощи опыта совместного создания ценности [Nobre, Ferrera, 2017]. Вовлеченность потребителей, согласно существующим исследованиям, позитивно сказывается на отношении к бренду, лояльности, устойчивости к переключению [Hsu, Chen, 2018; Hwang, Choi, 2020]. В качестве контекста изучения обычно выступают брендовые онлайн-сообщества, где взаимодействие с потребителем наиболее естественным образом поддается геймификации. Однако в геймификации общения потребителя с брендом следует учитывать два основных аспекта: интенсивность геймификации и выбранный подход к ее определению. В случае с интенсивностью необходимо отметить, что слишком очевидно геймифицированные системы заставляют потребителей подозревать манипулирование и снижают эффект геймификации на формирование позитивного отношения [Leclercq, Hammedi, Poncin, 2018]. При выборе подхода к определению геймификации с целью вовлечения потребителей исследователи склоняются к трактовке геймификации как процесса [Huotari, Hamari, 2017], что ведет к смещению дизайна в сторону полноценных брендированных игр, а не геймификации [Yang, Asaad, Dwivedi, 2017].

Обсуждение результатов исследования

Анализ опубликованных работ в области геймификации показал, что несмотря на активный интерес к данной тематике и рост количества публикаций, усилия авторов во многом направлены на формирование понимания сути феномена в различных областях знания. Подходы к изучению геймификации обусловлены ее интерактивной природой, а также продолжающейся тенденцией цифровизации и развития сервисов виртуальной и дополненной реальности, берущих свое начало в компьютерных играх [Zaidi et al., 2018].

Прикладной фокус в исследованиях геймификации связан с эмпирической проверкой ее результативности в различных контекстах [Ребров, Черкасов, 2017; Koivisto, Hamari, 2019], в то время как концептуальные статьи, устанавливающие границы феномена и определяющие его базовые особенности, не позволяют получить полное представление о феномене в силу их фрагментарности. Дальнейшее развитие теории, позволяющей концептуализировать геймификацию более точно, дает возможность не только расширить понимание механизмов и места геймификации в теории менеджмента, но и отделить ее от других интерактивных методов.

Подвижные границы определения геймификации имеют свои преимущества. Конвергенция геймификации с другими интерактивными технологиями позволяет обогащать опыт потребителя и открывает возможности для компании экспериментировать с инновационной составляющей бизнеса, получать дополнительные конкурентные преимущества. Тем не менее, отсутствие операционализации понятия вследствие такой подвижности сказывается как на качестве научных работ в области геймификации, так и на перспективе использования ее в бизнес-практике. Установление границ откроет возможности для измерения таких параметров, как степень геймифицированности, восприятие геймификации, а значит и ее влияния на эффективность. В настоящее время с помощью предложенных шкал измеряются либо отдельные характеристики геймифицированных систем [Eppman, Bekk, Klein, 2018], либо личностные характеристики пользователей [Tondello et al., 2019]. В обоих случаях возникает вопрос о валидности предложенных шкал на концептуальном уровне: действительно ли геймификация имеет ключевое влияние на результативность изучаемых систем и изменений в поведении пользователей.

Одной из важных проблем остается адаптация геймификации вне информационных систем для создания наиболее комфортного опыта потребителя. Например, геймификация программ лояльности изучалась лишь в контексте мобильного приложения Starbucks [Kim, Ahn, 2017] или онлайн-сообществ электронных библиотек [Hsu, Chen, 2018], тогда как популярные акции продуктовых ритейлеров, представляющие собой разновидность геймификации отношений с потребителем, не анализировались. В качестве одной из областей дальнейшего развития исследований, как для академической, так и для бизнес-среды, будет полезно изучение влияния геймификации на особенности поведения потребителя в оффлайн среде или на многоканальных платформах.

В настоящее время подходы к изучению геймификации, как эмпирические, так и те, в которых предпринимаются попытки концептуализировать феномен, сосредоточены на анализе дизайна геймифицированных систем. Психологические механизмы геймификации объясняют, как будет работать тот или иной дизайн или набор элементов в разных группах

потребителей и сотрудников компаний [Mitchell, Schuster, Jin, 2020; Sailer et al., 2017], как изменится отношение к системе после ее геймификации, причем изменение мотивации рассматривается как причина и результат успешности геймифицированных систем [Rapp et al., 2018]. Тем не менее, у каждого инструмента, применяемого для вовлечения, удержания, обеспечения лояльности потребителей и сотрудников, имеется не только объективная сторона (внедрен инструмент в систему или нет), но и субъективная, т. е. отношение пользователя к самому процессу и его составным частям. В исследованиях отмечается, что поведение пользователя в геймифицированной системе будет определяться его восприятием того или иного элемента (бейджа, аватара) [Van Roy, Deterding, Zaman, 2019; Korkeila, Hamari, 2020], а также других пользователей таких систем — как конкурентов или союзников [Leclercq, Hammedi, Poncin, 2018; Morschheuser, Hamari, Maedche, 2019].

Важным направлением является изучение этических аспектов геймификации. Доказанная эффективность усиления мотивации, а также рост удовольствия и продуктивности при использовании геймифицированных систем требует изучения возможности злоупотреблений со стороны дизайнеров этих систем [Thorpe, Roper, 2019]. Проблемы определения этических границ и норм использования геймификации обсуждаются в таких областях, как управление персоналом [Kim, 2018] и геймификация медиа-сообщений, особенно новостей и предостережений [Федотова, 2018]. Стремление улучшить результаты и/или повысить вовлеченность может спровоцировать не только усиление манипулятивной деятельности по отношению к потребителям и сотрудникам, но и искажение результатов исследований геймификации [Harms et al., 2014; Triantoro et al., 2019]. Таким образом, в будущем важно уделять внимание этическим аспектам, чтобы избежать негативного восприятия полезного инструмента, которое несомненно будет сформировано при злоупотреблениях и отсутствии открытого диалога компаний с пользователями геймифицированных систем.

заключение

Настоящая статья посвящена анализу подходов к определению геймификации и выделению актуальных направлений исследований в этой области. Особое внимание уделяется проблематике изучения геймификации в разных контекстах и группированию выделяемых видов проблематики с целью систематизации существующих научных работ. Понятие «геймификация» не является общепринятым и рассматривается с двух позиций — как инструмента и как процесса.

Выбор подхода к определению отражается не только на терминологических предпочтениях той или иной области знаний, но и на формировании подходов к дизайну исследования,

предмету и позиционированию результатов. Сложившееся положение в области исследований геймификации приводит к отсутствию четкого принципа операционализации понятия и размыванию изначально установленных границ между геймификацией и полноценной игрой в неигровом контексте. Опасность такого размывания, как и отсутствия дифференциации между геймификацией и другими интерактивными технологиями, заключается в том, что будет возрастать сложность измерения эффективности геймификации. В свою очередь это может привести к росту манипуляций с данными в научных работах и снижению скорости адаптации систем к изменению пользовательского опыта.

Дальнейшие исследования в области геймификации должны быть направлены, прежде всего, на разработку теоретических основ, что позволит достичь единого понимания феномена как концепта, а также подходов к измерению факторов, определяющих успех, а также позволит выделить характеристики геймификации, отличающие ее на фоне общего поля интерактивных технологий. Вопросы этического подхода к дизайну и использованию геймифицированных систем также являются приоритетными в совершенствовании теоретического поля знаний о геймификации в менеджменте.

Активный рост публикаций в области геймификации позволит сократить разрыв, образовавшийся между практикой и теоретическим осмыслением данного феномена, перемещая фокус на развитие качественных знаний. Междисциплинарный характер подходов к изучению геймификации закладывает фундамент для создания синергии между различными областями анализа в менеджменте и поведенческих науках, что может стать перспективным направлением дальнейших исследований в области приложения интерактивных технологий.

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GAMIFICATION: MAIN APPROACHES TO DEFINITION AND RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

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The article presents an analysis of the main research directions in the field of gamification in management. The purpose of the study is to identify main approaches to the definition of gamification, generalize and systematize the current knowledge of construct. The analysis represented in the article has been based on publications presented in the leading research journal on information management, marketing and general business area from 2011 to 2019. The main approaches to the definition of gamification were highlighted, an analysis of their application for development was presented. A comprehensive analysis showed that in modern science there are two main approaches to definition: gamification as a tool and gamification as a process. The study of gamification in management is a relatively young field of science, which has both its advantages and certain disadvantages. Most of the research focuses on empirical testing of the connection between gamification and motivational mechanisms, with the goal of creating a more effective design of gamified systems that improve the user experience. Such studies lead to obvious issues in the development of theoretical knowledge about the concept of gamification, as well as the way to operationalize it. The interdisciplinary nature of the phenomenon requires further study and clarification of existing approaches to conceptualization in the field of management and social sciences, as well as determining the ethical boundaries of the use of gamified systems. The findings are of practical importance for researchers both in gamification area and those interested in consumers' or employees' engagement studies.

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Article 3. Gamified marketing survey design: a conceptual framework

Purpose: This study examines existing approaches to understand gamification in a context of creation gamified marketing survey. It suggests that contradictions about the outcome of gamified marketing surveys revealed by authors have rooted indifference of chosen approaches.

Clarification of interrelations between theoretical assumptions and gamified marketing survey design presented as a theoretical framework.

Design/methodology/approach: The paper organized as an unstructured literature review based on an analysis of the main theoretical work in gamification and gamified marketing surveys outcome.

Findings: A set of propositions about the link between gamified survey design and survey response quality based on an underlined theoretical perspective are suggested in the paper.

Research limitations/implications: The influence of gamification on respondent's behavior is not the only one characteristic necessary to make the survey effective and assure its quality. In this paper, other characteristics of surveys are not considered.

Practical implications: The proposed framework can be used to identify the most suitable design of a gamified survey and manage its potential risks in advance.

Social implications: not applicable

Originality/value: Gamification predominantly considered as a unitary concept with the bias towards self-determination theory as the main theoretical explanation for the work of gamified systems. This paper suggests taking into account other theories and their perspectives on gamification mechanisms as well as consequences the choice of certain approach brings to gamified systems performance.

Keywords: gamification, gamified marketing survey, self-determination theory, the concept of flow, TAM, player type

Introduction

Technology advancement is continuously shifting the popularity from face-to-face and telephone marketing survey formats to online, which has significant advantages over the other formats. Among them are reduced costs of conducting research, facilitation of data processing, and allowing to reach a wider and more diverse audience of respondents (Evans and Mathur, 2005). The subsequent rapid increase in online survey implementation by marketers has led to such problems as declining response rates (Sax et al., 2003) and low quality of data obtained (Ilieva et al., 2002) – as respondents are losing both trust and interest in sharing information with companies

and agencies. To overcome these challenges, online marketing survey designs often include either external or internal stimulation, or the combination of both.

Results of empirical studies suggest that the implementation of external stimulation in online survey design is a controversial practice. Several studies have found that the introduction of monetary reward as a method of external stimulation increases response rates without shifting the distribution of results (Cantor et al., 2008; Ryu et al., 2005). In contrast, there is evidence that the use of external incentives may influence the survey sample, shifting it towards a greater number of female respondents (Parsons and Manierre, 2014). Additionally, the increase in response rate may not necessarily be accompanied by enhanced representativeness of the sample, and therefore affect nonresponse bias (Groves, 2005). Finally, it is also suggested that continuous usage of monetary rewards can weaken gradually as participants get used to be motivated externally (Deci and Ryan, 2010).

Intrinsic stimulation in marketing surveys can be accomplished by implementing gamified survey designs aimed at enhancing the positive experience for survey participants (Guin et al., 2012; Warnock and Gantz, 2017; Mavletova, 2015; Puleston, 2010). Introducing gamification allows to increase the respondents' engagement, the lack of which can lead to undesirable behavior, namely: accelerated survey, random answers, incomplete filling of the questionnaire or insufficient attention (Guin et al., 2012; Puleston, 2010).

Despite the growing popularity of gamified surveys among marketers, the corresponding scientific research area remains scarce: there is currently little evidence to suggest that gamification increases survey response quality. Although there is research suggesting that gamification positively affects the length of responses to open-ended questions (Bailey et al., 2015) and the number of questions answered (Cechanowicz et al., 2013), in other empirical works these results are not supported (Guin et al. 2012, Harms et al., 2015; Brownwell et al., 2015). The source for these discrepancies can be traced to the conceptualization of gamification used by the researchers. To facilitate further development of the research field it is necessary to conduct an analysis and systematization of research areas of studying the use of gamification in online marketing survey design.

We propose to look at gamified survey design (further – GSD) through the eyes of the marketing specialist initiating the implementation of gamification in empirical consumer research, which we refer to as the gamifier throughout the paper. Our conceptual study aims to provide normative guidelines on gamified marketing survey design processes for gamifiers seeking to increase respondents' engagement. A key aspect of GSD is the choice of a design approach, which then determines the rules and game mechanics used in the survey design. Historically, the marketing literature has typically treated gamification as a unitary concept (e.g. Seaborn and Fels, 2015;

Mitchel et al., 2018) and has overlooked the aspects pretraining to the choice of an underlying design approach.

In this paper, we draw on three characteristics of GSD – acceptance, immersion, and motivation – to derive propositions about the impact of GSD on survey response quality. Thus, our proposed framework and the resulting propositions can guide the gamifier in deciding how to engage which respondents in survey completion. We address the question of "how" to increase respondents' engagement by developing propositions on the direct link between the three characteristics of GSD and survey response quality. We address the question "which respondents" to engage through GSD via a second set of propositions on the role of respondent's player type. We propose that these characteristics moderate the main effects of acceptance, immersion, and motivation on survey response quality. We argue that different GSD characteristics might increase survey engagement for respondents with a particular set of player's traits, and at the same time have little to no effect on respondents with other sets of player's traits.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. We first overview the main approaches to understanding gamification and define our outcome variables. Next, we explain the characteristics of GSD in terms of acceptance, immersion, and motivation. In the following sections, we propose our conceptual model and develop propositions on GSD approaches and the role of respondents' player's traits. We then discuss the managerial implications of our conceptual model. We conclude with a summary of our contributions and avenues for further research.

Theoretical background

The concept of gamification developed as an attempt to apply the results of gaming research to enhance user experience in non-game systems. Deterding et al. (2011) defines gamification as an adaption of game elements to provide a structured gaming experience. Such gamification scholars as Werbach (2012) and Huotari and Hamari (2012) have often referred to the term "game elements" as rather vague, suggesting that the definition of gamification should instead focus on the resulting user experience. Consequently, K. Werbach proposed to define gamification as the process of changing activities towards greater gameplay (Werbach, 2012). Even though gamification is intended to create an individual's feelings like those experienced during the game, gamification is not a full-fledged game, but only adapts some of its features to increase the motivation of individuals to perform certain actions (Huotari and Hamari, 2017).

In the context of surveys, the goal of applying gamification is to increase the response rate, their involvement, and to create a pleasant experience of participation in the study. To sum up, introducing gamification is intended only to improve the experience of participation in marketing

surveys to ensure higher response rates, a lower proportion of respondents who have not completed the survey, as well as a positive perception of the survey as a whole.

In this sense, gamification is intended to ensure the desired behavior of respondents when participating in a survey by improving the experience of passing it, and not to create a full-fledged game, in which respondents would take part purely for pleasure. Several publications have considered gamified survey effectiveness basing its design on closeness to game and suggested to distinguish two types of gamification in surveys: hard and soft (Bailey et al., 2015; Puleston, 2011; Mavletova, 2015). Both approaches defined the degree of gamification through the number and intensity of gaming techniques applied to design. This means that the more is not the merrier, but it's about the correct choice of mechanics, which correspond to goals.

Key dimensions of gamified survey design

We identify three key dimensions of a GSD as acceptance, immersion, and motivation based on previous research. Research dedicated to gamified marketing surveys as a separate stream still lacks diversity in topics considered. The analysis presented in this chapter would be based on studies about gamified systems and behavioral outcomes of respondents in the field of crowdsourcing, mobile applications, as well as intranets, learning systems, etc.

Acceptance

The technology acceptance model is frequently used to explain the intent to use gamified systems (Hamari and Koivisto, 2015; Landers and Armstrong, 2017; Rodrigues et al., 2016; Aparicio et al., 2019), such as a gamified survey. It could be inferred from the model, that the decision of potential respondents to engage in an online survey will depend on the respondents' attitude to the gamified system, which they are exposed to: first – when receiving the invitation to participate and instructions; afterward – when arriving on the online platform; and finally – during the navigation through the survey completion process. This attitude is mainly determined by two characteristics that comprise the acceptance of a certain information technology by users: perceived utility of the technology and perceived ease of use (Davis, 1989; Venkantesh et al., 2003). The perceived utility of the technology reflects the degree to which the user believes that the technology used will increase its performance, while perceived ease of use describes the user's confidence in that the usage of the system will not demand a sufficient amount of effort.

There is no consensus on which of the two characteristics has a stronger influence on gamified system attitude: while there is evidence to that perceived utility is a stronger predictor (Smith, 2008; Davis et al., 1989; Yang et al., 2017), other research revealed a stronger influence of perceived ease of use (Herzig et al., 2015; Hamari and Koivisto, 2015). In an extension of the model by Delon and McLean, system quality, information, and service quality were added as external characteristics that might influence perceived utility and perceived ease of use (Delon and McLean, 2003). It is important to note that the evaluation of both system attitude characteristics may not necessarily correspond to the objective attributes of the gamified survey (e.g., length, instructions visualization, amount of open questions and tasks), but can be based on the perception of the system by users. Therefore, there is an opinion that both emotional and social-related factors should also be taken into consideration when working on the design of ease of use and perceived utility of the gamified system (Hamari and Koivisto, 2015). Such factors may include perceived enjoyment from use, perceived fun, or gaming experience in use, even though this may ultimately further complicate the interpretation of the impact of gamification on survey response quality.

Immersion

The concept of flow was proposed by M. Csikszentmihályi (1990) and describes the state in which a person is fully immersed in the execution of a current task. Gamification is considered to have the potential to immerse users in this kind of condition (Nicholson, 2015; Hamari and Koivisto, 2014; Kasurinen and Knutas, 2018). In a state of flow, the survey respondent is expected to lose the sense of time and not be distracted by any other thoughts or tasks apart from completing the questionnaire. It is considered that optimal experience is achieved when the human mind is completely immersed in the activity being performed, and the person feels pleasure from this activity.

To achieve a state of flow, a set of conditions must be adhered to. First, it is the balance of abilities and skills of the individual with the task of the survey: if the task is too simple for the individual, he may feel bored; if the task is too difficult for the individual, he may experience anxiety. Hence, in general, to achieve high immersion, the level of task complexity should be gradually increased following the level of growth of the individual skills of the respondents. Next, it is recommended to include a precisely formulated goal and immediate feedback systems to let the respondent know how successful he is in completing the task. If those conditions are fulfilled, the process of survey completion should be accompanied by a high level of concentration on the task, and a sense of control over the process from the side of the respondent.

The idea of immersed users into gamified systems was inspired by research on gaming. Current studies show that the state of flow serves as a predictor for players' results of participating in educational games (Hamari et al., 2016). It was also argued that a high state of immersion can positively impact the intent to participate in online-games (Hsu and Lu, 2004).

Motivation

Self-determination theory as a basis for gamification mechanics is widely used across different fields: education, marketing, employees' motivation, customer loyalty and others (e.g., Aparicio et al. 2016; Nicholson, 2015; Seaborn and Fels, 2015; Mitchell et al., 2018; Roy and Zaman, 2019). According to the theory, people involved in a certain activity can be motivated either extrinsically (by external rewards or limitations) or intrinsically (by a desire to satisfy a psychological need) (Ryan, Deci, 2000 (a,b)). Self-determination theory names three psychological needs the satisfaction of which results in intrinsic motivation enhancement (Mitchell et al., 2018): the need for autonomy, the need for competence, and the need for relatedness.

The theory of self-determination relies on the theory of cognitive assessment, according to which events that contribute to the immersion of a sense of competence positively affect intrinsic motivation. This effect, however, will be manifested only if the person also experiences a sense of autonomy. This sensation depends on how the individual interprets events, which are external to

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him, for example, receiving feedback about his actions. It should also be noted that the same events can be perceived by different individuals as controlling (i.e., undermining the sense of their autonomy), and as informed, depending on the casual orientation of the individual.

In the context of gamified surveys, the need for competence can be frustrated by the complexity of interaction with the survey, the complexity of the questions themselves, as well as the complexity of gambling tasks. The need for autonomy can be influenced by the wording of the questions, as well as the use of controlling instructions (for example, "You must fill out all the fields"). At the same time, satisfying the need for interconnection with other people is less relevant in the studied context.

Self-determination theory is the basis for several frameworks for creating gamified systems design. S. Nicholson proposes to use this theory to create meaningful gamification for the user, which will stimulate intrinsic motivation (Nicholson, 2012). In another research stream, authors try to find the link between introducing certain game elements and the type of need this would satisfied (Aparicio et al., 2012; Sailer et al., 2017; Leclerque et al., 2018; Suh et al., 2016). Studies from the self-determination theory perspective also revealed that gamification introduction in various feedback systems changes the respondent's perception, making the process less controlling from the individual (Kumar, 2013). This, in turn, might have a positive influence on survey perception, especially if it has somewhat of an obligatory nature. Accordingly, the introduction of gamification has a positive effect on the satisfaction of the need for autonomy (Kim and Ahn, 2017) and allows us to overcome negative effects from the limitations of the survey.

Conceptual model

Our propositions help address the gamifier's choice of gamified survey design. The first two propositions focus on the main effects of the key gamification design characteristics for an online marketing survey (acceptance, immersion, and motivation) on the potential respondents' intention to participate in a survey and survey response quality. Each proposition should be viewed on a ceteris paribus basis. Figure 1 provides a parsimonious representation of our overall conceptual model. Next, we consider a moderator variable (player type traits) that characterize the respondents concerning gamified system usage.
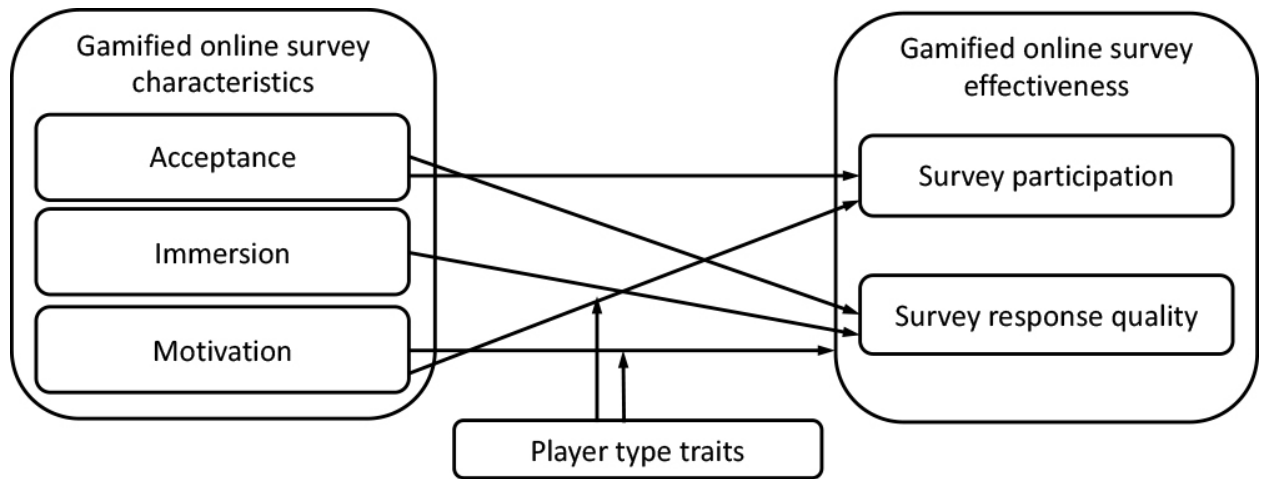
Fig.1. Conceptual framework

Propositions: main effects of gamified survey design characteristics

The absence of precise instructions regarding the interaction with the online survey has been shown to adversely affect the intention to participate in the survey (Brownwell et al., 2015).

Acceptance. There is evidence of the existence of positive relations between the constructs in both non-gaming (Davis et al. 1989; Venkantesh et al., 2003) and gamification literature (Yang et al., 2017). For example, the absence of sufficient explanation of the terms of online survey participation has been shown to adversely affect the intention to participate in the survey (Brownwell et al., 2015). Based on the fact that both of the constructs underlying the technology-acceptance model are taken as perceived by the user, it is possible to assume that ease of use and perceived utility may change as the user progresses through the survey completion process. Therefore, if the gamified survey is designed to ensure high acceptance, it is possible to assume that it will have a positive effect on survey response quality.

P1a: Gamified survey design characterized by higher acceptance to a greater survey participation.

P1b: Gamified survey design characterized by higher acceptance leads to a greater survey response quality.

Immersion. Existing studies in the field of gamification have revealed that the state of the flow is a weak predictor of the intention to use the gamification system (Herzig et al., 2015; Suh et al., 2017). Even though a clear statement of survey participation rules and proclaimed high adherence of the survey to individual skills may pose attractive to potential respondents, it could be argued that the state of flow is an effect, which must be experienced (rather than not just proclaimed). However, it is possible to suggest that a gamification design aimed at achieving high immersion should affect survey response quality. As such, the absence of a balance between task complexity and the respondent's skills have been argued to decrease the quality and quantity of survey answers (Cechanowicz et al., 2013).

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P2a: Gamified survey design characterized by higher immersion does not affect survey response quality.

P2b: Gamified survey design characterized by higher immersion leads to a greater survey response quality.

Motivation. There is partial evidence to suggest that there is a positive effect of satisfying the internal needs of users on the pleasure received when using the gamified system, as well as on the intention to use this system (Suh et al., 2016). However, in that work respondents were recruited from current users of gambling applications or platforms, which could complicate generalizability. For example, it would be impossible to predict the experience of those users who have chosen not to use the application. Nevertheless, the results are complacent with self-determination theory, based on which it is possible to suggest the satisfaction of respondents' internal needs can potentially increase the intention to participate in the survey, as well as the survey response quality.

P3a: Gamified survey design characterized by higher motivation to a greater survey participation.

P3b: Gamified survey design characterized by higher motivation leads to a greater survey response quality.

Player type traits

It should be noted separately that most studies on the subject investigate the behavior of users of gamified systems without taking into consideration personality characteristics. According to certain views, this approach does not allow to accurately determine the individual user experience (Ferro et al., 2013). The game elements that form the basis of a gamified system only set the possibilities of the gaming experience (Van Vugt et al., 2006). At the same time, the user experience itself depends on the perception of these possibilities, i.e. whether the user is aware of their existence, as well as whether he uses these capabilities. Thus, different game elements can in different ways influence the motivation of different users, which is currently not taken into account in such studies. To expand the existing understanding of the interconnection between players' typologies and gamified marketing survey performance we compared the characteristics of the players and the leading motivations, based on the self-determination theory and Y. Choi motivational factors and suggest its applicability advantages and drawbacks (see table 1).

Bartle's typology of players

Bartle's typology was among the first described differences in gaming behavior. This model was developed by Bartle in 1996 based on an analysis of the discussions of gamers from the early synthetic MUD (multiuser dungeon) worlds (Bartle, 1996).

The initial version included 4 types of players: killers, achievers, socializers and explorers. These types were allocated depending on a player's action preferences about the system ("act on" or "act with") and to other players.

Bartle player types is one of the most well-known existing typologies (Tuunanen and Hamari, 2012). However, its use in the context of studying the motivation of respondents in a gamified survey has several limitations. The possibility of direct social interaction can hurt the validity of the data obtained, as well as cause a bias of answers towards socially acceptable. Besides, the types of social interactions that generate a negative effect may affect the respondents' intention to take part in a gamified survey in the future.

The first demographic game design model (DGD1) and the second demographic game design model (DGD2)

The DGD1 study was the first attempt to create a model of gaming motivations that would not be associated with a specific genre of games, as was the case with the Bartle typology. As part of the study, Myers-Briggs typology was used to assess differences in the personalities of the players (Bateman at al., 2011). A prerequisite for the study was the assumption that players with different degrees of commitment to games (hardcore and casual gaming) have different personality characteristics. According to this assumption, individuals who identify themselves as avid players should demonstrate such characteristics of the Myers-Briggs typology as introversion, thinking, and judgment.

According to the results of the analysis, the original assumption about the differences between the avid and ordinary players was rejected. While avid players did show a greater propensity for introversion, the rest of the predicted personality traits could not be linked to the degree of commitment to the games. According to study, in this case, the player's avidity relates not to the desire to win at any price, but to whether the games are a hobby of a particular individual (Bateman et al., 2011). Such individuals are more inclined to use their imagination during the game process to create a complex game experience (for example, for understanding the character's personality, his history, and connection with the game world).

Even though the initial assumptions were rejected, according to the results of the analysis, it was able to identify 4 types of players: conqueror, manager, wanderer, and participant. A follow-up study of DGD2 did not resort to Myers-Briggs typology. Instead, the authors preferred the theory of temperament. On its basis, the appearance of 4 different types of game skills that players may possess, namely tactical, strategic, diplomatic, and logical skills, was predicted. The results of the DGD1 and DGD2 studies, according to their authors, are only a basis for further analysis of the players' behavior. For this reason, later, the results of DGD2 were used as the basis for the Breinhex typology, which will be discussed further.

Brainhex typology

The prerequisite for its creation was precisely the absence of a universal typology of players capable of describing the behavior in any kind of game. The authors adapted the "top-down" approach, building on existing research in the field of neuroscience to highlight possible types of gaming experience (Bateman et al., 2011). Subsequently, these types were certified by empirical data using a specially developed questionnaire (Nake et al., 2011). Now, the Breinhex typology has been used not only in the context of games that focus solely on pleasure, but also in the field of health games (Orji et al., 2013), as well as in studies of gamification (Monterrat et al., 2015).

As a result of Brainhex typology, 7 types of players were revealed: achievers, conquerors, survivors, socializers, masterminds, seekers, and daredevils.

The Breinhex typology is generally perceived by the scientific community more positively than other player typologies. Firstly, this typology was created to study games in general, which makes it more effective compared to typologies created to analyze certain genres of games. Secondly, Breinhex continues to research the types of players DGD1 and DGD2, taking into account the shortcomings of these studies. Besides, more than 60 thousand respondents took part in the Breinhex study, which makes the findings of the study fairly reliable.

In the context of gamification of marketing surveys, the use of this typology has limitations similar to other typologies mentioned. Many aspects of motivation, voiced in this typology, can be implemented in the framework of full-fledged games, but are hardly suitable as a motivating factor for a survey respondent. So, daredevils and survivors are focused on changing their state. The production of such states through participation in a survey can affect the quality of the data obtained. Also, such game-specific motivation factors may attract those respondents who may not be interested in the survey itself, which may result in random responses. Similarly, a conqueror-type motivation, a feeling of triumph, cannot be realized within a gamified survey without the possibility of a negative impact on the quality of the data received. Thus, this typology is more focused on the creation of full-fledged games with a complex plot, which could produce a complex range of emotions for the player. In the case of a survey gamification, producing additional emotions is an undesirable aspect.

The typologies mentioned above (Bartle's, DGD1, Brainhex) have limitations on the application both in the context of gamification in general, and gamification of surveys in particular. When using gamification in surveys, the respondent's motivation to participate in game-like activity should not attract excessive resources of attention to themselves. In the case when the respondent participates in a survey only for the realization of his game motivation, the responses received may demonstrate an inadequate level of quality. Besides, a change in the state of the respondent can lead to a shift in results. Similarly, direct social interaction is undesirable in gamified surveys.

Thus, the most popular gaming motivations have significant limitations in terms of gamification of surveys. For this reason, typologies focused exclusively on studying the motivation of users of gamification have a great relevance to study the behavior of respondents of such surveys.

Hexad model

To determine the type of user gamification A. Marczewski created a typology Hexad. Under this classification, players of different types can be motivated by external or internal factors to varying degrees. Thus, the division into types occurred not based on the observed behavior, but based on motivation factors, which were adapted from the self-determination theory, and were also partially identified by the author himself. This "bottom-up" approach (from theory to behavior) differs from the approach used in the compilation of most existing typologies. This difference lies in the fact that previous works have tried to post-factum justify the observed behavior of players using psychological theories, which, according to some authors, can lead to unreliability of the resulting models (Bateman et al., 2011).

Each of the selected types of Marczewski associated game elements that, in his opinion, should best motivate such users. According to this typology, there are 6 types of players: philanthropists, socializers, free spirits, achievers, players, and disruptors. Graphically, the Hexad model is illustrated with a hexagon, where each of the faces is associated with a motivator. The motivational hexagon is surrounded by a larger hexagon, on the edges of which are indicated player types corresponding to the motivation factors.

Later with a team of authors, the Hexad model has been tested based on a survey that has been developed earlier (Tondello et al., 2019). They also conducted a study to check the correspondence between the type of user and the most optimal game elements. They revealed the presence of preferred game elements for players of all types except for philanthropists.

When creating the Hexad typology, the top-down approach was adopted, which distinguishes it from the others presented earlier for the better. Besides, this typology has a questionnaire designed to determine the type of player, the validity of which was tested by its authors (Tondello et al., 2019).

The use of the Hexad typology allows us to avoid several limitations that exist within the framework of typologies aimed at studying full-fledged games. Thus, such typologies suggested the presence of direct social interaction, which may be undesirable when gamification of polls. In the case of the type of social worker Hexad, the interaction with other users is not necessarily implemented directly. Instead, the needs of social workers can be met by integrating elements of social comparison and social research, in which the respondent can be provided with data on the number of survey participants, their distribution by basic demographic characteristics, etc. Also, within this approach, the respondent can get data on survey results after its completion. Motivation

of philanthropists can be realized by pointing out the value of the respondent's participation in this study. Similarly, the motivation of all types of Hexad typology can be affected by various elements of the gamified poll, which makes this typology more relevant for studying gamification of polls than typologies aimed at studying full-fledged games.

Gamification Octalysis

The gamification model Octalysis was developed by gamification specialist Yu-Kai Chou based on his many years of experience in this field. This model includes 8 basic drivers that motivate users of gamification: self-importance, achievement, self-improvement (mission), ownership, social influence, limited resources, secrecy, and the avoidance of negativity (Choi, 2017).

It should be noted that 4 out of 8 elements of the Octalysis model have no analogs among other player typologies. These elements: avoiding negativity, secrecy, limited resources, and a sense of ownership, have a strong business orientation, as they can encourage consumers to take part in a gamified program promptly. In contrast, other typologies are oriented either to the widespread use of gamification in various fields, or to the creation and improvement of games, which does not necessarily require user participation in a strictly limited time.

Graphic designation of the model Octalysis is an octahedron, at the apexes of which motivators are located. The motivational octahedron is surrounded by a larger octahedron, which is used to assess the quality of the application of gamification in a single case. Deleting a vertex of an external octahedron from the verge of an internal one shows how elaborated a particular motivation driver is in the example under study.

Thus, the model Octalysis is not a typology of the player in its pure form. Instead, it is a framework for developing high-quality gamified services. The model is often used to assess the quality of gamification in various areas. However, there are other methods of applying the model. There was a study that utilized this typology and the questionnaire has been developed to determine the extent to which each driver describes the motivation of an individual (Freitas et al., 2017). The disadvantage of this questionnaire is a small number of questions (1 for each driver). Thus, the Octalysis model can be used to determine the types of users of gamification, but there is a need to develop and test a special questionnaire.

(*Please insert Table 1 here*)

Considering the peculiarities of participants behavior in gamified marketing surveys from the players' types perspective has its advantages and disadvantages. Among the advantages can be noted the fact that gamification in its various manifestations is part of the modern world and the reaction of people to the presence of its certain elements in the system should cause already familiar behavioral reactions (Kim and Ahn, 2017; Mitchel et al., 2018). Knowing exactly which elements of gamified design enhance a certain type of motivation and subsequently lead to the

particular behavioral reactions defined by the "type of player" can allow to manage those reactions in advance by choosing types, order, or intensity of mechanics applied. The disadvantages include an increase in the development time of such customized designs, the presence of a small number of contexts in which they are acceptable to apply and the potential impact on the shift of the distribution of results in one direction or another depending on the selected design elements. Another issue with the implementation of typologies into design development is associated with its close connection with the only approach presented in the paper – motivation, because of self-determination theory which defines the mechanism of gamification with regards to motivation-behavior link (Tondello et al., 2016; Koivisto, Hamari, 2019).

Conclusion, discussion and limitations

Currently, an online consumer survey is one of the most frequently used formats of marketing research. However, this form of survey shows lower response rates than other forms of consumer surveys and also threatens the quality of data obtained (Evans and Marthur, 2005). Marketers are faced with the need to find ways to increase the response rate to online surveys and insure survey response quality. One of the possible methods to increase the motivation for survey completion is the implementation of gamified survey designs.

Various studies in the field of gamification of surveys revealed the positive impact of gamification on both survey participation and survey response quality. Gamification stimulates the desired behavior of the respondents by ensuring an improved experience of participation in the survey. This experience is associated with such design characteristics as perceived ease of use and perceived utility of the system, its ability to immerse the respondents in survey completion, as well as to elicit motivation in the process by meeting internal needs for competence, autonomy, and interconnection with other people.

In this paper, we used the technology acceptance model, the concept of flow, and the theory of self-determination to study the user's perception of gamified systems. However, the application of these theories has several disadvantages. The technology adoption model is more applicable to describe the properties of systems into which gamification is integrated than to describe gamification itself. It is better used to evaluate surveys using hard gamification (characterized by a heavy use of game mechanics) and less – for soft gamification. The application of the flow concept in the framework of gamification of surveys can also be put under question, since the time of interaction between the respondent and the survey is short. For this reason, achieving a flow condition when participating in a survey might be rather challenging.

Studies based on the theory of self-determination, revealed the effect of satisfying internal needs on the user's intention to use gamified systems, and also correlated the presence of certain game

elements with the satisfaction of these needs. However, such studies do not take into account the peculiarities of the individual experience of the respondents, as well as the influence of their preferences on the intention to use or not to use the system. The study of such preferences may allow us to identify the reasons for refusing to participate in a gamified survey, and accordingly, make adjustments to the design of the survey to eliminate them.

In the context of gamification, such preferences are described by player types. This approach to the study of various users of the system has been adapted from the field of studying computer games. Taking this set of aspects into consideration highlights the complex emotional experience that attracts participants to games, which can harm the quality of the data obtained from the results of the survey. Therefore, it can be assumed that matching a gamification design to a player's type can have different effects on different types of respondents. The motivation to participate in gamified marketing surveys may depend on the type of player and the correspondence of the gamification elements to the type preferred. For this reason, further research aimed at studying the motivation of respondents belonging to different types of players is relevant.

Emerging character of gamification as a field of study brings certain challenges into the decision-making process about gamified surveys for marketers. On the one hand, there are tested approaches (Harms et al., 2015), which have its disadvantages but a good track of records and understandable limitations. On the other hand, there are also modern approaches (Tondello et al., 2019), which weren't tested in the context of marketing surveys. The engaging nature of such approaches promises an increase in pleasant experience among participants but demands additional customization costs and leaves the question about participant's reaction to a potentially perceived manipulation intent. Researchers need to pay attention to the matter of gamified surveys potential and find an optimal solution for its implementation. It is also necessary to establish what effects each gamification element has not only on satisfaction of the internal need of participant, but how it correlates with cognitive load suitability, persuasion knowledge and, finally, will it affect the results of the survey together with the experience participants will get from it.

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Article 4. Introducing perceived gamification: concept and scale development

Abstract

This paper argues that if the end goal of applying gamification is to change the user's behavior, gamification should be analyzed as an instrument of persuasion. Currently, the impact of gamification on the user is looked through either the lenses of motivation or that of user experience. Upon discussing the shortcomings of these approaches, we highlight the necessity to also assess consumer perception of gamification to enrich the contribution of the gamification research to a wider range of study areas, and in particular - marketing. Therefore, the concept of perceived

gamification is introduced, which is understood as the willingness and ability to recognize promotional activity as a game-like activity without the need to distinguish any particular game elements. To incorporate this approach to gamification study field, a scale for the construct is developed and tested.

Keywords: perceived gamification, gameful experiences, literature review, scale development

1. Introduction

Gamification is widely applied by various companies to achieve goals related to the engagement of consumers (Leclercq et al., 2018), employees (Mitchell et al., 2020), students (Aparicio et al., 2019). The gamification market is steadily growing as the use of gamification for marketing purposes remains one of the major sources of this growth. With the help of gamification, companies strive to overcome user barriers related to the routine of operations in information systems (Koivisto & Hamari, 2019), distance learning (Huang et al., 2019; van Roy et al., 2019), consumer distrust in advertising messages (Seiffert-Brockmann et al., 2018; Vashisht et al., 2019; van Roy & Zaman, 2019), as well as stimulate the creation of positive associations, which subsequently can lead to loyalty, better assimilation of the material, and simplification of the introduction of new systems (Seaborn & Fels, 2015; Rapp et al., 2018; Koivisto & Hamari, 2019). The relevance of studying gamification in marketing is primarily determined by the growing conflict between the existing theoretical knowledge about gamification in information systems and the effectiveness that gamification tools demonstrate when implemented in a real business context (Xi & Hamari, 2019). In Russia, the growing use of gamification in marketing is primarily associated with grocery retailers, which have been extensively launching large-scale gamified promotional campaigns on an ongoing basis. However, despite the widespread distribution of gamified campaigns, companies struggle to find proof and consistency in the results of gamification applications (Klimova, 2018). Moreover, gamified promotions in grocery retail lead to an increase in the amount of waste in the form of booklets, stickers, and collectible figures, which represents a negative impact on the environment. Therefore, there is a vivid demand from business for instruments allowing to assess the potential effectiveness of gamification before its launch.

Current literature allows us to draw a basic understanding of a concept of gamification but mostly from a designer perspective (Ding, 2019), which is a barrier prohibiting rapid expansion of the understanding of the concept to various areas of management, such as marketing. There is currently a lack of measures, which would allow to simultaneously see how people on the receiving end understand gamification and what feelings except for the enjoyment of using the system they have towards gamification and its implementation by a business.

In this paper, we aim at explicating the shortcomings of existing approaches to gamification research, and, in response, propose a way to better align the objectives of modern business with the design of empirical research on the respective subject. To do that, we firstly conduct a literature analysis, which revealed two main approaches towards studying gamification, their peculiarities, and limitations. We then propose a complementary third approach – Gamification as a perception management tool – aimed at compensating some of the shortcomings of the other approaches. Further, we introduce the concept of perceived gamification and argue for the reasons it is necessary to asses consumer perception of gamification to enrich the contribution of the gamification research to the area of marketing studies. Then, we develop a scale for assessing perceived gamification and test it on a sample of 250 respondents. Finally, the implications, limitations, and areas for future research are discussed.

2. Gamification literature analysis

It is generally accepted that the concept of "gamification" was first introduced into the scientific community in 2011 in a report by a group of authors (Deterding et al., 2011) at a conference on new media. It has been proposed to consider gamification as the use of game elements in a non-game context (Deterding et al., 2011, p. 10). Depending on the studied research context, academics have been modifying the definition to reflect the specifics of their scientific work or justify the choice of a research design (Seaborn & Fels, 2015; Koivisto & Hamari, 2019). Table 1 shows examples of the main interpretations of the term "gamification" in various areas of management.

Table 1

Basic definitions of gamification in management studies

Definition	Author, year	Context	Research area
Using game elements in a non-game context	Mekler et al., 2017	Task performance	Information management
Adoption of game mechanics and rewards to increase consumer engagement	Yang et al., 2017	Brand engagement	Marketing
A system that uses game design elements in a non-gaming context to change people's behavior	Bunchball, 2010	Customer loyalty	Marketing
Design strategy used to improve behavioral performance	Hsu, Chen, 2017	Improving consumer experience with online shopping	Marketing
The use of game mechanics to change the behavior and results of the parties involved in non-game situations	Robson et al., 2014	Gamified systems design	Information management
Adding game mechanics and elements (instead of creating	Deterding et al., 2011	Defining the boundaries of a term	Information management

full-fledged games) to develop non-game contexts			
Enhancing a service with affordances for gameful experiences to support users' overall value creation.	Huotari, Hamari, p. 25	Improving user experience	Marketing
An experiential process where the consumer is voluntarily involved in value co-creation game activities that are seen as game service systems	Nobre et al., 2017	Attitude towards brand	Marketing
A form of motivational design, which, in essence, is a means of encouraging people to behave in a certain way.	Werbach, Hunter, 2012	Definition of features of the term	Information management

The most notable addition to the initial understanding of gamification concerned the highlighted focus on the outcomes of gamification and its view as either a characteristic of systems or a characteristic of processes. The majority of researchers concluded that the desired outcome of gamification is, in fact, the change in people's behavior (Bunchball, 2010; Huotari & Hamari, 2017; Werbach & Hunter, 2012). However, the inconclusiveness in boundaries of the definition of gamification while accompanied by the simultaneous usage in studies of several definitions makes it difficult to operationalize the concept in common terms for a wide range of management studies.

In an attempt to contribute towards the systematization of the studied area of research and reveal the research gaps, which prohibit its rapid growth, a literature analysis has been conducted. To cover the majority of publications devoted to gamification, articles published in peer-reviewed journals comprising the ABS-list[4] were selected from Web of Science, Scopus, and EBSCO databases based on the presence of keywords such as "gamification" and "gamified system". The selected 128 relevant papers and preprints covered the period from 2011 to 2020. In a more detailed analysis of annotations, some articles were excluded from the list resulting in 76 publications: 3 A-level journals, 34 B-level journals, 21 C-level journals, and 18 D-level journals. The largest number of publications were empirical research pieces, 42 of which were carried out using the experimental method, 5 articles were dedicated to the development of scales, and 10 articles represented reviews in the form of meta-analysis and bibliography. Among the remained publications, theory-building papers were scarce except for (Deterding et al., 2011), in which the concept of "gamification" was conceptualized for the first time.

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[4] List of peer-reviewed journals by Chartered Association of Business Schools

The publications were then analyzed based on the definition of gamification referred to in the paper, the research context, analyzed outcomes, and the objective of gamification implementation. The results allowed us to distinguish two distinct approaches, determining the peculiarities of choosing the object, subject, and context of gamification research.

2.1 Gamification as a motivation management tool

Within the first approach to defining gamification, the phenomenon is viewed as the application of game mechanics and elements in a non-game context to change user behavior (Deterding et al., 2011; Hofacker et al., 2016; Hsu & Chen, 2018; Mekler et al., 2017). The research contexts for the approach comprise online education and company staff training (Aparicio et al., 2019; Ding, 2019), online testing, passing surveys (Triantoro et al., 2019), adoption of information systems (Mekler et al., 2017), knowledge management (Friedrich et al., 2019), and loyalty programs (Kim & Ahn, 2017). Consequently, the changed user behavior mentioned in the definition mainly refers to perceived ease of use (Koivisto & Hamari, 2019; Yang et al., 2017), change in the quantity and quality of completed tasks in the system (Mekler et al., 2017; Sailer et al., 2017; van Roy & Zaman, 2019), duration of use of the system (Groening & Binneweis, 2019; Hassan et al., 2019), and willingness to participate in loyalty programs (Kim & Ahn, 2017; Hwang & Choi, 2020).

According to theory, gamification is a powerful tool to boost intrinsic motivation (Koivsito & Hamari, 2019; Mitchell et al., 2018; Sailer et al., 2017). Introduction of various mechanics allows engaging users into considering non-material elements such as badges, virtual points, leaderboards as rewards, which leads to satisfaction of a need for competence, socialization or autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Kim & Anh, 2017; Sailer et al., 2017; Hsu & Chen, 2017). Self-determination theory points out that satisfaction of those needs leads to intrinsic motivation boost that in turn helps to eliminate or minimize focusing on the extrinsic source of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000; van Roy & Zaman, 2019, Seaborn & Fels, 2015). Hence, the use of gamification with that type of objective is relevant in managing loyalty programs, promotional campaigns, or during short-term contests where the participation rate and progress are important (Hwang et al., 2019; Hsu & Chen, 2017).

This approach is largely based on the definition of gamification by (Deterding et al., 2011), which has been later criticized (see, for example: (Werbach, 2014; Huotari & Hamari, 2012; 2017)). Among the key arguments, it was noted that it was impossible to create a universal list of game elements that would accurately determine an activity as gamification (Werbach, 2014), as well as the lack of consideration of user experience (Huotari & Hamari, 2012; 2017). According to K. Werbach (Werbach, 2014), the definition corresponds to certain types of activity that should not be considered gamified, such as passing exams. Formally, this process meets all the necessary

criteria: it takes place in a non-game context, often has several levels, and as a result, the participant receives a certain score, which can be interpreted as a game element. However, an exam, like some other activities with similar characteristics, according to the author, is not a gamification example. The use of this approach allows comparing "gamification vs no gamification" (Hamari, 2015; Kim & Ahn, 2017) or the efficiency of different game mechanics (Sailer et al., 2017; Mekler et al., 2017). Appealing to the gamification as a presence of some particular mechanic is simple and allows to visualize the distinction. Therefore, experimental design, in this case, is one of the best ways to answer stated research questions. Nevertheless, those questions would have a limited range and hence are best used to deduce hypotheses about the impact of various mechanics. Another shortcoming of the approach is related to the ambiguous identification method of game mechanics. For example, in the marketing literature, there are several studies where competition and cooperation are considered as game mechanics (Leclercq et al., 2018; Eisengerich et al., 2019). Though the researchers were able to find out some differences between the two, it is difficult to replicate the study because the nature and scope of the mechanics is unclear.

2.2 Gamification as an experience management tool

According to the second approach, gamification is viewed as the process of improving services provided with the emphasis on creating a gaming experience and a sense of "full perception of the game" to create additional value for the consumer (Huotari & Hamari, 2017; Mullins & Subherwal, 2020; Hsu & Chen, 2018; Eppman et al., 2018). The corresponding research context generally includes marketing research (Leclercq et al., 2018), development of consumer relations with the brand (Nobre & Ferrera, 2017), consumer experience management (Eppman et al., 2018), employees engagement management (Mitchell et al., 2020; Ding, 2019), and managing online communities (Yang et al., 2017).

Gamification is a popular tool used to engage customers into relationships and stimulate the value co-creation process which can be reached through customer engagement (Leclercq et al., 2018). Customer engagement also results from motivational drivers (van Doorn et al., 2010) which means that consideration of consumer motivation when implementing gamification is important but not necessarily because of extrinsic reward sensitivity minimization. It is important for the formation of a relationship between consumer and brand through value co-creation processes (Cossio-Silva et al., 2016; Nobre & Ferreira, 2017) or engagement in online discussion and word-of-mouth (Ding, 2019; Hassan et al., 2019; Hamari, 2015).

The approach is largely based on the perspective of gamification initially introduced by (Werbach, 2014; Huotari & Hamari, 2017). According to the authors, it is the consumer experience acquired through gamification that is primary and not the methods by which it is created (Huotari & Hamari, 2017). In other words, the main goal of gamification is not to increase the user's involvement at

the moment of its interaction with the gamified system, but elicit the impression that will remain after using the system and the intentions that will form as a result (Rapp et al., 2018). Defining gamification as a process implies that gamified system designers must create a chain of hedonic experiences which will lead the user or customer to feel satisfaction.

2.3 Research gap

2.3.1. Focus on motivational research

Most of the scientific work in the field of gamification is currently devoted to the study of individual mechanics or testing hypotheses regarding the motivational mechanisms behind the implementation of those mechanics. This phenomenon is often recalled as the "era of motivational research" (Koivisto & Hamari, 2019). We believe that the disadvantages of this conceptualization of gamification and its operationalization have led to a very fragmented theoretical basis and convoluted determination of the place of gamification in management theory, despite the abundance of well-developed empirical components in the studies of gamification. Existing authors put forward weighty arguments in favor of the positive effects of gamification on the behavior of users of systems and consumers of products, but their practical recommendations tend to be most relevant for designers of information systems.

2.3.2. Lack of a clear approach attribution

The duality of the approaches to the definition of gamification can be evidenced in recent works, where a hybrid form of gamification definition is used, or both of the approaches' characteristics are referred to (Diefenbach et al., 2019; Buil et al., 2020; Hollig et al., 2020). In the field of marketing the use of both definitions is more common as well (Nobre & Ferreira, 2017; Eisingerich et al., 2019; Leclercq et al., 2018, 2020; Hsu & Chen, 2019). However, even though the characteristics of both approaches may be present in the research, the authors usually end up taking only one of the perspectives, with that diluting the scope of the study and making it hard to estimate the applicability of the results to the existing wide range of contexts. Therefore, many of the researchers who apply the dual approach (Hofacker et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2017; Eppman et al., 2018) have aimed mainly to develop a theory without additional testing or have just partially tested their models using descriptive characteristic.

2.4.3. Limited operationalization opportunities

Although the concept of service systems was originally proposed as part of the marketing concept, at present, the approach to the definition of gamification as a process is more likely to belong to the field of information systems design sciences (Koivisto & Hamari, 2019). The main issue with this approach is the difficulty of operationalization. As the creation of customer engagement through hedonic experiences is not always a result of gamification, methods are needed, which would help the designer of the gamification to attribute the impact to a particular game mechanic or game experience. As the same game mechanic can be perceived by different users in a variety of ways (van Roy et al., 2019), it is imperative to be able to assess the consumer perspective of gamification as well.

3. Gamification as a perception management tool

To account for the abovementioned research gaps, we suggest introducing another approach to defining gamification with a focus on consumer perception, tailored mainly for marketing research. This approach will help to identify how intensive and visible gamification is for consumers and how this perception can influence the outcomes of gamification. To operationalize the approach, the concept of perceived gamification is suggested.

Perceived gamification can be defined as the willingness and ability to recognize promotional activity as game-like activity without the need to distinguish any particular game elements. Within the scope of this study, we will consider perceived gamification in the marketing context because the perspective of the consumer is crucial in marketing studies and gamification of marketing still occupies the first place in market share for gamification in the world (octalysis.com).

3.1. Gamification and consumer perception

Researchers in marketing tried to apply gamification as a motivational tool for brand engagement increase (Nobre & Ferreira, 2017), but the results were contradictory and distorted (Mekler et al., 2017; Leclercq et al., 2018). The only "clean" results which have proved motivational abilities of gamification were built around loyalty programs (Kim & Ahn, 2017; Hwang et al., 2019). The issue which might be the reason not only for challenging results but for the limited understanding of gamification value by many practitioners is that gamification in marketing may be perceived by consumers not as a motivational tool, but as a tool of persuasion. The importance of consumer perception of game mechanics has been established in a study by R. Roy, S. Deterding and B. Zaman, who revealed that users of gamified systems functionalize badges – one the most popular gamification element, differently in the process of online courses completion (van Roy et al.,

2019). This difference is based on the perception of the meaning every user assign to the badge which led researchers to suggestion about various ways to understand and measure the mechanism of gamification (van Roy et al., 2019).

Gamification, regardless of the approach to the definition, is created to change behavior. Any experience that is created to change attitudes, behaviors, or both is a persuasive experience (Fogg, 2008). Gamification is doing this "by focusing on the entirety of the users' experience to find the relevant spots where it can blend in the experience and do its magic" (smashmagazine. com). By enhancing motivation gamification can influence the subconscious decision and hence quickly become part of our irrational behavioral pattern. That is why it's crucially important to understand how the fact that the consumer recognizes some type of promotion as gamification would influence attitude, behavioral intentions towards the brand, product, or a loyalty program.

A game representation serves a valuable "trigger" on its own as it elicits an impact irrespective of whether the game is played and experienced. In other words, offering a game or inviting people to play a game may act as a signal or cue for consumers which might lead to favorable purchase reactions. Therefore, the relationship between gamification and intrinsic motivation which are positioned as direct relationships in gamification theory may evoke doubts as to whether it is the only or the most correct way to understand gamification influence.

It is often noted that there is no proper measurement instrument for capturing the emotional and involving qualities of gamification, that is, gameful experiences (Huotari & Hamari 2017). Although it has been suggested that users can have a gameful experience without actually playing a game (Eppmann et al., 2018), existing measures of the construct (e.g., Game engagement questionnaire by (Brockmyer et al. 2009), Game experience questionnaire by (Eppmann et al., 2018)) cannot be used for potential users of the system or for testing gamified systems, which are only available in a form of a description, e.g., a gamified loyalty program rules description.

3.2 Perceived gamification and gameful experiences

Using a measure of perceived gamification in a complementary way with gameful experience estimation should allow distinguishing the range of positive user effects, which occur from actually engaging with the system from those, which occur from its general evaluation, e.g., seeing the promotional stimuli, hearing the description of the system, reading the rules concerning the game mechanics, or watching a video depicting gamified system usage. In turn, it can be expected that gameful experiences can change perceived gamification, as actual game engagement can evoke memories of previous interaction with the same or similar game mechanic from either game- or non-game contexts. For example, the description of a gamified loyalty program of a grocery store offering awards for stickers collection, which are handed to the user upon each purchase, by itself

may be perceived as potentially entertaining or enjoyable, and lead to a better perception of the store.

Furthermore, the actual process of collecting, peeling off the promotional stickers, and attaching them to a promotional brochure has the potential to bring even more value to the consumer, and increase the store image further. However, if the stickers are hard to peel off, or, for example, there are no brochures left in the store at the moment of purchase, this gamified system will likely to be less effective by evoking fewer positive associations with the store and less purchase intention. To be able to comprehensively understand the success and failure factors of gamification, it is therefore important to distinguish the perception of gamified system design from the results of experiencing the game mechanics embedded in the system. It is possible to suggest that the positive impact on consumer perception of gamified system design can be partially attributed to perceived gamification, which is a common but not mandatory consequence of such designs. Therefore, based on results of research on consumer responses to gamified stimuli (e.g., (Blohm & Leimister, 2013)), it is possible to assume that a higher level of perceived gamification will be associated with higher consumer intrinsic motivation.

3.3 Consumer personal characteristics and perceived gamification

It should be noted that most studies on the subject investigate the behavior of users of gamified systems without taking into consideration personality characteristics. According to certain views, this fact does not allow to accurately determine the individual user experience (Ferro et al., 2013). The game elements that form the basis of a gamified system only set the possibilities of the gaming experience. At the same time, the user experience itself depends on the perception of these possibilities, i.e. whether the user is aware of their existence, as well as whether he or she uses these capabilities. Thus, different game elements can in different ways influence the motivation of different users, which is currently not considered in such studies.

Five main typologies consider the relationship between characteristics of consumers as players, their leading motivation, and game mechanics which could have influenced the efficiency of particular mechanics usage (Tondello et al., 2019).

1. *Bartle's typology of players.* The initial version included 4 types of players: killers, achievers, socializers, and explorers. These types were allocated depending on the player's action preferences concerning the system ("act on" or "act with") and to other players (Bartle, 1996).
2. *The first demographic game design model (DGD1).* A prerequisite for the study was the assumption that players with different degrees of commitment to games (hardcore

and casual gaming) have different personality characteristics. According to this assumption, individuals who identify themselves as avid players should demonstrate such characteristics of the Myers-Briggs typology as introversion, thinking, and judgment (Bateman et al., 2011)

3. *Brainhex typology.* The prerequisite for its creation was precisely the absence of a universal typology of players capable of describing the behavior in any kind of game. The authors adapted the "top-down" approach, building on existing research in the field of neuroscience to highlight possible types of gaming experience (Bateman et al., 2011). Subsequently, these types were certified by empirical data using a specially developed questionnaire (Nacke et al., 2011).

4. *Hexad model.* Following this classification, players of different types can be motivated by external or internal factors to varying degrees. Thus, the division into types occurred not based on the observed behavior, but based on motivation factors, which were adapted from the self-determination theory, and was also partially identified by the author himself. This "bottom-up" approach (from theory to behavior) differs from the approach used in the compilation of most existing typologies. When creating the Hexad typology, the top-down approach was adopted, which distinguishes it from the others presented earlier for the better. In addition to that, this typology has a questionnaire designed to determine the type of player, the validity of which was tested by its authors (Tondello et al., 2019).

5. *Octalysis typology.* This model includes 8 basic drivers that motivate users of gamification: self-importance, achievement, self-improvement (mission), ownership, social influence, limited resources, secrecy, and the avoidance of negativity (Choi, 2017). Thus, the model Octalysis is not a typology of the player in its pure form. Instead, it is a framework for developing high-quality gamified services. The model is often used to assess the quality of gamification in various areas. However, there are other methods of applying the model. There was a study that utilized this typology and the questionnaire has been developed to determine the extent to which each driver describes the motivation of an individual (Freitas et al., 2017). The disadvantage of this questionnaire is a small number of questions (1 for each driver). Thus, the Octalysis model can be used to determine the types of users of gamification, but there is a need to develop and test a special questionnaire.

These typologies demonstrate that there is a rationale in the attempt to connect the personal characteristics of people and their gaming experience with the attitude towards gamification and

its acceptance in general. As perception is influenced by previous experiences it would be right to introduce some personal characteristics into understanding the perceived gamification.

4. Testing a scale for perceived gamification

As was previously noted, the existing measures of gameful experiences (e.g., Game engagement questionnaire by (Brockmyer et al. 2009), Game experience questionnaire by (Eppmann et al., 2018)) do not take into account the fact of game recognition by the respondents and require the respondents to go through the actual game-like experience before survey completion. Consequently, these measures cannot be used for estimating the effect of gamification on potential users of gamified systems, which limits the possibilities of empirical application. Therefore, there is a need to develop a measure that can estimate the user effects resulting from the mere exposure to gamification cues, e.g., seeing the promotional stimuli, hearing the description of the system, reading the rules, etc. To develop the scale for perceived gamification, we applied the methodology proposed by (Hinkin, 1995; Boateng et al., 2018) and sequentially performed item development, scale development, and scale evaluation.

4.1 Scale development procedure

For item generation purposes we applied the inductive method as we used qualitative data obtained through focus groups and individual interviews. To generate items for the measure, we undertook in-depth interviews using interview guides with 11 men and 12 women in the age range of 18 to 55 gathered through convenience sampling. We showcased to the respondents a series of ads depicting various gamified promotions from different industries and asked to describe what they have in common. The total number of stimuli included 7 gamified promotion cues from McDonald's (fast food restaurant chain), Starbucks (cafe chain), Dua Lingua (language learning app), Lays (chips), Tide (detergent), Yandex Taxi (taxi service), and Sberbank (banking) campaigns. The variety of promotion types and contexts was taken to avoid construct underrepresentation, which is when a scale does not capture important aspects of a construct because its focus is too narrow, for example, on a particular industry or a particular game mechanic.

According to the interview guide, the respondents had to elaborate on the following aspects of the stimuli: the goals of the promotion, the feelings they arise, the target audience of the promotion, and the persuasion tools used. The data from these interviews were thematically analyzed, with the results informing the identification of items to be added or deleted from the initial

questionnaire. The resulting pool of questions consisted of 10 items in line with Schinka et al. (2012) who note that the initial pool of items developed should be at minimum twice as long as the desired final scale (see Table 2). Five points Likert-type scales have been chosen based on recommendations from (Krosnick & Presser, 2009).

Table 2

The initial pool of scale items for perceived gamification

Item	Dimension	Comment
This promotion is very complicated	Gamified promotion attribute	Deleted on content validity stage
This promotion is not serious	Gamified promotion attribute	Deleted on content validity stage
This promotion tries to entertain	Gamified promotion attribute	Deleted on content validity stage
This promotion is for those who like to take a chance	Target audience perception	
This promotion is for those who are curious	Target audience perception	
This promotion is for those who like to play	Target audience perception	
This promotion is for those who are young	Target audience perception	Deleted on content validity stage
This promotion is for those who are smart	Target audience perception	Deleted on content validity stage
This promotion looks like a game	Game resemblance	
There are game elements in this promotion	Game resemblance	

Content validity was assessed through evaluation by expert judges, consisting of 5 marketing and consumer behavior professors independent from those who developed the item pool. They have evaluated each of the items to determine whether they represent the domain of interest. Items were either accepted, rejected, or modified based on majority opinion. After item development and expert judgment, cognitive interviews were conducted with 18 respondents with similar characteristics to the target population to refine and assess item interpretation. The interviews were done in two rounds until saturation was established. Five items were dropped after cognitive interviews for lack of clarity or importance (see Table 2). Mild modifications were made to grammar, word choice, and answer options based on the feedback from the interviews.

4.2 Scale test

Further item reduction was performed by conducting a test on the target audience. The sample included participants of an online consumer panel from a population which satisfies the following requirements: age 18-55, the equal division between genders, income according to which the respondent has at least enough money for food and clothes, and the respondent must be personally purchasing groceries from chain retail stores at least once per month. The overall sample amounted to 250 participants, which well exceeds the minimum recommendation for a ratio of a sample size to a number of items tested (Nunnally, 1978).

The preliminary research was designed as an experiment with a control group and an experimental group, to which the respondents were assigned randomly. In each group the respondent first had to answer questions concerning demographical characteristics and purchase behavior, then they were exposed to one of the two stimuli (see Appendix A). Then they were asked to fill in a questionnaire, which included the tested scale, game attitude original measure, and also measures of related constructs taken from the literature: willingness to participate in the promotion (Petrevu & Lord, 1994) and entertainment value (Mathwick, et al., 2001).

Both of the stimuli described the introduction of a new promotion in a food retail chain, in which the respondent occasionally shops in. Based on a question, where the respondent would indicate the chain of grocery retail stores, he or she attends the most, the name of that chain was automatically added to the stimuli. The preassigned variants of store chains were: Semya, Diksi, Pyatorochka, Okey, Prisma, Lenta, Magnit, Karusel, Azbuka vkusa, Spar, Metro, Perekryostok, and Ashan. The value of the promotion as well as the requirements for promotion completion was adjusted to the sum of money the respondent typically spends in that store for one week, and the number of visits of the store per week, as indicated by each respondent at the beginning of the experiment. In the high-intensity gamification group, such game mechanics were embedded as symbolic points collection, levels, and narrative. The control group lacked the division of the levels, narrative and additional points symbolism, which are expected to attribute to a lesser value of perceived gamification.

To identify items that are the least-related to the domain under study for deletion or modification, analysis of inter-item, item-total correlations and factor analysis were conducted. The lowest correlations (0.43) were found between items 1 and 3, while the rest of the correlations averaged from 0.50 to 0.76. Item-total correlations indicated desirable values from 0.78 to 0.85. Therefore, no indication was found for the need for potential deletion of items from the tentative scale. The factor analysis revealed a single factor structure with factor loadings from 0.70 to 0.84 and no notable cross-loadings or uniqueness of particular items. An alpha coefficient of 0.89 indicates

high internal consistency of the scale items, i.e., the degree to which the set of items in the scale co-vary, relative to their sum score (DeVellis, 2012).

Construct validity assessed by evaluating differentiation by known groups, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. In this study, the mean perceived gamification scores were compared over groups with or without the high intensity of gamification by using ANOVA (control group versus experimental groups). Consistent with expectation, respondents from groups with higher perceived gamification indicated significantly higher perceived gamification than the respondents from the control group (diff=0.229; p=0.05). This suggested that the scale could discriminate between particular known groups. Convergent validity was ensured by using the following criteria: average variance extracted (AVE) >0.5, scale composite reliability (CR) >0.7, and the item factor loadings >0.6 (Bagozzi and Yi, 2012) (see Table 3).

Table 3

Reliability and convergent validity analysis of the scale

Construct/ items	St. factor loading	Cronbach's Alpha	KMO	CR	AVE
Perceived gamification					
This promotion is for those who are curious	0.81				
This promotion is for those who like to play	0.83	.89	.82	.89	.62
This promotion is for those who like to take a chance	0.78				
This promotion looks like a game	0.8				
There are game elements in this promotion	0.7				

For all the constructs the Fornell-Larcker (Fornell and Larcker, 1981) criterion has been met, thus ensuring discriminant validity between the constructs of the conceptual model (see Table 4).

Table 4

AVE and squared correlation coefficients

		1.	2.	3.	4.
1.	Perceived gamification	**0.62**	0.35	0.24	0.07
2.	Entertainment value	0.59	**.87**	0.84	0.1
3.	Willingness to participate	0.49	0.92	**.92**	0.09
4.	Game attitudes	0.28	0.32	0.3	**.52**

5. Conclusion

The analysis of 76 state-of-art gamification studies has allowed distinguishing three approaches to defining gamification for research designs. The first approach – Gamification as a motivation management tool – is focused on the interaction between a system where gamification has been introduced and the user of this system. The second approach – Gamification as an experience management tool – deals with various kinds of engagement-oriented outcomes, which include: value co-creation activities efficiency, customer engagement, reaction to advertising messages, and change of attitudes towards the brand, program or any system after engagement in the gamified activity. The two approaches are characterized by different outcomes, which are measured in respective studies. Both of them also consider gamification from the system's designer point of view. The limitations of the approaches' implementation have been discussed, such as the extensive focus on motivational research, the misuse of both approaches at once, and the limited results application possibilities for the marketing discipline due to difficulties in construct operationalization.

The third approach – Gamification as a perception management tool – is a new approach proposed to enrich existing understanding of gamification by considering the perspective of the consumer, who can form an opinion on the efficiency of the gamification even before engaging with the gamified system. To develop this approach, a new construct – perceived gamification – has been introduced. We have defined perceived gamification as the willingness and ability to recognize promotional activity as the game-like activity without the need to distinguish any particular game elements. This study thus helps to narrow down the gap existing in current literature dedicated to gamification in marketing. The research also helps to widen the understanding of the relationship between gamification and intrinsic motivation. Practitioners can use the developed concept of perceived gamification to investigate their current or planned gamification introduction into the market and predict potential behavioral outcomes which will, as research revealed, differ as perception changes.

In response to the limitations of existing original scales in gamification research, which do not allow us to measure the perception of gamification by the user or consumer, we have developed a scale to measure perceived gamification. In the process of scale development, we sequentially performed item development, scale development, and scale evaluation. Interviews and focus groups were conducted to form the initial item pool, while experts help to determine content validity. The scale was tested on a sample of 250 participants, and have passed all the required reliability and validity tests. The final version of the scale included 5 items with overall Cronbach Alpha of 0,89.

The fact that the final test for the scale was conducted for food retail to a certain extent limits the scope of scale application. Further studies should apply the measure in other marketing contexts.

As the stimuli for the empirical research contained just the description of gamification, it was impossible to additionally test the other scales for gameful experiences (e.g., Game engagement questionnaire by (Brockmyer et al. 2009), Game experience questionnaire by (Eppmann et al., 2018)), because they are used to assess the consumers experience only during and after, but not before actual engagement with the gamified system. The information on the relative comparison of the impact of gamification perception and game experience evaluation on such outcome variables as purchase intentions and customer advocacy can be invaluable to marketing researchers. Finally, the study mentions the potential impact of personal consumer characteristics on the perceived gamification and consequently – its impact on gamification outcomes. However, apart from game attitude, the potential variables are not evaluated in this study. Further development of this approach is likely to rely on such research, which would explore the antecedents of perceived gamification in more detail.

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Appendix A

High-gamification stimuli:

Store X* is your road to benefits!

Dear customer! We invite you to register and receive a personal card of a member of the "Club of Roads". The card will be issued to you the next time you visit our store or exchanged for your existing loyalty card. At the same time, all the conditions and benefits of using the old card will also remain.

It is the "key" to your "Road Knight" - a virtual car on which you can make the trip to the most profitable purchases!

Each one-time purchase in stores of our network in the amount of **(A + 20%)/ B** or more rub. propels your "Knight" 50 km ahead! Every month, your "Knight" needs to overcome a **4*B*50** km long track!

All riders who have reached the mark of **2*B*50** km have the opportunity, upon their first purchase next month, to receive a discount on any product in the amount of **2*(A*10/100)** rubles.

All riders who have reached the finish line (**4*B*50** km) for this month have the opportunity, upon their first purchase in the next month, to receive a discount on any product in the amount of **4*(A*20/100)** rubles!

Low-gamification stimuli:

Store **X** is your road to benefits!

Dear customer! We invite you to register in the new **X** loyalty program and receive a new store card. The card will be issued to you the next time you visit our store or exchanged for your existing loyalty card. At the same time, all the conditions and benefits of using the old card will also remain. Each one-time purchase in stores of our network in the amount of **(A + 20%)/ B** rub. or more gives you 50 points!

All buyers who collected **4*B*50** points for this month get the opportunity to receive a discount on any product in the amount of **4*(A*20/100)** rub. on their first purchase next month.

*X stands for the food retail store chain brand (out of a range of preassigned variants), which the respondent attends the most. The preassigned variants were: 7 semya. Diksi, Pyatorochka, Okey, Prisma, Lenta, Magnit, Karusel, Azbuka vkusa, Spar, Metro, Perekryostok, Ashan.

**A stands for the sum of money the respondent typically spends in that store for one week.

*** B is the number of visits of the store per week.

Article 5. Are you playing fair? Consequences of gamification recognition in fast-food chains' promotion

1. Introduction

Among academics, gamification is either considered as "the use of game mechanics in non-game context" or as "process of enhancing a service with affordances for gameful experiences in order to support users' overall value creation". Recent studies, however, often use a hybrid definition, which allows to include wider variety of issues under gamification research umbrella [Leclerq et al., 2020]. In practice, the implementation of gamification in marketing is among the most popular areas, while the situation is different different for research in. marketing. The largest amount of empirical studies about gamification are published in the area of education (46.7%) as the business research field does not even make top-5 (3.6%) [Koivisto, Hamari, 2019].

The relevance of studying gamification in marketing is primarily determined by the growing conflict between the existing theoretical knowledge about gamification in information systems and the effectiveness that gamification tools demonstrate when implemented in a real business context [Xi, Hamari, 2019]. Despite repeated scientific evidence of increased motivation among users of gamified systems compared to non-gamified systems [Sailer et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2017, Mitchel et al., 2020; Lecrerq et a., 2018, etc.], there is evidence that in practice the costs of creating such systems often do not pay off [Xi, Hamari, 2020; Buil et al., 2020]. Similar contradictions have already led to an increase in companies' distrust of gamification.

Most of the research in the field of gamification is devoted to the study of individual mechanics or to testing hypotheses regarding the motivational mechanisms that they act on [Koivisto, Hamari, 2019] which is undoubtedly important, but covers only one area with limited number of issues raised. The majority of papers have a well-developed empirical component, but the theoretical basis and the positioning of gamification in management theory are fragmented.

Another issue in both theory and practice of gamification in marketing concerns the ethics. It has been noted that the covert nature of gamification designs that influences cognitive level to certain extent rais questions about the use of deceptive tactics [Thorpe, Roper, 2019]. The rationale for ethical problems in place lies in the not fully realized mechanism of motivation change underling the behavioral shift. Current literature allows us to draw the basic understanding of a concept of gamification from a designer perspective [Ding, 2019], while the lack of research dedicated to study consumers' point of view stays a significant barrier for expanding the research area to marketing. The same barrier does not allow to thoroughly research the attitude consumers have towards potential manipulative nature of gamification.

In response, this paper adopts the persuasion knowledge theory together with the self-determination theory (further – SDT) to explain what happens if consumers recognize gamification and how their identification of the company's manipulative intents influences intrinsic motivation. We propose an empirical model which uncovers relationshipa between consumers' perception of a promotion as gamelike and the formation of behavioral intention. Then we investigate an effect of the sense of manipulation on intrinsic motivation formation.

The contribution of this paper is twofold. First, we provide new insights on recent work arguing an importance of consideration the consumer / user perspective to gamification studies [Roy et al., 2019; Leclerq et al., 2020]. We are considering a situation where the gamified incentive represented real-life promotions of the McDonald's fast-food restaurant chain, the design of which did not have an explicit claim of gamification. While existing research relies on the assumption that the direct application of the gamification mechanics leads to behavioral changes, we consider the case of consumer meeting with promotion without necessarily knowing if it is gamification or not. We are contributing to gamification literature by uncovering another side of understanding and managing the effectiveness of gamification.

Second, we suggest an extension of understanding of the intrinsic motivation formation process by studying gamification as a covert marketing tool. Theory suggests that only when consumers both recognize the marketing attempt as concealed and find the intent behind it as manipulative than the positive impact of perceived gamification can be diminished . There are few studies , which showed negative or insignificant effect of gamification implementation, but results were linked to the experience of either winning or losing in the game.

2. Theoretical background

2.1 Gamification as an engagement tool

According to the literature on gamification, gamification is considered as an experiential process where the consumer is voluntarily involved in value co-creation game activities [Nobre, Ferreira, 2017]. Two main components could be determined of this view: the voluntary nature of participation and the presence of elements that make the experience look like a game. While the influence of game elements on behavioral outcomes is an area thoroughly researched [Sailer et al., 2017; Koivisto, Hamari, 2019; Kim, Ahn, 2017], the mechanisms behind the voluntary participation are still out of the focus of an attention.

There is a well-established tradition to explain the mechanism of gamification through the lenses of the self-determination theory [Huotari, Hamari, 2015; Mitchel et al., 2018; Sailer et al., 2017; Kim, Ahn, 2017; Ding, 2019]. Some researchers use the cognitive evaluation theory to for a more detailed look at the mechanism of intrinsic motivation enhancement [Mitchel et al., 2018; Tondello et al., 2019; Kim. Ahn, 2017; Sailer et al., 2017]. Consideration of gamification from this position allows to draw conclusions regarding its applicability in loyalty programs as the mitigator for an extrinsic reward attachment and further catalysator of the willingness to participate [Kim, Ahn, 2017; Hwang et al., 2019]. Another research direction is to study intrinsic motivation activation because of system design changes, where the leading theoretical framework is the technology acceptance model (further – TAM) [Hamari, 2014; Yang et al., 2017; Hassan et al., 2019]. The use of this logic has become the foundation for the development of perspective on gamification as a holistic process of an experience design [Hamari, Huotari, 2017] rather than just implementation of certain elements in various systems.

Gamification studies have repeatedly confirmed the fact of increased intrinsic motivation among users of gamified systems [Mitchell et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2017; Kim, Ahn, 2017; Sailer et al., 2017], which allowed to view gamification as a tool for motivation management. By increasing motivation, gamification can cause behavioral changes, increasing the desire of consumers to act and creating a convenient and effective way to help them achieve long-term goals [Servick, 2015].

Another perspective that has been developing among researchers of gamification in marketing is approaching gamification as a tool of engagement rather than motivation alone [Leclerq et al., 2020]. Consumer engagement – is the level of interaction of the consumer with the company, which goes beyond the scope of ordinary transactions and manifests itself as non-

purchase consumer behaviors with respect to the brand or company, based on increased motivation to maintain relationships [van Doorm et al., 2010].

Understanding the causes of consumer behavior and shaping desired behavioral intentions is one of the key marketing goals. Changes in behavior require enough daily motivation [Eisingerich et al., 2019], which might be reached both by direct motivation boost and by engagement through experience. The study of actual behavior within the gamification domain led to increase in bias towards specially created promotions, systems, and loyalty programs where the behavior is formed in a simulated environment. Such a research design involves the designer working out a system of goals for the desired behavior in a specific situation, which cannot always be transferred to the context of a real business. Additionally, when it comes to gamification in marketing, most real-life cases are related either to an offline interaction environment or to a mixed one. While the majority of papers testing gamification suggest an online environment or the presence of digital applications, it appears to be needed to instead look at behavioral intentions first (see Table 1).

Behavioral intention is considered as the subjective probability that the consumer is ready to carry out one or another action [Fishbein, Ajzen, 1975]. Behavioral intention is based on attitudes toward action, subjective norms, and perceived control of action. The connection between behavioral intention and real action is explained by the theory of planned behavior by Ajzen and Fishbein [Fishbein, Ajzen, 1975].

Based on the theoretical analysis we can assume that engagement together with intentions to participate or share information would be among the main behavioral consequences. However, that requires an understanding of whether the formation of these intentions is directly related to gamification and which scenario will affect efficiency better: if the consumer recognizes the game in the system or vice versa?

In line with the study by [van Roy, Deterding, and Zaman, 2019], which showcased that for different users the same gamification tool can be perceived as a different game mechanic (either badges, or point collection), it could be argued that when it comes to consumer perception, the extent to which a system is gamified is a subject to the eye of the beholder. Similarly, the same gamified system can be viewed as game-like by some users, while it may not be recognized as a game at all by other users.

It is often noted that there is no proper measurement instrument for capturing the emotional and involving qualities of gamification, that is, gameful experiences [Huotari and Hamari 2017; Leclerq et al., 2020]. Although it has been suggested that users can have a gameful experience without actually playing a game [Eppmann, Bekk, and Klein, 2018], existing measures of the construct (e.g., Game engagement ques-tionnaire by [Brockmyer et al. 2009], Game experience

questionnaire by [Eppmann, Bekk, and Klein, 2018]) cannot be used for potential users of the system or for testing gamified systems only available in a form of a description, e.g., a gamified loyalty program rules description.

To make a unified measure of perception, we suggest operationalizing it with a new concept – perceived gamification. We will consider perceived gamification in the marketing context, because the perspective of a consumer is crucial in marketing studies and gamification of marketing is still on the first place in market share for gamification in the world [octalysis. com]

Using a measure of perceived gamification in a complementary way with gameful experience estimation should allow to distinguish the range of positive user effects, which occur from actually engaging with the system from those, which occur from its general evaluation, e.g., seeing the promotional stimuli, hearing the description of the system , reading the rules concerning the game mechanics, or watching a video depicting gamified system usage.

Table 1. Behavioral intention researched in gamification studies

Author, year	Research context	Research design	Behavioral intentions	Findings
Buil et al., 2020	Recruiting	Business simulation, survey of participants according to the results	Willingness to recommend a company	Meeting the needs of participants in competence and autonomy is associated with their independent motivation to participate and recommend participation to others
Diefenbach, 2019	Health	Analysis of the use of a real application, mixed method: interview and survey	Willingness to continue using	Negative aspects of the influence of gamification on motivation and further desire to use associated with the wrong balance of game mechanics in the application are revealed
Ding, 2019	Online learning	Analysis of activity in online discussions, mixed method: interview and experiment	Engagement	Students in the group where gamification was applied showed higher engagement. At the same time, students who knew that the process was gamified were more active.
Eisingerich et al., 2019	Health	Two types of experiment: laboratory and field	Engagement, willingness to buy	Two additional mediators affecting engagement have been identified - hope, which increases engagement and coercion, which has a reverse mechanism.
Hwang et al., 2019	Loyalty programs	Laboratory experiment	Willingness to participate in loyalty programs, download applications	Gamified loyalty programs influence loyalty formation better than classic loyalty programs
Kim, Ahn, 2017	Loyalty programs	Laboratory experiment	Willingness to participate in loyalty program	The degree of readiness to participate in gamified loyalty programs depends on how successfully selected game mechanics.
Nobre, Ferreira, 2017	Branding	Interviews and focus groups, users of various applications	Engagement	Consumer engagement increases when they find 5 types of benefits: utilitarian, hedonistic, social, inalienable and aesthetic.
Leclerq et al., 2018	Brand communities	Product competition, field experiment	Engagement	There is a relationship between increased engagement and the valency of previous gaming interaction experiences. There are no significant

				differences between the mechanics of cooperation and competition for engagement.
Mekler et al., 2017	Productivity	Selection of game elements to increase the efficiency of work in the system	Willingness to continue working in the system	The willingness and effectiveness of the work in the system is determined not so much by the choice of a game element as by the compatibility of this element and orientation to control vs user autonomy.
Hollig et al., 2020	Project management	Distinction between individual and group effects, laboratory experiment	Willingness to use the system	The ability to compete on an individual rather than a team level is positively associated with a willingness to use the system.
Yang et al., 2017	Brand management	Attitude to the brand after the gaming experience, field experiment	Willingness to participate in brand gaming activity	Perceived usefulness has a positive effect on people's intention to participate; perceived ease of use is not significantly related to the intention to participate.
Groening et al., 2019	Online learning	3 experiments to determine the changes in motivation and performance based on achievement	Task performance	Task performance is influenced by achievement partially but increase overtime; motivation is more influenced by its introduction but does not increase overtime.
Hamari, Koivisto, 2015	Health	Testing of TAM model as a framework for gamification. Field experiment.	Continued use	There are 3 groups of values influencing continued use of gamified apps: hedonic, utilitarian and social. The same groups of values are influencing attitude towards the app.
Hamari, 2017	Engagement in online discussion	Testing effect of badges as social confirmation tool. Field experiment	Engagement in platform usage	Posting, sharing behavior and overall engagement was higher after implementation of badges as gamification mechanic.

It can be expected that gameful experiences can change perceived gamification, as actual game engagement can evoke memories of previous interaction with the same or similar game mechanic from either game- or non-game contexts. For example, the description of a gamified loyalty program of a grocery store offering awards for stickers collection, which are handed to the user upon each purchase, by itself may be perceived as potentially entertaining or enjoyable, and lead to a better perception of the store. Furthermore, the actual process of collecting, pee-ing of the promotional stickers and attaching them to a promotional brochure has the potential to bring even more value to the consumer and increase the store image further. However, if the stickers are hard to peel off, or, for example, there are no brochures left in the store at the moment of purchase, this gamified system will likely to be less effective by evoking fewer positive associations with the store and less purchase intention. To be able to comprehensively understand the success and failure factures of gamification, it is therefore important to distinguish the perception of a gamified system design from the results of experiencing the game mechanics embedded in the system.

3. Covert nature of gamification and persuasion knowledge model

It has been noted recently that the use of gamification in marketing has certain ethical limitations [Thorpe, Roper, 2019]. Firstly, gamification, like any tool aimed at changing behavior, implies a certain level of manipulation, which is the basis of design. In a situation with gamification, such manipulation becomes especially important for control, since the mechanism itself involves an inconspicuous, smooth consumer involvement through experience management [Huotari, Hamari, 2017]. It is worth noting that one of the first theories of the gamification mechanism was the theory of the "state of the flow" [Hamari, Koivisto, 2014], in which the consumer becomes involved in the interaction and ceases to notice external stimuli [Csikszentmihalyi et al., 1990]. Secondly, gamification, as a popular way to create innovative, involving promos, has been repeatedly considered as covert marketing [Wojdynski, Evans, 2019; Thorpe, Roper, 2019]. Among the gaps in theoretical conceptualization of gamification is an uncertainty about the concept boundaries. Attempts to distinguish gamification from other game-related activities were made at the very beginning of research area development [Deterding et al., 2011]. However, in marketing context it is not always transparent both for promotion designers and for consumers where to draw the line between gamification and advergames [Terlutter, Capella, 2013]. Some research showed that if consumers recognize advertising or another marketing tool as a covert marketing they tend to form

negative attitude towards the company or advertising platform in context of sponsored posts, social media and advergames [Wojdynski, Evans, 2019].

A person's ability to recognize the persuasive nature of a marketing tool and develop coping mechanism can be referred as persuasion knowledge activation [Friestad, Wright 1994; Friestad, Wright 1999]. According to the persuasion knowledge model (further – PKM) consumers possess some common beliefs about how "agents" (brands, advertisers, salespeople) act in order to persuade them to buy, participate or advocate for the brand and they activate that knowledge and coping mechanism in situations when they feel this persuasion attempt. In that sense, gamification is an almost perfect tool to reduce persuasion knowledge, because it is not supposed to be noted. However, if consumers recognize gamification in promotion and attribute it to an attempt of persuasion - it might change the outcome. Recent studies showed that the moment when consumers both recognize persuasion attempt and consider it manipulation then an effect on outcomes would be negative [Evans et al., 2018]. However, considering an engaging nature of gamification and its ability to manage intrinsic motivation the effect might not be in place.

Gamification regardless the approach to definition is created to change behavior. Any experience that is created to change attitudes, behaviors, or both is persuasive experience [Fogg, 2008]. Gamification is doing it "by focusing on the entirety of the users' experience to find the relevant spots where it can blend in the experience and do its magic" [smashmagazine. com]. Also, gamification by enhancing motivation can influence subconscious decisions and, by its automated structure, quickly become the part of our irrational behavioral pattern. That is why it's crucially important to understand how the fact that consumer recognize some type of promotion as gamification would influence attitude, behavioral intentions towards brand, product or loyalty program.

Gamification represents a valuable "trigger" in its own. A game already elicits an impact irrespective whether the game is played and experienced. In other words, offering a game or inviting people to play a game is like a signal or cue for consumers which directly leads to favorable purchase reactions. Therefore, the relationship between gamification-intrinsic motivation which are positioned as direct ones in a number of researches does evoke doubts whether it's the only or the most correct way to understand gamification influence.

Using a measure of perceived gamification in a complementary way with gameful experience estimation and manipulation recognition should allow to distinguish the range of positive and negative effects, which occur from actually engaging with the system from those who

recognizes the promotional stimuli, hearing the description of the system, reading the rules concerning the game mechanics, or watching a video depicting gamified system usage.

4. *Theoretical model and method*

To establish a view of gamification from the consumer perspective, it was suggested to view it as an example of manifestation of consumer persuasion knowledge – consumer awareness of the fact that gamification is used in the promotion and corresponding assumptions as to the aim of this tactic. In order to empirically test the place of gamification perception in the model of consumer response to gamification, it is first necessary to reveal the impact of perceived gamification on behavioral outcomes, such as willingness to participate in the gamified promotion and recommend it to other.

This impact must be distinguished from the impact of other factors within the persuasion knowledge model – topic knowledge and agent knowledge, which also determine the way consumers will cope with a recognized persuasion attempt [Friestad and Wright,1994]. Agent knowledge consists of beliefs about the traits, competencies, and goals of the persuasion agent, and therefore can be operationalized as attitudes towards the company brand. Topic knowledge consists of beliefs about the topic of the message; i.e. the context of the promotion. The topic being a gamified promotion, which the company invites the consumers to play along with, the construct can be operationalized as attitude towards games: the extent to which they think high about playing games in general.
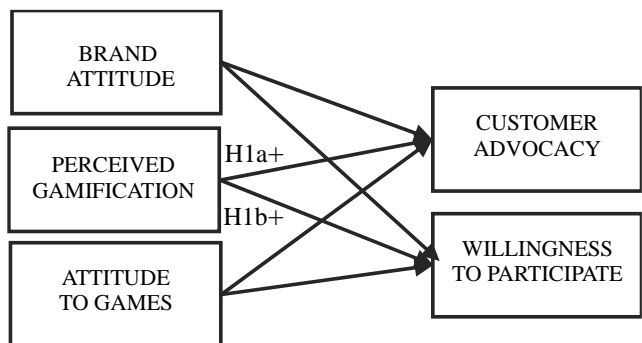

Figure 1. Model for Study 1

H1: The extent to which consumers perceive the promotion as gamified has a significant impact on their willingness to participate in the promotion and recommend it to others.

Further, the mechanism by which perceived gamification impacts consumer behavioral outcomes related to the promotion must be explicated. It has been established by existing research that gamification boosts the intrinsic motivation of consumers, which then stimulates the behavior desired by the product producer. In order to contribute to a thorough distinguishing of the effects of gamification implementation and those of gamification perception is important to find out, whether perceived gamification has the same impact.

Previously, we have assumed that the recognition of a game in the promotion might evoke emotions that could make the promotion look more fun or playful. While playfulness is a characteristic of system, and intrinsic motivation is the result of consumer-system interaction, it is possible to a assume that there is an order as to what is being evoked by the perception of gamification: in response to recognizing the usage of gamification, the consumer may consider the promotion as more playful, which then would boost the intrinsic motivation necessary to drive behavioral outcomes.

H2. The more the consumers perceived a promotion as gamified, the more playfulness they attribute to it, which then increases intrinsic motivation.

To further explicate the nature of perceived gamification as a manifestation of persuasion knowledge, it is necessary to establish its relationship with inferences of manipulative attempts. There is evidence to suggest that if the perceived gamification applied by the producer is recognized by the consumer as a persuasion attempt aimed at manipulation, its impact on behavioral outcomes would be negative [Evans et al., 2018]. Previously, it has been assumed, that considering the engaging nature of gamification and its ability to manage intrinsic motivation the effect might not be in place.

H3. If perceived gamification is accompanied by inferences of manipulative intent, the positive impact of perceived gamification on behavioral outcomes will diminish.
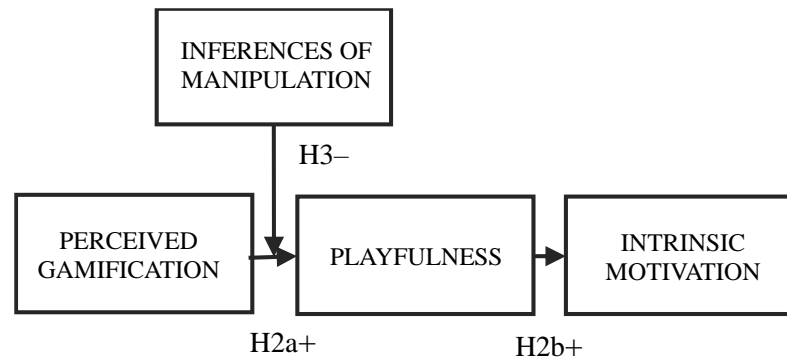
Figure 2. Model for Study 2

5. Study 1 – MacDonald's Macfest promotion

5.1 Research design

To test the hypotheses, it was decided to conduct a survey among random but homogeneous respondents, who would indicate their behavioral intentions with regard to a gamified promotion, while evaluating the degree to which they see this promotion as game-like, their attitude towards games, and general brand attitude.

Brand choice. Consequently, an analysis was conducted for well-known consumer brands of Russian market leaders, which are known to occasionally introduce gamified promotions, resulting in the following choice of brands: MacDonald's, KFC, Pizza Hut, Teremok – from the fast-food restaurant industry; Delivery Club and Yandex Food – from the food delivery services industry; Uber and Yandex Taxi – from the taxi app services industry. On the second stage of analysis, an overview of gamified promotions was conducted for the above-mentioned brands. Those brands which did not have a gamified promotion in the last 6 months were eliminated from the list as respondents should be able to recall their previous experience in participating in similar promotions, when exposed to the stimuli. This resulted in the choice of MacDonald's for the gamifier-brand, and "MacFest" and "Macdonald Monopoly" gamified promotions as possible stimuli. The two promotions share similar game mechanics: bonuses for a fixed monitory amount purchase, sticker collection, lottery and Grandpre. They also both are recurring promotions, which were repeated at least once during the previous year and a half before the survey has been conducted. For the first study MacDonald's MacFest promotion has been chosen randomly among the two.

Survey structure and measures. The survey included the a set of consecutive structural elements: filtering questions, stimuli exposure, dependent variables evaluation, independent and control variables evaluation, questions on prior experience with the brand and similar promotions, and demographical questions. The stimulus contained a promotional message depicting a mock reintroduction of the MacFest promotion. The stimulus included both text descriptions and visuals pretraining to the original promotions (see Appendix A).

Scales from the previous research were used to measure most of the constructs within the conceptual model (see Table 2). Perceived gamification and attitude towards games were measured using original scales. The measure for perceived gamification was developed based on the previously explored conceptualization of what perceived gamification is and how it is different from related concepts related to gameful experiences. It included five questions, measuring whether the consumer recognizes any game elements in the promotion, whether the promotion as a whole reminds them of a game or aims at entertaining them, and whether they feel that the promotion is aimed at people who are curious or who like to play games in general. The scale was tested in a previous study according to the recommendations of [Hinkin, 1995; Boateng et al., 2018].

The control variables included: previous participation in similar programs, the result of previous participation in similar programs, having children, marriage status, income, sex, education and age and education. Before the data collection process, a back-translation and pre-test for the scales were conducted on a small sample (n=32) of respondents similar in characteristics to the sample in the main study.

Sample description. The sample for the first study amounted to 209 subjects (see Appendix B), who were registered in the same online panel and shared sufficient similarities in terms of income (have enough money for food and clothes), geographical residence (Moscow and Saint-Petersburg), and purchasing behavior with regard to MacDonald's (had to have visited a MacDonald's restaurant). They were asked to undergo the survey on a computer in an online format. The survey took about 15-20 minutes, and the questionnaire averaged 54 questions. The participants were asked to evaluate their willingness to participate in the promotion, to recommend the promotion to others as well as other related indicators.

5.2 Analysis

Reliability and validity tests

The construct validity was checked by performing confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and the initial measurement scales were refined based on suggestions from Gerbing and Anderson [1988]. As a result, one item comprising customer advocacy and one item from brand attitude were deleted for exhibiting low factor loadings. Convergent validity was ensured by using the following criteria: average variance extracted (AVE) >0.5, scale composite reliability (CR) >0.7, and the item factor loadings >0.5 [Bagozzi & Yi, 2012]. Overall, the CFA resulted in the following model fit: CMIN/df = 1.56 (p = 0.00), CFI = 0.967, RMSEA = 0.061 (pclose = 0.63), SRMR = 0.083. The results of the CFA, validity and reliability tests are presented in Table 10.

Table 2. Measurement items overview, standardized factor loadings, reliability and validity measures

Construct/ items	St. factor loading	Cronbach 's Alpha	KMO	CR	AVE
Perceived gamification					
There are game elements in this promotion	0.82				
This promotion tries to entertain me	0.75				
This promotion looks like a game	0.9	0.9	0.85	0.9	0.64
This promotion is for those who are curious	0.73				
This promotion is for those who like to play	0.77				
Customer advocacy [Bridson et. Al, 2008]					
I would try to convince my friends, colleagues, to participate in this promotion	0.88				
I am ready to share my positive opinion about this promotion with other people	0.93				
I would recommend this promotion to anyone who asks me for advice	0.92	0.94	0.76	.94	.83
I believe that other people should participate in this promotion	*				
Willingness to participate [Petrevu & Lord, 1994]					
Participating in this promotion is a good choice	0.82	0.86	0.5	0.8	0.67
I would participate in this promotion	0.82				
Game attitude					
I like to play games (e.g., boardgames, sports games, computer games, intellectual games)	0.76				
I like to watch as others play games	0.77				
I often act as a cheering fan (e.g., in sports games, in "let's play" video translations)	0.71	0.86	0.82	0.87	0.57
I would like to encounter more games in my daily life	0.75				
I think that games is a useful activity for adults	0.75				
Brand attitude [MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989]					
Bad – Good	0.94				
Unfavorable – Favorable	*	.96	0.86	.97	.89
Unpleasant – Pleasant	0.97				

Negative – Positive		0.95	
Low quality – High quality		0.89	

Notes: * = items were deleted during the CFA stage.

The significant control variables included results of previous participation in similar promotions and age. The other control variables, which according to the CFA did not have any significant effect on mediating or outcome variables were dropped from the model to ensure better fit (i.e., having children, marriage status, income, sex, and education). For hypotheses testing procedures the remaining control variables were transformed into item parcels based on the previous results of the unidimensionality tests [Bandalos & Finney, 2001].

For most of the constructs the Fornell-Larcker [Fornell & Larcker, 1981] criterion has been met, ensuring that measures of constructs that theoretically should not be highly related to each other are, in fact, are not found to be highly correlated to each other. The discriminant validity coefficients for the dependent variables of the study – customer advocacy and willingness to participate – were not smaller in magnitude than the convergent validity coefficient. The high correlation between the constructs (0.849) can be explained by their theoretically established interconnectedness – both being the primary indicators of consumer behavioral intentions, they can be predicted by a number of common variables. Therefore, we estimate the discriminant validity between the constructs of the conceptual model as overall acceptable at the condition that the abovementioned high correlation will be taken into account during the path analysis and model estimation. The correlations between the constructs of the study and results of discriminant validity test are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. AVE and squared correlation coefficients

		1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1.	ADVO	**0.83**	0.72	0.32	0.2	0.444
2.	WILL	0.849	**0.67**	0.341	0.197	0.438
3.	PERGAM	0.566	0.584	**0.64**	0.165	0.266
4.	GAMAT	0.458	0.444	0.407	**0.57**	0.227
5.	BRAT	0.667	0.662	0.516	0.477	**0.89**

ADVO – customer advocacy, WILL – willingness to participate, PERGAM – perceived gamification, GAMAT – attitude towards games, BRAT – attitude towards MacDonald's.

Preliminary analysis

In order to test the hypothesis that high perceived gamification has an impact on the effectiveness of the promotion, a series of between-groups variation tests was performed. The sample was

divided based on the mean value of perceived gamification (M=3.835) to two groups: high perceived gamification (n=116, M=4.4, SD=0.366) and low perceived gamification (n=93, M=3.11, SD=0.701). Prior to conducting the tests, the assumption of normality was evaluated and determined to be unsatisfactory [Schumider et al., 2010] as the distributions for customer advocacy and willingness to participate in the high perceived gamification group were associated with significant skewness (skewness coefficient = -1.15; -1.23). Furthermore, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and accepted based on Levene's F test (F (1, 207) = 0.68, p=0.41; F (1, 207) = 1.07, p=.301). To account for the skewness, the Kruskal-Wallis equality-of-populations rank test was used to determine if there is significant variance in willingness to participate and customer advocacy between the two groups.

The descriptive statistics across the two groups are reported in Table 4. It can be seen that the subsample of respondents, who evaluated perceived gamification higher was associated with the numerically highest mean level of customer advocacy (M=3.88 versus M=2.86) and willingness to participate in the promotion (M=4.1 versus M=3.29). The results of the Kruskal-Wallis equality-of-populations rank test revealed significant differences in both customer advocacy (chi-squared = 413.57, p = 0.005) and willingness to participate (chi-squared = 35.68, p = 0.002). To evaluate the nature of the differences between the means further, Dunn's post-hoc test was conducted, which revealed that the differences are in fact statistically significant (p = .000). The effect size associated with the discussed effect was 0.94 – for customer advocacy, and 0.84 – for willingness to participate, which is considered "large" based on Cohen's [1991] guidelines.

Table 4. Descriptive results for subsamples and Kruskal-Wallis test

Constructs	Group "high PG 116"		Group "low PG 93"		Chi-squared	Dunn's Pairwise Comparison
	M	SD	M	SD		
1. ADVO	3.88	1.04	2.86	1.15	413.57**	0.000
2. WILL	4.1	0.86	3.29	1.06	35.68**	0.000

Note: *p-values: *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001.*
ADVO – customer advocacy, WILL – willingness to participate, GAMAT – intrinsic motivation, GAMAT – attitude towards games, BRAT – attitude towards MacDonald's.

This suggests that the fact that the respondents recognized a game in the promotion does have an effect on consumer motivation to participate and advocate for the promotion. The results are

consistent with H1 as they highlight preliminary confirmation on the positive impact of perceived gamification on consumer behavioral outcomes.

Main analysis

The results of testing the main effects for the model (see Table 5) using structural equation modeling confirm the significant positive impact of perceived gamification on both customer advocacy (0.425***) and willingness to participate in the promotion (0.366***). As expected, brand attitude is the main contributing factor in the model, which positively impacts customer advocacy (0.57***) and willingness to participate in the promotion (0.456***), while game attitude shows significant effect only on customer advocacy (0.165*). Age has no effect In the model, while result of previous experience of participation in similar promotions only has a small effect on customer advocacy (0.032*).

Table 5. Results of model testing

Variable / path coefficients	**Effect on Customer advocacy**	**Effect on Willingness to participate**
Perceived gamification	**0.425*****	**0.366*****
Game attitude	**0.165***	0.128
Brand attitude	**0.57*****	**0.456*****
Result of experience	**0.032***	0.006
Age	0.148	0.004
R-squared	57%	61%

Notes:

a) p-values: $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$.
b) ADVO – customer advocacy, WILL – willingness to participate, INTR – intrinsic motivation, PLAY – playfulness, PERGAM – perceived gamification, GAMAT – attitude towards games, REWA – reward responsiveness, ATTI – attitude towards MacDonald's, party – prior participation in a similar promotion.
c) Goodness of fit for the model: X2 (259)/df (154) = 1.68 (0.000), CFI = 0.971, SRMR=0.056, RMSEA = 0.057 (pclose = 0.16)

5.3 Results

The empirical analysis has confirmed hypotheses H1, revealing that the degree to which consumers recognize the gamification embedded in a brand's promotion has a strong and positive impact on the formation of intentions for behavioral outcomes, such as promotion participation and customer advocacy. The results suggest that this impact is strong and is even comparable with that of brand attitude, which is traditionally considered as one of the strongest predictors of promotion evaluation.

Despite the rationale behind hypotheses H1, the general attitude of the respondents towards games has little to no significant effect in the model. That might serve as an indication that perception of gamification is a more complex phenomenon, which is not necessarily determined by previous experiences of playing games, and the general appreciation for playing and watching games. Additionally, there is evidence to that even prior participation in the gamified MacFest promotion also does play a small role in promotion evaluation: the effect was only present on the formation of customer advocacy desire.

6. Study 2: "MacDonald's Monopoly promotion"

6.1 Research design

To test the hypotheses 3-4, it was decided to conduct a survey among random homogeneous respondents, who would indicate their intrinsic motivation and associated playfulness with regard to a gamified promotion, while evaluating the degree to which they see this promotion as game-like. The brand choice for Study 2 followed the same logic as Study 1 as "MacDonald's Monopoly" gamified promotion has been chosen as stimulus. The promotion shares similar game mechanics with MacDonald's MacFest: bonuses for a fixed monitory amount purchase, sticker collection, lottery and Grandpre. They also both are recurring promotions, which were repeated at least once during the previous year and a half before the survey has been conducted. As the fixed purchase amount required to participate is the same in both promotions as well as the range of products involved in the promotion, it is possible to conclude that the target audience for the two promotions is similar. Therefore the sample has been drown from the same population among respondents, who have not participated in Study 1. The sample for the second study amounted to 212 subjects (see Appendix B)

Survey structure and measures. The survey included a set of consecutive structural elements: filtering questions, stimuli exposure, dependent variables evaluation, independent and control variables evaluation, questions on prior experience with the brand and similar promotions, and demographical questions. The stimuli contained a promotional message depicting a mock reintroduction of the MacDonald's Monopoly promotion. The stimuli included both text descriptions and visuals pretraining to the original promotions (see Appendix A).

Scales from the previous research were used to measure most of the constructs within the conceptual model (see Table 6). Perceived gamification and attitude towards games were measured using original scales. The control variables included: attitude towards MacDonald's, previous participation in similar programs, results of previous participation in similar programs, having children, marriage status, income and education, and attitude to the boardgame Monopoly. Before the data collection process, a back-translation and pre-test for the scales were conducted on a small sample (n=32) of respondents similar in characteristics to the samples in the main studies.

6.2 Analysis

The analysis was conducted in a similar fashion to that done for Study 1 as first reliability and validity tests were conducted based on the factorial design from the previous analysis. Between-group variation tests are then conducted to receive preliminary results on the impact of inferences of manipulation intent on outcome variables. Structural equation modeling is applied to confirm the nature of relationships between the constructs.

Reliability and validity tests

The construct validity was checked by performing confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Convergent validity and scale composite reliability were ensured using the criteria previously mentioned. Overall, the CFA resulted in the following model fit: CMIN/df = 1.75 (0.000), CFI = 0.956, SRMR=0.039, RMSEA = 0.06 (pclose = 0.095). The results of the CFA, validity and reliability tests are presented in Table 6.

Table 6**.** Measurement items overview, standardized factor loadings, reliability and validity measures

Construct/ items	St. factor loading	Cronbach 's Alpha	KMO	CR	AVE
Perceived gamification (original)					
There are game elements in this promotion	0.82				
This promotion tries to entertain me	0.79				
This promotion looks like a game	0.82	0.88	0.84	0.89	0.61
This promotion is for those who are curious	0.69				
This promotion is for those who like to play	0.75				
Playfulness [Hwang & Choi, 2019]					
This promotion seems to me as playful	0.82				
This promotion seems to me as creative	0.89	0.9	0.81	0.9	0.69
This promotion seems to me as inventive	0.89				
This promotion seems to me as experimenting	0.7				
Intrinsic motivation [Deci et al, 1994]					
I would love to participate in this promotion	0.84				
I think participating in this promotion is fun	0.88				
I would describe this promotion as very interesting	0.89				
The terms of this promotion could not hold my attention	*				
It would be important for me to win in this promotion	*	0.88	0.82	0.9	0.64
I believe that the action gives freedom of choice with the participation of	0.65				
I think participation in this action would be useful for me	*				
I think participation in this action would have a certain value for me	0.67				
Game attitude					

I like to play games (e.g., boardgames, sports games, computer games, intellectual games)	0.69				
I like to watch as others play games	0.66				
I often act as a cheering fan (e.g., in sports games, in "let's play" video translations)	0.83	0.83	0.78	0.84	0.56
I would like to encounter more games in my daily life	0.79				
I think that games is a useful activity for adults					
Bad – Good	0.94				
Unfavorable – Favorable	0.9				
Unpleasant – Pleasant	0.93	0.94	0.89	0.95	0.8
Negative – Positive	0.88				
Low quality – High quality	0.8				
Manipulation [Campbell, 1995]					
The advertiser tried to manipulate the audience in ways that I don't like.	0.78				
I was annoyed by this ad because the advertiser seemed to be trying to inappropriately manage or control the consumer audience.	0.78	0.83	0.5	0.76	0.61

*Notes: * = items were deleted during the CFA stage.*

The significant control variables included results of previous participation in similar programs, age and attitude towards monopoly. The other control variables, which according to the CFA did not have any significant effect on mediating or outcome variables were dropped from the model to ensure better fit (i.e., having children, marriage status, sex, income and education). For hypotheses testing procedures the remaining control variables were transformed into item parcels based on the previous results of the unidimensionality tests [Bandalos & Finney, 2001]. For all of the constructs the Fornell-Larcker [Fornell & Larcker, 1981] criterion has been met, ensuring discriminant validity. The correlations between the constructs of the study and results of discriminant validity test are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. AVE and squared correlation coefficients

		1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
1.	INMOT	**0.64**	0.6	0.32	0.05	0.06	0.39
2.	PLAY	0.778	**0.69**	0.429	0.06	0.08	0.29
3.	PERGAM	0.574	0.655	**0.61**	0.07	0.00	0.26
4.	MANI	-0.236	-0.251	-0.274	**0.61**	0.00	0.07
5.	GAMAT	0.261	0.283	0.094	-0.05	**0.56**	0.03
6.	BRAT	0.625	0.541	0.519	-0.269	0.197	**0.8**

ADVO – customer advocacy, WILL – willingness to participate, INMOT – intrinsic motivation, PLAY – playfulness, PERGAM – perceived gamification, GAMAT – attitude towards games, BRAT– attitude towards MacDonald's.

Testing mediation effects

The results of testing the main effects for the model (see Table 8) using structural equation modeling confirm the significant positive impact of perceived gamification on both playfulness (0.497***) and intrinsic motivation (0.636***). The path analysis confirms that the impact of perceived gamification on the intrinsic motivation is indirect. Subsequent comparison of direct and indirect effects demonstrates that playfulness mediates the effect of the perceived gamification on intrinsic motivation.

Table 7. Model

Variable / path coefficients	**Direct effects**	**Indirect effects**	**Total effects**
On INMOT, 82%			
PLAY	**0.745***	–	**0.745***
PERGAM	0.023	**0.474***	**0.497***
GAMAT	0.002	**0.116***	**0.119***
BRAT	**0.274***	**0.378***	**0.653***
Result	0.033	-0.012	0.021
Monopoly	0.014	-.009	0.023
Age	0.003	-0.001	0.001
On PLAY, 60%			
PERGAM	**0.636***	-	**0.636***
GAMAT	**0.151***	**0.004**	**0.155***
BRAT	**0.16***	**0.33***	**0.491***
Result	0.034	-0.048	-0.014
Monopoly	0.004	0.008	0.011
Age	-0.004	0.002	-0.002

Notes:

a) *p-values: ∗p < 0.05, ∗∗p < 0.01, ∗∗∗p < 0.001.*
b) *INMOT – intrinsic motivation, PLAY – playfulness, PERGAM – perceived gamification, GAMAT – attitude towards games, BRAT – attitude towards MacDonald's, Result – prior participation in a similar promotion.*
c) *Goodness of fit for the models:* X2 (235)/df (129) = 1.82 (0.000), CFI = 0.956, SRMR=0.039, RMSEA = 0.062 (pclose = 0.054)

Game attitude had a significant direct effect on playfulness, and only in indirect impact on intrinsic motivation. Previous participation in similar promotions consistently showcased an insignificant impact within the model. Attitude towards MacDonald's had a positive but indirect effect.

Testing moderator effect

The sample was divided based on the mean value of inferences of manipulative intent (M= 2.464) to two groups: high manipulation (n=108, M=3.41, SD=0.849) and low manipulation (n=104, M=1.4755, SD=0.442). The assumption of normality was evaluated and determined to be unsatisfactory (Schumider et al., 2010) as the distributions for outcome variables were associated with significant skewness. Furthermore, the assumption of homogeneity of variances for intrinsic motivation, playfulness and perceived gamification was tested and not accepted based on Levene's F test. Consequently, the Kruskal-Wallis equality-of-populations rank test was applied. The subsample of respondents, who experiences less inferences of manipulative intent evaluated playfulness of the promotion as higher and expressed higher intrinsic. Dunn's post-hoc indicated that these differences are in fact statistically significant (p = 0.000). The effect size associated with the discussed effect was 0.52 – for playfulness, and 0.54 – for willingness to participate, which is considered "medium" based on Cohen's [1991] guidelines.

Table 8. Descriptive results for subsamples and Kruskal-Wallis test

Constructs	Group "high manipulation 108"		Group "low manipulation 104"		Chi-squared	Dunn's Pairwise Comparison
	M	SD	M	SD		
1. INMOT	3.54	0.94	4.01	0.75	13.25***	0.000
2. PLAY	3.67	0.94	4.11	0.72	12.13***	0.000
3. PERGAM	3.99	0.8	4.4	0.6	14.15***	0.000
4. GAMAT	3.38	0.89	3.57	0.89	1.44	0.1147
5. BRAT	4.01	0.85	4.48	0.75	20.89***	0.0000

Note:

a) p-values: *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001.
b) INMOT – intrinsic motivation, PLAY – playfulness, PERGAM – perceived gamification, GAMAT – attitude towards games, BRAT – attitude towards MacDonald's.

Results

The results of the analysis contribute to explicating the mechanism behind the impact of perceived gamification on consumer behavioral outcomes. In particular, the indirect impact on intrinsic motivation arousal is exposed, which brings evidence towards the fact that as the consumers perceives the gamification embedded in the promotion, they find the promotion in general more

playful, which then translates into higher intrinsic motivation. Moreover, we bring up evidence to that this positive direct impact of perceived gamification on playfulness is moderated by inferences of manipulative intent, which mitigates this effect if activated.

Conclusion

This study develops the view of gamification as a persuasive tool by applying to persuasion knowledge theory. It showcases that gamification can be viewed by consumer as a tool designed to convince them to perform an action or form an attitude. Due to the engaging nature of gamification the recognition of game elements in the promotion does not take away from the effectiveness of the promotion, but on the opposite – significantly contributes to its success.

The results of Study 1 suggests that the fact that the promotion is viewed as gamified increases both customer advocacy and willingness to participate in the promotion. In comparison with other components of the persuasion knowledge model, perceived gamification has almost as strong of an effect as brand attitude representing for "agent knowledge", and a much more prominent effect than "topic knowledge" operationalized as game attitudes. This implies that perceived gamification is both absolutely and comparatively is an important factor to consider when designing a gamified promotion and analyzing its effectiveness.

Study 2 explicates that the effect of gamification on intrinsic motivation as described by previous research may be more complex, as perceived gamification has not a direct, but indirect impact in the arousal of intrinsic motivation through playfulness. The study also brings evidence towards the peculiarity of perceived gamification as a persuasion knowledge manifestation – its effect is inherently positive, unlike inferences of manipulative intent. However, in perceived gamification is followed by inferences of manipulative intentions, this significantly diminishes the positive impact on playfulness, and by extension – on intrinsic motivation.

Theoretical implication of this study helps to narrow the gap existing in current literature dedicated to gamification in marketing where research designs are often suitable for one perceptive – the system designers. The research also helps to widen the understanding of relationship between gamification and intrinsic motivation. Practitioners can use the developed concept of perceived gamification in order to investigate their current or planned gamification introduction into market and predict potential behavioral outcomes which will, as research revealed, differ as perception changes.

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Appendix A. Stimuli

Stimuli 1. MacFest

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МАКФЕСТ

26 ноября – 31 декабря

22 000 000 ПРИЗОВ
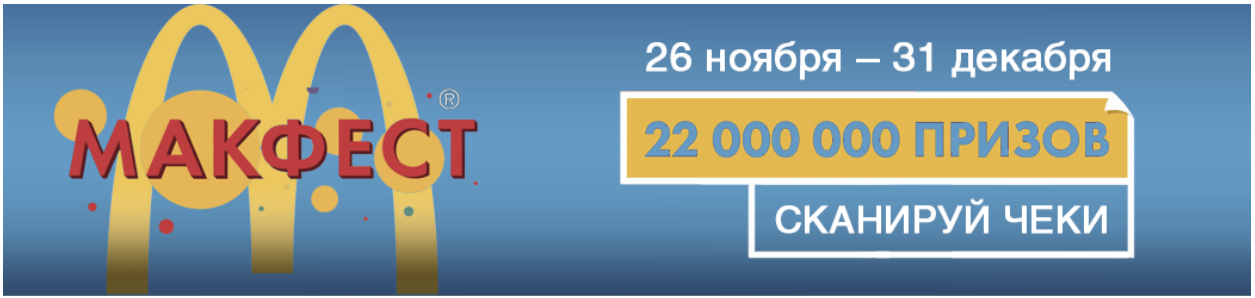
СКАНИРУЙ ЧЕКИ

Сканируй чеки и выигрывай призы

Покупай продукты, участвующие в Макфест*.

Сканируй 3 чека от 200 руб. в приложении Макдональдс в течение 2 дней после покупки.

Получи один из гарантированных призов.

Гарантированные призы

- Вишневый пирожок;
- Стандартная порция картофеля фри;
- Стандартный стакан холодного напитка ;
- Рожок с мороженым;
- Чизбургер;
- Стакан капучино.

- Промокод на 1 000 руб.на сайте OZON.ru
- Промокод на 500 руб. на сайте ozon.travel;
- Промокод на 500 бонусов на сайте Юла;
- Промокод на 1 книгу на сайте litres.ru;

*Биг Мак, Биг Тейсти, Филе-О-Фиш, Двойной Филе-О-Фиш, Чизбургер Де Люкс, Двойной Чизбургер Де Люкс, Гранд Чизбургер, Двойной Гранд Чизбургер,Чикен Макнаггетс, Вестерн Гурмэ, Гриль Гурмэ, Чикен Гурмэ Экзотик, большая порция картофеля фри, холодный напиток 0,5 л или горячий напиток.

Stimuli 2. MacDonald's Monopoly

Appendix B. Sample description

Socio-demographic characteristics		Study 1 n=212	Study 2 n=209
		Share %	Share %
Gender	Male	49.5%	50.7%
	Female	50.4%	49.2%
Age	18-27	20.3%	18.1%
	28-36	33.0%	32.5%
	37-45	24.5%	26.3%
	46-55	22.1%	22.9%
Income level	We have enough money for food and clothes, but it will be difficult for us to buy a TV, a refrigerator, or a washing machine	20.75%	26.7%
	We can buy basic household appliances, but cannot afford to buy a car	46.2%	42.5%
	We have enough money for everything, except for such expensive acquisitions as an apartment or a country house	28.3%	22.0%
	We have no financial difficulties. If necessary, we can buy an apartment or a house	4.7%	8.6%
Education	Incomplete high school	1.0%	1.9%

	High school	20.7%	29.6%
	Incomplete college/university	11.7%	7.6%
	College/University	66.5%	60.7%
Previous participation in promotion	Have participated in the promotion before	36%	63%
	Have participated in the promotion before	63%	36%

Conclusion and discussion

Gamification remains a hot topic among both researchers and practitioners and will stay that way for a quite some time. The main reason for that is its interactive and engaging nature which promises companies an ability to shorten consumer decision journey and transform it into a loyalty loop by making an experience engaging.

The approaches to the study of gamification are determined by its interactive nature, as well as the continuing trend of digitalization and the development of virtual and augmented reality services, originating in computer games [Zaidi et al., 2018].

An applied focus in the research of gamification is related to empirical verification of its effectiveness in various contexts [Rebrov, Cherkasov, 2017; Koivisto, Hamari, 2019], while conceptual articles that establish the boundaries of the phenomenon and determine its basic features do not allow a complete picture of the phenomenon due to its fragmentation. Further development of the theory, which allows conceptualizing gamification more accurately, makes it possible not only to expand the understanding of the mechanisms and place of gamification in management theory, but also to separate it from other interactive methods.

The movable boundaries of the definition of gamification have their advantages. The convergence of gamification with other interactive technologies makes it possible to enrich the consumer experience and opens up opportunities for the company to experiment with the innovative component of the business and gain additional competitive advantages. Nevertheless, the lack of operationalization of the concept due to such mobility affects both the quality of scientific work in the field of gamification and the prospect of using it in business practice. The

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establishment of boundaries will open up possibilities for measuring such parameters as the degree of gamification, the perception of gamification, and hence its effect on effectiveness. Currently, using the proposed scales, either individual characteristics of gamified systems are measured [Eppman et al., 2018], or personal characteristics of users [Tondello et al., 2019]. In both cases, the question arises about the validity of the proposed scales at a conceptual level: does gamification really have a key impact on the effectiveness of the systems under study and changes in user behavior.

One of the important problems remains the adaptation of gamification outside of information systems to create the most comfortable consumer experience. For example, the gamification of loyalty programs was studied only in the context of the Starbucks mobile application [Kim, Ahn, 2017] or the online digital library communities [Hsu, Chen, 2018], while the popular promotions of food retailers, which are a form of gamification of consumer relations, were not analyzed . As one of the areas for the further development of research, both for the academic and for the business environment, it will be useful to study the effect of gamification on the features of consumer behavior in an offline environment or on multi-channel platforms.

Currently, approaches to the study of gamification, both empirical and those in which attempts are made to conceptualize the phenomenon, are focused on the analysis of the design of gamified systems. The psychological mechanisms of gamification explain how a particular design or set of elements will work in different groups of consumers and employees of companies [Mitchell, Schuster, Jin, 2020; Sailer et al., 2017], how the attitude to the system will change after its gamification, and the change in motivation is considered as the reason and result of the success of gamified systems [Rapp et al., 2018].

The choice of approach to determination is reflected not only in the terminological preferences of a particular field of knowledge, but also in the formation of approaches to the research design, subject and positioning of results. The current situation in the field of gamification research leads to the lack of a clear principle for the operationalization of the concept and the erosion of the initially established boundaries between gamification and a full-fledged game in a non-game context. The danger of such erosion, as well as the lack of differentiation between gamification and other interactive technologies, is that the complexity of measuring the effectiveness of gamification will increase. In turn, this can lead to an increase in data manipulation in scientific papers and a decrease in the speed of adaptation of systems to changing user experience.

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So, answering the first research question it is safe to say that the definition of the boundaries for gamification in marketing should be based on following principles:

-   The choice of a perspective: for the gamification designer and for consumers boundaries can differ and the main responsibility for marketers is to educate consumers about those.
-   The choice of underlining mechanism: if the aim is to engage consumer fully to help them to test new car or experience, to make the gamification as a simulation, then it is better to use "flow theory" rather than any other. But if the aim is different the use of the same design might lead to rapid increase in suspicion and hurt both consumer and company

Continuing the discussion of a manipulation and suspicion we can answer two other questions.

The results of Study 1 suggest that the fact that the promotion is viewed as gamified increases both customer advocacy and willingness to participate in the promotion. In comparison with other components of the persuasion knowledge model, perceived gamification has almost as strong of an effect as brand attitude representing for "agent knowledge", and a much more prominent effect than "topic knowledge" operationalized as game attitudes. This implies that perceived gamification is both absolutely and comparatively is an important factor to consider when designing a gamified promotion and analyzing its effectiveness.

The results explain the process which is behind the mechanism of gamification recognition by consumer and that mechanism both a) closely related with persuasion knowledge theory and b) allows to conclude that persuasive nature of gamification doesn't harm the outcome.

Study 2 explicates that the effect of gamification on intrinsic motivation as described by previous research may be more complex, as perceived gamification has not a direct, but indirect impact in the arousal of intrinsic motivation through playfulness. The study also brings evidence towards the peculiarity of perceived gamification as a persuasion knowledge manifestation – its effect is inherently positive, unlike inferences of manipulative intent. However, in perceived gamification is followed by inferences of manipulative intentions, this significantly diminishes the positive impact on playfulness, and by extension – on intrinsic motivation.

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