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Cross-National Investigation of Psychological
Distance in Cause-Related Product Buying Decisions*

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BEYOND HELPING:

A Cross-National Investigation of Psychological Distance in Cause-Related Product Buying Decisions

TAO XUE

Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Durham University Business School

Durham University

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ABSTRACT

Cause-related marketing (CRM) has become popular in recent years, where corporate giving for a cause is tied to consumers' purchase of the firm's products. The prior research has mainly focused on how consumers perceive cause-company relationship (e.g. cause fit) and consumers' pro-social characteristics (e.g. altruism) in influencing CRM effectiveness. Additionally, more studies have been called to focus on emerging market's cause-related product (CRP) buying. In an attempt to address these research gaps, this thesis examines CRP buying by bring the consumers' self-cause relation into focus, adopting psychological distance as a theoretical framework in order to offer a deeper understanding of the psychology of buying decisions in CRM. A mixed method approached was applied. Study One conducted in-depth interviews to explore the psychological distance in CRM context. Using a cross-national sample from China (225) and the UK (220), Study Two conducted a scenario-based survey to examine the role of psychological distance in CRP buying in different country contexts.

Overall, the findings demonstrate all four dimensions of psychological distance affect CRP buying, among which consumers' perceived temporal distance and uncertainty toward social causes have the most influential impact. The perceived closeness' positive influence on CRP buying could be enhanced by consumers' favourable perceptions towards CRM and their pro-social characteristics. It also shows that products with an accumulative nature and a relatively large donation magnitude should be tied with psychologically closer social cause. Significant differences are found among consumers' CRP buying in developed and emerging markets: 1. Unlike UK consumers, Chinese consumers are not affected by their perceived social and physical distance towards social causes. 2. Chinese consumers are not in favour of providing extra effort in participating a CRM campaign other than buying a CRP whereas UK consumers may be willing to actively involve in devoting time and effort in CRM campaign. 3. UK consumers tend to buy more CRPs linked with high donation magnitude than Chinese consumers. Theoretical and practical contributions are given.

Key words: cause-related marketing, psychological distance, cross-national research, emerging markets

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To my family

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction

In the last decade, an emerging social trend towards more socially conscious consumers has ignited interest in the role of the corporation within its broader social environment (Uhm, 2009). According to the latest Global Corporate Social Responsibility Study (CSR) by Cone Communication (2015), nearly all global consumers expect companies to act responsibly (p.3). As a result, companies have directed an extensive amount of corporate resources into pro-social CSR endeavours (Silberhorn and Warren, 2007). Cause-related Marketing (CRM) is an increasingly popular strategy among CSR initiatives. It is intended to ally companies' social and economic goals by linking corporate giving for social causes to the purchase of a company's product or services (Steckstor, 2012; Porter and Kramer, 2002; Sheikh and Beise-Zee, 2011; Adkins, 2007; Davidson, 1994). The key element of CRM is that the donation is contingent upon consumer participation in a revenue producing transaction with a for-profit corporate partner of the non-profit organisation (e.g. P&G promises to donate a percentage of the sale price to a children's charity for every purchase of a laundry powder) (Varadarajan and Menon, 1988).

One of the first ever CRM campaigns was conducted by American Express in 1983 by giving a cent from each transaction and a dollar for each new card member towards the renovation of the Statue of Liberty (Andreasen, 1996; Varadarajan and Menon, 1988). Following in its footsteps, today more than 85% of organisations use CRM to address CSR (PMA, 2000; Nan and Heo, 2007). According to the IEG Sponsorship Report, CRM in North America alone is predicted to reach \$1.92 billion in 2015, a projected increase of 3.7% over 2014 (IEG, 2015). In the UK, CRM programmes that donate to good causes and NPOs from the top 300 listed companies are estimated to make up around 70% of their overall worldwide community investment portfolio (Walker, Pharoah, Marmolejo and Lillya, 2012). Among those, successful CRM campaigns

include ASDA's Tickle Pink Breast Cancer campaign and Mark & Spencer's Help for Heroes.

A popular marketing strategy in developed markets, CRM has also had increasing presence in emerging markets such as China (Chang, 2012). Chinese companies have actively engaged in supporting social causes such as youth education, eldercare, poverty, environment and animal protection etc. (Cone and Darigan, 2010; Hou, Du and Li, 2008). Notably, the Sichuan province earthquake in 2008 marked a tipping point for consumer engagement of Chinese CRM campaigns (Hou et al, 2008). After the earthquake, a survey conducted by the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences in 2008 found that more than 65% of Chinese consumers would consider companies that did not respond to the disaster as "misers". Additionally, 70% of them would buy products from brands that were associated with donations to the earthquake (Darigan, 2010). A more recent survey with the nation's Millennials indicated that 83% of the population, 230 million people, would prefer to buy a product that supports worthy causes (Weber and wick, 2011). Although still relatively new to Chinese consumers, research regards China as one of the emerging economies most likely to influence the evolution of corporate responsibility in the next few years (Cone Communications, 2013, 2015; Darigan, 2010; DaSilva, 2013).

The global success of CRM practices is due to the positive effect it elicits on sponsoring companies, NPOs, and consumers. First, the intent of CRM from the company's perspective is to provide additional social motivations for buying a product. The positive effects may be additional goodwill created for the brand and enhancement of CSR achievements and thus, its overall reputation (Xue, Xiao and Iyer, 2014). CRM is also found to help brands establish long-term product differentiation (Liu and Ko, 2011, 2014; Laffert, Goldsmith and Hult, 2004; Gupta and Pirsch, 2006; Hou et al., 2008; Webb and Mohr, 1998), increased brand awareness and brand image (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002; Nan and Heo, 2007; Varadarajan and Menon, 1988; Gupta and Pirsch, 2006; Singh, Sanchez and Bosque, 2008), brand reputation (Barone, Miyazaki and Taylor, 2000; Caesar, 1986; Varadarajan and Menon, 1988; Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Van den Brink, Odekerken-Schröder and Pauwels, 2006), positive consumer attitudes (Ross, Patterson and Stutts, 1992; Webb and Mohr, 1998), and an overall increase in sales, repeat purchase, and multiple unit purchases

(Luo and Bhattacharya, 2006; Youn and Kim, 2008; Russell and Russell, 2010; Varadarajan and Menon, 1988).

Second, the other partner of the alliance, i.e. non-profit organisations (NPOs) and the social causes involved in the campaigns can indeed benefit greatly from CRM campaigns. For example, NPOs work with the same demands as business, simply in a different market sector and with different products. Hence corporate and NPOs share equally relevant objectives they wish to achieve in a CRM campaign such as brand or image enhancement, increased customer traffic or increasing income and resources. CRM can expose social issues and messages more than NPOs could on their own (Berglind and Nakata, 2005). Not surprisingly, consumers find a CRM message more penetrating and persuasive when it is delivered through an alliance with some corporation they know and respect (Adkin, 2007). CRM is one of the marketing strategies that is available that offers mutual benefits to both participating parties, creates a win-win situation where the NPOs or social causes and business win and the benefits also extend to consumers and other stakeholders (Adkin, 2007; Barns, 1992).

Third, as a considerable part of charitable funds, public donations to social causes are under significant pressure and this traditional source of funds is indeed by no means secure in the current economy. In the UK alone, the recession that started in 2008 has caused a sharp decrease of 20% in public charitable donations including by government, charitable trusts, individual donors and companies (Walker et al., 2012; Charities Aid Foundation, 2012). On the other hand, the increasing number of charities and NPOs has catalysed the demand for new sources of funding from society (Westberg, 2004; BITC, 2010; Collins, 1994). Under such circumstances, companies also encounter increasing pressure to contribute in raising fund to help improve social issues (Van De Brink, et al., 2006; Maignan and Ralston, 2002). CRM provides social causes with additional funds, which are drawn from a larger set of corporate budgets, with the potential for increased funds and support (Adkin, 2007). According to the Directory of Social Change report for 2013, NPOs reported that CRM was a growing area in corporate fundraising. For instance, in 2012, over 90 percent of UNICEF's income was linked to CRM (Walker, 2013).

Consumers also benefit from CRM as they are offered opportunities to fulfil their need for pride, satisfaction, and prestige for doing good, apart from the acquisition value from purchasing the product (Kim and Johnson, 2013 in Guerreiro, Rita and Trigueiros, 2015; Xue, Xiao and Iyer, 2015). More specifically, CRM satisfies consumers' social concerns, as direct donations usually restrict people from supporting causes due to budgetary reasons (Gupta and Pirsch, 2006). In addition, consumers could be rewarded by a sense of additional perceived value to their purchase (Webb and Mohr, 1998 in Gupta and Pirsch, 2006, p.34).

Despite the abovementioned benefits CRM may bring and general favourable attitude towards CRM, both practitioner and academic research suggests consumers' purchase of products that are tied to a CRM campaign, i.e. cause-related products (CRPs) can be indifferent (Webb and Mohr, 1998). For example, only 38% of consumers indicated that they had actually bought a CRP in the past 12 months (Cone, 2011). An even smaller proportion of the interviewees (19%) admitted they are willing to buy a more expensive brand to support a social cause (Cone, 2011). Furthermore, some research suggests CRM has little bearing on consumer purchase decisions (Smith and Stodghill, 1994), particularly when there is criticism of cause exploitation, which is likely to lead to a negative response to CRM (Wedd and Mohr, 1998; Garcia, Gibaja and Mujika, 2003; Foreh and Grier, 2003). Since consumer participation and purchase of CRPs is inevitably the key to the success of a CRM campaign (Varadarajan and Menon, 1988), it is therefore essential for companies and NPOs to understand the consumers' response to CRM and most importantly their buying decisions towards CRPs.

While extensive literature has tried to uncover determinants of CRP buying decisions, there has been a predominate focus on the influence of *consumer perception towards cause-company relation and structure*, e.g. perceived fit between brand and social cause (e.g. Nan and Heo, 2007; Barone, Norman and Miyazaki, 2007; Grau, Garretson and Pirsch, 2007), and the influence of *consumer pro-social characteristics* such as altruism (e.g. Sargeant, 1999; Koschate-Fischer, Stefan and Hoyer, 2012) and their emotional state (e.g. Wong and Bagozzi, 2005). Little attention has been paid to *the relation between self (consumer) and cause* in driving consumers' CRP buying. CRM donations can be made for people and social issues other than consumers themselves as direct beneficiaries. Therefore, for individuals to be willing to buy a CRP in order to

help a social cause, they will need a personal connection or bridging experience with the social cause supported (Grau and Folse, 2007; Chowdhury and Khare, 2011; Gorton, Angell, White and Tseng, 2013). Such connection arguably makes the importance of the social cause salient amongst the competing offerings (Lafferty, 2007; Lafferty and Edmondson, 2009). This is because individuals use self as a reference point as a cognitive processing strategy to relate information to their individual self structures (Burnkrant and Unnava, 1989, 1995 in Martin, Lee, Weeks and Kaya, 2013; Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009). Consumers may find a closer connection between self and the social cause by relating CRM cues to his or her life, such as recalling a friend having similar disease supported by the CRM campaign. Self-referenced information is more easily processed because the self is a frequently assessed construct in memory (Martin et al, 2013). The distance between self and cause decides how efficiently the CRM information can be self-referenced, interpreted and utilised in consumers' mind, and therefore affects purchase decisions of CRPs (Liberman and Trope, 1998).

Since social cause's relation to individuals can be perceived as psychologically distant or proximal (Olivola and Liu, 2009; Kennedy, Olivola and Pronin, 2009; Liu and Aaker, 2008), the concept of psychological distance provides an important factor in understanding the CRP buying decisions made by consumers (Liberman, Trope and Stephan, 2007). Psychological distance is conceptualized as "the subjective distance between an actor and an event in the actor's psychological space" (Kim, Zhang and Li, 2008, p.707) with multiple dimensions of physical, social, temporal and uncertainty (Trope and Liberman, 2010). Previous CRM studies built upon the helping nature of CRP buying and mainly focused on a unidimensional social distance between self and cause beneficiaries (e.g. Grau and Folse, 2007; Hajjat, 2003; Chang and Lee, 2011). For example, consumers tend to buy CRPs that donate to people they have a close social relations with (e.g. Hajjat, 2003). Research has yet to investigate the influences of other dimensions in psychological distance on CRP buying behaviour. Given the commercial nature of the products, CRP buying is not only limited to pro-social dimension and fundamentally an economic buying behaviour that involves considerations across the temporal and contextual frame (Tangari, Folse, Burton and Kees, 2010; Ellen Mohr and Webb, 2000; Guerreiro et al., 2015; Chang and Lee, 2009). For instance, the purchase decisions may involve temporal considerations of

buy now and seeing rewards for buying later (e.g. desired CRM campaign outcome). As aforementioned, since CRM is a commercial marketing strategy, inevitably there will be conflict between making a profit for business and doing good for society (Barone et al, 2000; Ellen, Mohr and Webb, 1995). Consumers may question the probability of social cause benefiting from their contribution to the product sales (Webb and Mohr, 1998) and actually changes the very way they think about the CRM campaign. Due to the perceived distant or proximal relation with social causes, CRM cues might be interpreted and utilised in a way that lead to their ultimate product choice decisions and how much they are willing to pay as a premium for the CRPs (Waslak, 2008). Therefore, in order to know the psychology of CRP buying, all four dimensions of the relation between consumer and cause need to be fully investigated.

Furthermore, although there is an increasing number of practices and significance in emerging markets such as China, these settings typically still lack prevalence of CRM campaigns and the consequent indifference towards CRPs (Wang, 2014). However, with the current pace of new investments and the entries of multinational firms, CRM competition may soon start resembling Western countries. To stimulate CRP buying in the emerging markets, CRM strategy is arguably conditioned by the external environment, most noticeably consumer cultural orientation (Wang, 2014). Therefore, generalisation of CRM initiatives across cultural and national context would be seriously ineffective (Cialdini, Wosinska, Barrett, Butner and Gornik-Durose, 1999; Money and Colton, 2000).

One of the significant issues relating to this is that the perceptions of psychological distance between self and cause may vary widely in different cultural contexts (Lieberman, et al, 2007). Research on cross-cultural psychology stipulates independent and interdependent cultures across nations. For instance, Asian countries emphasise more the interconnectedness of the individuals with the collective than the individuals in the West European and North American countries (Berry, 1980; Markus and Kitayama, 1994). Therefore, an individual in interdependent cultures may maintain more psychological proximity towards people in his or her social surrounding (Markus and Kitayama, 1994; Miller, 1984; Morris and Peng, 1994). Moreover, different social structure influence perception and cognitive style, the relationship to a wide range of nonsocial stimuli may be perceived differently (e.g. Nisbett, Peng, Choi and

Norenzayan, 2001 in Liberman et al., 2007). Different perception to psychological distance may lead to the possible existence of cross-cultural differences in CRP buying. Research has already found that the more connected social relations with other people make consumers in interdependent cultures more sensitive and responsive to the needs of others (Bochner, 1994), and therefore more willingness to help (Rawwas, 2001; Rawwas, Swaidan and Oyman, 2005; Singh et al., 2008). Will there be any variations of other dimensions of the perceived distance between self and cause, i.e. the nonsocial stimuli (e.g. perceived temporal distance)? And more importantly, will they account for the difference in consumer CRP buying in different culture context? Research still yet to discover these points.

With such considerations, CRM campaigns successfully executed in western developed countries may create a distinction in China and other emerging economies (La Ferl, Kuber and Edwards, 2013, p.364). To date, the majority of CRM studies have focused on the Western markets such as the US and the UK (Endacott, 2004; Cheron, Kohlbacher and Kusuma, 2012), research on emerging markets is still limited with a few exceptions (e.g. Wang, 2014; Lavack and Kropp, 2003; La Ferle, Kuber and Edwards, 2013). Therefore, cross-cultural comparative research is needed to understand the influence of cultural background on psychological distance and CRP buying, which is important for the success of multinational companies that wish to conduct campaigns across different markets. Applying these concepts and theory to CRP buying, this thesis examines the following research questions:

RQ1. What is the impact of psychological distance on consumer intention to buy cause-related products (CRPs)?

RQ2. Are there significant differences among consumers' CRP buying in different country contexts?

2. Definition and Types of Cause-Related Marketing

2.1 Definition

The concept of CRM originates from cause specific CSR (Ross et al., 1992). While cause specific CSR could be in the form of corporate sponsorship or philanthropy (Adkins, 2007), CRM indicates a focus on one specific cause not the larger social good, and therefore is not a general ‘feel-good’ or awareness raising exercise; rather, CRM attempts to generate resources, usually financial, for specific social concerns (Berglind and Nakata, 2005; p.444).

Over the years, there have been many attempts to define CRM. A stream of research has a tendency to interpret CRM from an organisational perspective with a strategic orientation (Uhm, 2009). CRM is considered as a strategy designed to promote the achievement of marketing objectives such as brand sales via company support of social causes (Barone et al., 2000, p.248). Consequently, it brings benefits including community goodwill, increased revenue and profits (Dean, 2004, p.92). A more detailed definition describes CRM through its process. This view echoes the most widely accepted definition of CRM (e.g. Gupta and Pirsch, 2006; Uhm, 2009; Webb and Mohr, 1998; File and Prince, 1998; Adkins, 2007):

“The process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specific amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives”
(Varadarajan and Menon, 1988, p.60).

Following this concept, research suggests that there are two delivery patterns for CRM: conventional and social alliance (Liu and Ko, 2011). The most distinct difference between the two is whether companies work jointly with a NPO to address a cause. On the one hand, companies plan and execute a CRM campaign to directly address the social issue in a conventional pattern (Barone et al., 2000; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004 in Liu and Ko, 2011). For example, Tesco uses a voucher redemption scheme and their customers can gain one voucher for every £10 spent to exchange for

better IT equipment in schools (Tesco, 2007). On the other hand, the social alliance pattern includes companies working collaboratively with NPOs towards the development and implementation of a CRM campaign (Arya and Salk, 2006; Berger, Cunningham and Drumwright, 2004; Strahilevitz, 1999 in Liu and Ko, 2011). For example, Heinz donates to the 'Wounded Warrior Project' based on the sales of their tomato ketchup (Heinz, 2010). Whatever the delivery pattern, CRM focuses on contributing to specific cause(s) through customers' buying from a company (Dean, 2004). This definition of CRM emphasizes corporate giving linked to a commercial product and involves a revenue-providing exchange between the company, its consumer, and designated cause (e.g. Ross et al., 1992; Campbell, Gulas and Gruca, 1999; Dean, 2004; Berglind and Nakata, 2005; Grau and Folse, 2007; Trimble and Rifon, 2006).

2.2 What CRM is not

CRM is easily confused with other corporate strategies in the CSR category, and therefore is worth clarifying at the start of current research (Polonsky and Macdonald, 1999; Westberg, 2004; Barnes and Fitzgibbons, 1991; Caeser, 1986; Wagner and Thompson, 1994). Corporate philanthropy is not synonymous with CRM because financial and in-kind grants are given to social causes without any commercial objectives or expectations of return from it (Hou et al., 2008, p.364; Westberg, 2004; Collins, 1994; Andreasen, 1996; Cunningham, 1997; Welsh, 1999). The objectives of company participation in CRM are both promoting the supported social cause and NPO and increasing product sales (Royd-Taylor, 2007).

Sales promotion is used under the circumstances where companies intend to "enhance corporate image, increase brand awareness or directly stimulate sales of products and services" by supporting some certain event (Javalgi, Traylor, Gross and Lampman, 1994, p.48). NPOs are usually not involved (Speed and Thompson, 2000; Nicholls, Roslow and Laskey, 1994). Sales promotion can be in the forms of price discount or giving free gifts, which is designed to provide tangible benefits to consumers directly (Ailawadi and Neslin, 1998), while CRM usually does not offer tangible benefit to the

buyers but provides benefits to a third party via a social cause (Westberg, 2004, p.37; Adkins, 2007; Cunningham, 1997).

It is also important to distinguish CRM from social marketing. The common mistake of mixing the two concepts is quite understandable, as both are a marketing tools to promote a social cause (Kotler, Brown, Adam and Armstrong, 2001). However, the centre of the differences lies in the fact that CRM is commercial fundamentally and therefore is used to enhance the market position of a business, whereas social marketing solely addresses a social issue without being tied with promotion of a business (Berglind and Nakata, 2005)

2.3 Types of CRM

Typically, CRM can be categorized into four forms: transaction-based, donation in-kind, non-profit event sponsorship, and licensing (Andreasen, 1996; Berglind and Nakata, 2005; Liu and Ko, 2011). As stated before the most commonly used and straightforward CRM practice is classic *transaction-based programmes* (Berglind and Nakata, 2005). It refers to companies donating a percentage for every single sale made from the company's products or services (Strahilevitz and Myers, 1998). An example is that for every time an Innocent smoothie is sold, the company donates 25p to the charity Age UK for keeping old and vulnerable people warm in the winter (Innocent, 2014).

In *donation in-kind programmes*, companies contribute directly to the cause without being tied to a transaction and this contribution is not necessarily monetary (Berglind and Nakata, 2005). An example of this type of campaign is the Donate a phone, Save a life campaign by The Body Shop and Women's Aid. To raise public awareness of the issue surrounding domestic violence, the company refurbished used mobile phones from its customers and sold them on with all the proceeds going to the organisation (Women's Aid, 2014). Another example is that Pfizer offers in-kind support for communities, e.g. encouraging colleagues to spend five days a year volunteering practical and professional skills to improve health (Pfizer, 2015).

Companies can also initiate *sponsorship* attached to a specific non-profit event or scheme (Menon and Kahn, 2003). For example, Action Cancer is sponsored by Musgrave SuperValu-Centra (NI) Ltd in Northern Ireland to promote the importance of healthy lifestyles (BITC, 2004).

Licensing programmes are commonly conducted with a non-profit (e.g. World Wildlife Fund) licensing use of its name and logo to a company (e.g. Visa). A social cause linked with the non-profit organisation is advertised on the company's product and a portion of each transaction is donated to the cause.

2.4 Scope of CRM activities in current research

The literature on CRM embraces a wide number of perspectives on the concept and there is no substantive definition that can be applied with any generality. Because the focus of this thesis is to examine consumers' buying of CRPs, the scope of the current research will be largely based on CRM that involves corporate donations (*in-kind and monetary*) to a certain cause based on consumers buying an associated product or service, i.e. economic transaction. A *CRM campaign* in this research will stand for a company's pro-social practice that associates its product with a social cause or an NPO. In such campaigns, the company promises to donate to the social cause a portion or a set amount of sales contributed by customers (Winterich and Barone, 2011).

This buying thus involves interactive relationships between a company, cause and consumer. Consumers' buying of CRP is affected by the company together with the NPO or a cause. Meanwhile the level of support that social cause gets from the CRM campaign largely depends on consumers' buying behaviour (Westberg, 2004; Holmes and Kilbane, 1993; Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005). Therefore, *CRP buying* is seen as a combination of buying behaviour that acquires utilitarian benefit of a product, and a form of pro-social helping and giving behaviour that involves social motivation for donate to a cause (Ross et al., 1992). The purchase behaviour this research will focus on is the comparison between a CRP and a similar alternative without association with any social cause or NPO. In this way, the both the social and economic dimensions of CRP purchase can be studied.

3. Previous CRM Research

Extensive research has been conducted on CRM as a result of its popularity in business. Besides the early exploratory studies that found positive effect of CRM on company business (e.g. brand image, reputation) (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002; Woisetschlager and Michaelis, 2012), there are several main streams of research in CRM literature (Ladero, Casquet and Singh, 2015). Some research focuses on CRM structure issues, such as donation structure and product type (e.g. Strahilevitaz and Myers, 1998; Strahilevitaz, 1999). It shows that consumers respond differently to hedonic and utilitarian CRPs (e.g. Strahilevitaz, 1999) associated with high or low level of donation magnitude (e.g. Chang, 2008; Subrahmanyam, 2004). Second, research also centres on consumer responses to CRM and shows that consumers generally show positive attitudes towards CRM campaigns and the firms and NPOs involved (e.g. Ross et al., 1992; Webb and Mohr, 1998; Basil and Herr, 2003; Kropp, Holden and Lavack, 1999; Ellen et al., 2000; Pacejus, Olsen and Brown, 2004; Youn and Kim, 2008). Moreover, extensive literature has identified several antecedents to consumer participation in CRP buying (e.g. Gorton et al., 2013; Galan Ladero, Galera Casquet and Singh, 2015). Researchers repeatedly evidenced a number of important factors such as consumers' perceived fit between brand and social cause (e.g. Nan and Heo, 2007; Chéron, Kohlbacher and Kusuma, 2012; Chang and Liu, 2012), requested participation effort (e.g. Ellen et al., 2000; Inoue and Kent, 2014; Olivola and Shafir, 2013; Hou et al., 2008), general attitude towards CRM (Galan Ladero et al., 2015) including perceived firm credibility (e.g. Lafferty, 2007; Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005; Trimble and Rifon, 2006; Alcañiz, Cáceres, and Pérez, 2010) and CRM familiarity (e.g. Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005; Sudaram and Webster, 1999). Lastly, research has suggested consumer attributes such as their pro-social altruistic trait (Bekkers and Wiepking, 2011; Basil and Weber, 2006) and their emotional state (e.g. Broderick, Jogi and Garry, 2003) would influence given CRP buying is a pro-social behaviour (Ross et al., 1992).

Despite the above advances in knowledge on consumer participation in CRM, prior research has predominantly focused on cause-company relationship and consumers' perception of such (e.g. perceived fit between brand and NPO). An area that has been overlooked is the importance of consumer-cause relationship. Since CRM requires

consumers to participate in order to support a social cause, it is undeniable that how consumers perceive social causes and their relationship with social causes will be an imperative influencer in driving CRP buying (Olivola and Liu, 2009; Lafferty, 1996). While the company donates directly to a social cause, it cannot achieve CRM goals without consumer participation and buying associated products. A main challenge of conducting CRM campaigns for companies is to attract consumers from the competitor offerings (i.e. alternative products). Choosing a CRP over an alternative requires motivation to help someone or society in some way, especially when consumers are sometimes required to pay more for them. For example, Evian charges higher price for their 6 packed bottled waters associated with the Susan G. Komen Foundation for breast cancer research. In order for consumers to help, research suggests consumers need to find a personal connection or bridging experience for an individual with a social cause (Grau and Flose, 2007, p.20; also in Hajjat, 2003; Gorton et al., 2013; Chowdhury and Khare, 2011; Lafferty, 1996).

Although scholars have often focused their attention on personal relevance and presentation of cause-related cues in CRM promotion (Pracejus and Olsen, 2004; Hajjat, 2003; Trimble and Rifon, 2006; Bigné-Alcañiz, Currás-Pérez, Ruiz-Mafé, and Sanz-Blas, 2010; Grau and Flose, 2007; Lafferty and Edmondson, 2009; Lafferty, 2007), research has yet to identify the key role of consumers' perceived psychological distance or closeness between themselves and the social cause in CRP buying (Ross et al., 1992; Strahilevitz and Myers, 1998; Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Bar-Tal, 1976; Hou et al., 2008; Broderick et al., 2003). Although sharing some similarity, psychological distance is fundamentally different from personal relevance. Personal relevance serves as a consequence of the perceived relationship rather than the relationship itself. Psychological distance, on the other hand, is the *perceived distance between self and CRM in consumers' psychological space*, and is treated as a key construct in *how people process relevant information of CRM in making CRP buying decisions* (Trope and Liberman, 2010; Liberman et al., 2007).

According to the Construal Level Theory of psychological distance, people systematically form stimuli and cues in their social environment into either a high level or a low level mental construals, depending on the distance to self (Trope and Liberman, 2010; Eyal and Liberman, 2012; Kim et al., 2008). With self as a reference

point, consumers process information to match events in their lives (Martin et al, 2013). The more proximal the relation is perceived, the more information about the cause readily available there is for consumers to self-reference (Trope and Liberman, 2003), and therefore the easier it will be to process cause information into self-relevant one (Martin et al, 2013). The psychological distance between self and cause decides how efficiently the CRM information can be self-referenced, interpreted and utilised in consumers' minds, influence their emotions, evaluations, choices and behaviours (Liberman and Trope, 1998; Trope and Liberman, 2010; Maglio, Trope and Liberman, 2013).

Some studies on CRM have attempted to investigate the effect of consumers' perceived social distance between self and cause beneficiaries on CRP, primarily seeing CRP buying as a giving behaviour (e.g. Hajjat, 2003; Grau and Folse, 2007; Brodick et al., 2003). Undeniably, buying a CRP is *beyond helping and giving*. While paying for a CRP indeed means a contribution to donation, the behaviour is first and foremost an economic act. The goal of giving and helping is usually with one clear objective of improving the current situation (e.g. ending suffering for the beneficiaries or improving the environment). Consumers usually give money directly to charities without asking anything in return (Bedapudi, Singh and Bendapudi, 1996). Therefore, charitable donation or helping behaviours are quite often driven by altruism (e.g. Bendapudi, et al., 1996; Bekkers and Wiepking, 2011; Basil and Weber, 2006) and consumers' emotional state (e.g. feeling empathic Batson, Sager, Garst et al., 1997). Compared to charitable giving and helping, CRP buying is not entirely an altruistic behaviour and the motivation to buy a CRP is combined with acquiring utilitarian benefit from the product and social benefits from participation. For this reason, CRP buying is not only affected by the perceived social distance, but also by consumers' perceived distance of cause across time and context.

Furthermore, as mentioned in the earlier discussions, CRM research has predominantly investigated CRP buying in Western context and is still yet to provide empirical work on emerging markets (Endacott, 2003; Chéron et al., 2012; Wang, 2014; Lavack and Kropp, 2003; La Ferle et al., 2013). In particular, the impact of perceived distance between self and cause on CRP buying may vary significantly among different countries. Research has already reported national cultural variation has a significant

impact on social distance individuals perceive between themselves and cause beneficiaries, which in turn decides whether consumers elicit more help and participation in CRM campaigns (Singh, Sanchez and Bosque, 2008). Given the perceived self-cause distance being a key determinant in CRP buying and the increasing practice of CRM by multinational companies in these markets, it is thus critical to find out other important dimensions of the perceived self-cause distance's (e.g. temporal) impact on consumers from different countries so that a generalised application of CRM campaign can be avoided.

To conclude, three *research gaps* have been identified. *First*, prior research identified CRP buying antecedents including consumer perception of cause-company relation and consumer pro-social traits in helping others. This thesis argues this overlooked area perceived distant or close relation of social cause to self needs to be investigated in order to understand the psychology of buying CRP (Olivola and Liu, 2009). *Second*, despite some studies focused on pro-social dimension in CRM, CRP buying is not only restricted to pro-social dimension but also an economic buying behaviour, and therefore psychological factors across time and context need to be explicitly examined to understand CRP buying behaviour. *Third*, to contribute to the understanding of psychological distance's impact on CRP buying in emerging markets, cross-cultural investigation is needed to examine the difference among consumers' buying in different country contexts.

4. Psychological distance as the theoretical framework

This thesis posits psychological distance between self and cause as a key theoretical framework in investigating CRP buying decisions. Psychological distance refers to the perceived distance between consumers and social cause in their psychological space, with four dimensions of temporal, social, physical distance and uncertainty (Maglio et al., 2013). The reasons are discussed as follows.

Firstly, psychological distance is a key construct in how consumers process information around their social situation (Trope and Liberman, 2010). Perceived

closeness to a cause makes it easier for consumers to incorporate the social cause as self-relevant (Pracejus and Olsen, 2004), and thus leads to more efficient and favourable processing of CRM messages (Grau and Folse, 2007; Gorton et al., 2013). It is argued that the base of any economic decision-making is self-interest (Loewenstein, 2000). Consumers are selfish to some extent, and therefore activities involving cash sacrifice such as buying a product to help others, could be deemed costly and a losing proposition to the consumer (Pruger, 1973). Psychological closeness facilitates the identifying self in CRM cues, which can show the benefit of such sacrifice, and thus increase CRP buying (Shang, Reed and Croson 2008; Young, Chakroff and Tom 2012).

Moreover, individuals directly experience themselves and their immediate surroundings at the present moment (Liberman et al., 2007, p.353). Anything is psychologically distant whenever it is removed from consumers' direct experience (Liberman, et al., 2007, Kim, Zhang and Li, 2008; Trope, Liberman and Wakslak, 2007; Liberman, Trope and Wakslak, 2007). In a psychologically distant situation, consumers have to rely on their subjective experience to make economic and social decisions (e.g. saving money involves putting oneself in future mindset). Following this logic, a social cause to consumers is psychologically distant whenever it is removed from consumers' direct experience. CRM campaign is something consumer cannot experience directly, whether in terms of the desired cause outcome of their contribution or the actual implementation of CRM effort. Most often, CRM campaigns ask for support for social causes that are outside of consumers' immediate situation (i.e. for themselves, here and now). For example, consumers are usually encouraged to buy a product associated with a social cause that concerns another part of the world. It may be thought of, constructed or reconstructed in mind but it cannot be directly experienced (Liberman, et al, 2007). As such, consumers would have to rely on their subjective experience in deciding whether to buy a CRP or not (Liberman et al., 2007).

Secondly, psychological distance offers a deeper understanding in consumer buying psychology in a combination of pro-social giving and commercial CRM context. Specifically, it specifies the cause-consumer relation in terms of four dimensions, which are all highly relevant to CRP buying. *First* as aforementioned, it studies the social relationships of consumer-cause beneficiaries, which has been documented

widely as a key determinant for why people offer help for others (e.g. Breman, 2011; Henderson, Huang and Chang, 2012). *Second*, it studies the economic decision-making between paying now and helping social cause at a distance (i.e. in the future). In the CRM setting, products sometimes contain temporal information about social causes, which requires purchase decisions based on delayed consequences. For example, the result of using products supporting woodland protection does not necessarily translate into immediate improvement in the environment. This delay-of-gratification is the basis of such intertemporal decisions in which costs and rewards occur at different points in time. The psychology of intertemporal decisions typically suggests that future benefits and costs could be discounted and hence their present value would appear more salient (Tangari et al., 2010). In the CRM setting, such pro-social benefit in a distant future (e.g. environment improvement) could be discounted so proximal benefit (e.g. buying the cheaper product) is likely to alter consumer choice of CRPs. *Third*, psychological distance studies physical factors that determine purchase decisions of CRP, such as geographically distant places. For example, environmental causes such as global warming, usually require consumers to look outside their social surroundings and picture the importance of the cause happening somewhere else. Some studies have looked into this aspect and suggested that people respond to local causes more than national ones (e.g. Ellen et al., 2000; Hou et al., 2008). *Lastly*, psychological distance takes uncertainty of buying CRPs into consideration. It is well documented that CRM often create doubts and scepticism among consumers due to its commercial nature (e.g. Baronet et al., 2000; Becker-Olsen et al., 2006). For example, consumers have explicitly expressed concerns about whether their contribution will actually turn into a successful cause outcome (Barone et al., 2000).

Furthermore, as aforementioned, consumers in different cultural contexts elicit varied degree of psychological distance towards others in society (e.g. Oyserman and Lee, 2008). Their perception towards time, risks and other non-social stimuli also address significant differences in their buying decisions (e.g. Weber and Hsee, 1998; Kimmelmeier, Jambor and Letner, 2006; Du, Green and Myerson, 2002; Takahashi et al., 2008). The four dimensions of psychological distance between self and social causes thus explicitly addresses the research gap in CRM studies with a comprehensive view of cultural differences in buying behaviour of a commercial product associated with charitable giving.

The choice of psychological distance thus perfectly coincides with the earlier outlined gaps in knowledge. Firstly, the theory of psychological distance addresses the self-cause relation's importance in CRP buying decisions, and thus brings the self and the cause's relation to the self into focus and broadens the factors to be considered when studying CRP buying behaviour. Secondly, psychological distance explains CRP buying as pro-social giving and commercial buying behaviour. It thus offers a deeper understanding of the psychology of CRP buying by incorporating all four dimensions of perceived relation between self and cause that are highly relevant within a commercial CRM context. Thirdly, psychological distance addresses key differences in consumers' buying behaviour of CRPs among consumers from different country contexts. For these reasons the theory of psychological distance is considered intrinsically most suitable for the present research and is therefore chosen as its guiding analytical framework.

5. Research objectives and method of enquiry

This thesis seeks to answer the questions: *What is the impact of psychological distance on consumer intention to buy cause-related products (CRP)?* and *Are there significant differences among consumers in different country context?* The research questions proposed are approached through fulfillment of two research objectives. Firstly, prior to devising an approach to CRP buying and the application of psychological distance in CRM, it is necessary to identify and define the key CRP buying influencers as well as each psychological distance dimension in this particular context of CRM. The other objective, thus, is to examine the effect of four dimensions of psychological distance and consumer buying influencers on consumers' intention to buy CRPs and identify the key differences of these factors among different countries' consumers CRP buying.

The thesis thus builds upon two consecutive empirical studies, each corresponding with the research objectives. Study One uses in-depth interviews to conduct a preliminary exploratory investigation of the CRP purchase phenomena and conceptualisation of psychological distance in the context of CRM. Study Two employs a scenario-based questionnaire survey to measure the factors identified

systematically and explores their effects on CRP purchase decisions across different country contexts.

6. Contributions of the current research

The current research seeks to examine the underlying mechanism of consumer psychology in the purchase decisions of CRPs and to advance the understanding of conceptualisation and application of psychological distance in the CRM context. Several significant contributions of this thesis are derived by filling the research gaps identified.

This thesis significantly contributes to the *CRM research* in the following main ways. *First*, it demonstrates the usage of psychological distance in CRM. More specifically, the theory of psychological distance provides explanations of the self-cause relation in CRM. It provides empirical evidence that distance to the self is a key construct underlying CRP buying, and this distance can be multiply determined. In particular, it extends beyond the effect of self-cause social distance in helping a cause but also the effect of other highly relevant dimensions of how consumers buy CRP across time and context. *Second*, by manipulating CRP purchase on different product levels and donation magnitude, the current research further validates the robustness of the investigated relationships between CRP buying factors, psychological distance and purchase intention under different conditions. *Third*, it empirically verifies a framework for understanding CRP buying for simultaneous effects from buying antecedents and psychological distance. *Moreover*, the current research further tests the CRP buying behaviour in a *cross-cultural context*, using two countries across developed (UK) and emerging (China) markets. Much of the empirical work in CRM has been conducted in Western markets (Wang, 2014; Lavack and Kropp, 2003). This research provides valuable theoretical and managerial implications for research in cross-culture CRM context and for firms to conduct CRM in emerging markets such as China. In this way, a deeper understanding of CRP buying can be obtained and the theory of CRM can be extended and generalized.

Furthermore, this thesis contributes to *psychological distance theory* in two aspects. *First*, the current research is the first to extend the psychological distance concept in a combination of social charitable and commercial product buying context. Previous studies on psychological distance have tested distance either in charity (e.g. Olivola and Liu, 2009; Kennedy et al, 2009; Breman, 2011; Henderson et al, 2012) or commercial framing (e.g. Kim et al, 2008; Loewenstein and Prelec, 1992; Zauberan and Lynch, 2005; Castaño, Suján, Kacker, and Suján, 2008; Irmak et al., 2013; Nenkov, 2012). This thesis tests the combined effect of psychological distance thus brings the new knowledge in the theory. *Second*, this thesis is the first to examine multiple psychological distance dimensions in a cross-cultural context rather than in a single culture, and hence provides fruitful insights in cultural effect on psychological distance in consumer research.

7. Outline of the thesis

The rest of the thesis is organized in the following manner. Chapter Two provides a review of literature on CRM and psychological distance. It follows a conceptual framework and discusses buying antecedents in CRM and the key role of psychological distance in CRP buying. In Chapter Three, the methodology for enquiry is discussed. In addition, this chapter will include Study One the exploratory study. Chapter Four includes discussions around the research method for Study Two. It also provides measurement validation and discusses analytical methods used for mediation testing. Chapter Five presents results for hypotheses testing for Study Two. Chapter Six provides general discussion, and theoretical and managerial implication of this thesis. Limitations and future direction of research will also be given.¹

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Introduction

The previous chapter provided the background for CRM and CRP buying, outlined the research gaps in the existing literatures, drew out research questions to guide the enquiry, proposed a theoretical framework of psychological distance to address the gaps, set out research objectives and discussed potential contributions in knowledge. To summarise, answering the research questions ‘What is the impact of psychological distance on consumer intentions to buy cause-related products (CRP)?’ and ‘Are there significant differences among consumers’ CRP buying in different country contexts?’ will be approached in two consecutive steps: (1) identification of psychological distance and CRP buying influencers in CRM; and (2) investigation of their effects on CRP buying decisions across different country contexts.

This research seeks to address these research questions by applying the theory of psychological distance to understand CRP buying behaviour. Instead of looking only at buying antecedents (e.g. perceived cause fit) and CRM campaign structures (e.g. donation magnitude), this thesis seeks to contribute to the understanding of the psychology of CRP buying by bringing consumer self and cause’s relation into focus, and broadening the factors to be considered when studying purchase decisions in CRM. Given CRP buying is a combination of charitable giving and commercial buying behaviour, the perceived distance between self and cause is not only important in understanding why and how consumers offer help and donations to a social cause by buying an associated product (e.g. Breman, 2008, 2011; Henderson, Huang and Chang, 2012), but it also provides explanation of buying a commercial product that involves decisions made on temporal and contextual factors (e.g. Kennedy et al., 2009).

Therefore, this chapter serves as a review of the literature on CRM and psychological distance theories. The aim of this chapter, thus, is to illustrate CRP buying by explaining how each dimension of the perceived distance of cause to self may play a role in a consumer’s buying intention of CRPs. Moreover, the current chapter also

seeks to answer RQ2 and complement the CRP buying by adding cross-cultural discussion, so that this buying behaviour may be explained not only on an individual level but also within the scope of cultural backgrounds.

The rest of this chapter consists of the following: (1). A general review to CRM literature, (2). A discussion on theoretical background of psychological distance. (3). An examination on the applicaiton of psychological distance in CRM context and its influence on CRP buying behaviour. This includes psychological distance's role in the relation between CRP buying antecedents and CRP buying as well as its effect on buying behaviour in different CRM structures (i.e., product levels and donation magnitudes); and (4). An investigation of cross-cultural influences on the CRP buying.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1 Previous studies in CRM

Prior research on CRM took a much broader view on CRM's effect on business. It has demonstrated that participating in CRM could improve business performance (e.g. Cunningham and Cushing, 1993; Ross et al.; 1992; Dahl and Lavack, 1995) and help diminish the negative influence of unethical business (e.g. Creyer and Ross, 1996). CRM has also been documented to have a positive effect on consumers' purchase intention of CRP products (Berger, Cunningham, and Kozinets, 1999; Ross et al., 1992; Roy and Graeff, 2003; Chang, 2008; Gupta and Pirsch, 2006; Henderson and Arora, 2010; Lafferty, Goldsmith and Hult, 2004; Leszczyc and Rothkopf, 2010; Leszczyc and Wong, 2010; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004; Pracejus, Olsen and Brown, 2003; Hou et al., 2008; Baron et al., 2000), retailer switching behaviour (Smith and Alcorn, 1991; Meyer, 1999), and product choice decisions (Barone, Miyazaki and Taylor, 2000; Hoek and Gendall, 2008). A brand could also benefit from participating in cause-company alliance. For instance, research suggests CRM enhances brand image (Fombrun and Shanley, 1990), brand credibility (Bigné-Alcañiz, Currás-Pérez, and Sánchez-García, 2009), brand loyalty (Van den Brink et al., 2006), and brand equity (Benoit-Moreau and Parguel, 2007).

Another area CRM research has looked at is consumers' general responses to CRM. It showed that consumers would favour CRM campaigns when perceived as genuinely altruistic (Ellen, Mohr and Webb, 1995) or coupled with 'decadent' products and can be more effective than offering a cash rebate (Strahilevitz, 1999, 2003; Berger, Cunningham and Kozinets, 1999).

In addition, a stream of the research has shown that CRM results in consumers' favourable attitude towards *companies* involved in CRM campaigns (e.g. Ross et al., 1992; Ross, Stutts and Patterson, 1991; Webb and Mohr, 1998; Brown and Dacin, 1997; Lafferty et al., 2004; Strahilevitz and Myers, 1998; Berger, Cunningham and Kozinets, 1996; Chaney and Dolli, 2001; Sheikh and Beise-Zee, 2011; Creyer and Ross, 1997; Meyer, 1999), the *cause-related product* (Berger et al., 1996; Ross et al., 1992), and the *non-profit organisation* involved (Ross et al., 1991; Webb and Mohr, 1998; Basil and Herr, 2003). However, although consumers generally view CRM as favourable, some studies show that CRM may have little bearing on consumer purchase decisions (Smith and Stodghill, 1994; Gorton et al., 2013), especially when there is negative publicity and criticism of cause exploitation (Varadarajan and Menon, 1988), which could lead to worse attitude towards a brand (Smith and Stodghill, 1994; Webb and Mohr, 1998; Garcia, Gibaja and Mujika, 2003; Foreh and Grier, 2002).

Following the implications from the three aspects of preliminary work on CRM, a great number of studies have focused on exploring factors that contribute to a successful CRM campaign (e.g. Chang and Lee, 2011; Sheikh and Beise-Zee, 2011; Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Grau et al., 2007; Ellen et al., 2000; Pracejus et al., 2004; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Hajjat, 2003; Nowak and Clarke, 2003; Wymer and Samu, 2009). The studies have identified *CRP buying antecedents* including the *consumer perception towards CRM and consumer-company relations* such as *perceived fit between cause and brand* (e.g. Sundar, 2007; Lafferty, 2007; Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2009; Barone, Norman and Miyazaki, 2007; Becker-Olsen, Cudmore and Hill, 2006; Hamlin and Wilson, 2004; Samu and Wymer, 2009; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004; Nan and Heo, 2007; Gupta and Prish, 2006; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Sheikh and Beise-Zee, 2011), *CRM credibility* (e.g. Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Lafferty, 2006; Cornwell and Coote, 2006; Gupta and Prish, 2006; Strahilevitz, 2003),

CRM familiarity (e.g. Lafferty, 2007; Goldsmith, Lafferty and Newell, 2000; Burke, 2011; Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005; Trimble and Rifon, 2006; Perera and Chaminda, 2013), and *participation effort* (e.g. Ellen et al., 2000; Inoue and Kent, 2014; Olivola and Shafir, 2013; Hou et al., 2008).

CRM research also investigated *donation-related customer characteristics* and its effect on consumers' willingness to pay for a CRP (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Strahilevitz and Myer, 1998). Given CRP buying is deemed an altruistic giving behaviour (Strahilevitz and Myer, 1998, p.435), research suggests consumers' *altruistic values* have a strong impact on their CRP buying intention (e.g. Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Hibbert and Horne, 1996; Supphellen and Nelson, 2001). Moreover, prior research suggests individuals' *emotional state* can significantly increase their likelihood of engaging in charitable giving behaviour such as CRP buying (e.g. Cunningham, 1979; Cunningham, Steinberg and Grev, 1980; Isen and Levin, 1972; Baumann, Cialdini, and Kendrick, 1981; Strahilevitz and Myer, 1998; Mayo and Tinsley, 2009; Haussler et al., 2009; Isen, 2000).

A further area of CRM research has examined the CRM structures. These studies documented examination on factors such as *donation magnitude* (e.g. Strahilevitz and Myers, 1998; Dahl and Lavack, 1995; Holmes and Kilbane, 1993; Hajjat, 2003; Bhattacharya and Sen, 2003; Folse, Niedrich and Grau, 2010; Moosmayer and Fuljahn, 2010; Chang, 2008) and *product type* (Strahilevitz and Myers, 1998; Strahilevitz, 1999; Chang and Liu, 2012; Chang, 2011; Subrahmanyam, 2004).

The discussion in Chapter One has outlined several deficiencies in the abovementioned existing knowledge of CRP buying, thereby underlining the need for: (1) building on the CRP buying antecedents and CRM structure effect and bringing the perceived distance between self (consumer) and cause into focus to gain a deeper understanding the psychology of CRP buying (2) testing the role of psychological distance in a combination of social charity and commercial product buying, and (3) examining the impact of psychological distance on CRP buying behaviour among consumers from different country contexts.

2.2 Psychological Distance

2.2.1 Background of psychological distance

Psychological distance is a key concept in studying human relations and behaviour (Hardy et al., 2010; Watson and Fischer, 1993; Vaughn and Baker, 2004). This notion was a concept of central importance in Lewin's (1951) field theory. It states that the number of regions between important objects, goals, people, pasts and futures, constituted psychological distance in people's life space (Van Boven, McGraw, Kane and Dale, 2010, p.872). Early theories of psychological conflict emphasized the role of psychological distance in how people approach and avoid gradients (Miller, 1944). Unpleasant, aversive aspects of a reinforcing event loom larger whereas the pleasant, appetitive aspects are less apparent when the distance from the event decreases (Fiedler, 2007), and thus influence what people are motivated to do (Miller, 1994 in Van Boven et al., 2010).

We are 'prisoners' of the present. Most of the time, we have to make decisions for someone else or for a future date, we behave based on the social cues represented in our mind rather than as exist objectively in the social environment (e.g. Lingle and Ostrom, 1979; Srull and Wyer, 1983; Bodenhausen and Morales, 2013; Hardy et al., 2010; Trope, Liberman and Wakslak, 2007; Liberman, et al., 2007; Trope and Liberman, 2000; Liberman and Trope, 1998; Zhang and Wang, 2009; Kim, Zhang and Li, 2008; Maglio, Trope and Liberman, 2013). Unlike other species, we are known to be able to transcend the 'here and now', recollect ourselves from the past and plan the future (Trope and Liberman, 2012). For example, how an individual perceives himself to be in the future could possibly influence his decisions 'here and now' (e.g. Trope and Liberman, 2003; Fiedler, 2007). Lewin (1951) also adds "an individual's mood is deeply affected by his hopes and wishes and by his views of his own past. The morale and happiness of an individual also seem to depend more on what he expects of the future than on the pleasantness or unpleasantness of the present situation". Therefore, researchers have suggested that it is essential to understand human behaviour from the angle of an individual's psychological state and examine how subjective experience influences behaviour (Trope and Liberman, 2000; 2003).

2.2.2 Definition and dimensions

Psychological distance refers to the subjective distance between a consumer and the social cause in the consumer's mental space (Kim et al., 2008; Liberman, et al., 2007). This distance is centred on 'self' and composed of the set of subjective experiences people have when it is removed from reality (Trope and Liberman, 2010; Williams, Stein and Galguera, 2012; Trope and Liberman, 2010; Williams, Huan and Bargh, 2009; Kim et al., 2008). Psychological distance is thus egocentric. Its reference point is our present situation-self, here, now and things that we are doing. Anything that is removed from direct experience and not present currently is psychologically distant (Liberman et al, 2007). We directly experience reality and immediate surroundings at the present moment. For example, we feel cold when it is snowing. However, in the summer we do not experience the temperature directly and we can only think of how cold it was in the snowy weather. The winter days, thus, are psychologically distant in our mind. Similarly, we feel the social surroundings as close to or distal from us because most of the time we cannot experience them immediately (Trope and Liberman, 2010).

Distance fundamentally exists in people's everyday lives. It can also convey a sense of space in other dimensions (Edwards, Lee and Ferle, 2009, p.35). We feel psychologically closer to our friends compared to a stranger (Liviatan, Trope, and Liberman, 2008; Stephan, Liberman, and Trope, 2010), to the current moment compared to the first year in university (Liberman and Trope, 1998), to our home town compared to another city miles away (Fujita, Henderson, Eng, Trope and Liberman, 2006), or to a hypothetical situation compared to reality (Wakslak, Trope, Liberman and Alony, 2006). These alternatives to the directly experienced reality define, respectively, *four dimensions* of psychological distances: *temporal distance*, *physical distance*, *social distance* and *uncertainty* (Liberman et al., 2007; Williams et al., 2012).

There is accumulating evidence showing that the four distances similarly systematically affect information input (*physical distance* in e.g. Fujita et al., 2006; *temporal distance* in e.g. Liberman and Trope, 1998; *uncertainty* in e.g. Wakslak et al., 2006; Wakslak, 2008; *social distance* in e.g. Liviatan, Trope and Liberman, 2008; Stephan, Liberman and Trope, 2010, 2011). Therefore, it supports the idea of unitary

psychological distance composed of the four distance dimensions as they have inherent common meaning and share a nonconscious association (Kim et al., 2008; Bar-Anan, Liberman, Trope and Algom, 2007). Precisely, common to all these distance dimensions is that information input about remote targets differs systematically from information about close targets (Fiedler, 2007, p.180, cited in Kruglanski and Higgins, 2013). This will be discussed more in-depth in the next section.

Despite the common underpinning function of the dimensions, there have also been suggestions for potential dimensions other than these four agents. Fiedler (2007, p.102) suggested that affective distance is related to social distance, but is conceptually distinct in notable respects. For instance, it makes a difference whether consumers learn about the holiday options in “warm,” emotionally charged pictures and films or in “cold,” descriptive text sources. Such variation in the modality and style of advertising should not be confused with social distance distinctions, such as self versus other, ingroup versus outgroup, or distinctions between persons varying in familiarity or similarity to oneself. Another stream of researchers argue that because of physical distance between countries, there could be cultural differences (cultural distance) (Gatignon and Anderson, 1988).

In response, Liberman et al. (2007) argues correlates of distance, such as amount of knowledge, emotions, and involvements, are likely *outcomes* of proximity rather than distance dimensions. Psychological distance created by understanding of different culture should not be a dimension of its own. Rather, misunderstanding regarding cultural difference is a psychological consequence of spatial distance, not an ancestor composing psychological distance. Similarly, affect distance proposed by some research is not people’s subject experiences; rather it is the result of them (Trope and Liberman, 2010). The researchers pointed out “by using the term affective distance one could predict, of course, that affect would be less intense with increasing distance, but this would be tautological.” (Liberman et al., 2007, p.114). Referring to the outcomes of distance (e.g. mental representation of objects and the motivational and emotional responses to those objects) as distances, thus, invites circularity (Liberman et al., 2007).

2.2.3 Psychological distance and consumer behaviour

Psychological distance has always been considered a central construct in the psychology of consumer decision-making and behaviour (Van Boven et al., 2010). Research has reported, for instance, that psychological distance influences retailer choice (Meyer, 1977; Coshall, 1985; Benedicktus, 2008), charitable giving (Olivola and Liu, 2009; Aaker, Akutsu and Liu, 2009; Kennedy et al., 2009; McGraw et al., 2009), helping behaviour (Henderson et al., 2012; Brewer and Kramer, 1985; Liu and Aaker, 2009; Olivola and Shafir, 2013), prediction (Nussbaum, Liberman and Trope, 2006), evaluation (Trope and Liberman, 2000; Liberman and Trope, 1998; Todorov, Goren and Trope, 2007; Thomas, Chandran and Trope, 2006; Kim et al., 2008; Eyal, Liberman, Trope and Walther, 2004), behavioural intention (e.g. Fujita, Eyal, Chaiken, Trope and Liberman, 2008; Eyal, Sagristano, Trope, Liberman and Chaiken, 2009), and global business decision making (Grady and Lane, 1996; Johanson and Vahlne, 1992).

Extensive research has been dedicated to explaining how psychological distance influences consumer decisions and behaviour. As aforementioned in the previous section, researchers have pointed out that the existence of psychological distance creates mental travel. According to Construal Level Theory developed by Liberman and Trope (1998), because we cannot access to subjective reality, we use sense and rely on our mind to construe mental representation of the information and objects around us in our social environment to enable us to regulate ourselves in reality (Shapira, Liberman, Trope and Rim, 2012). A mental construct is a representation of anything moved away from the egocentric reference point 'self' people would have to transcend themselves to – other times, other places, experiences of other people, and hypothetical alternatives to reality (Liberman et al., 2007). For example, we always put ourselves in other people's position and think of what they would do.

Researchers have further demonstrated that the ways people construe information under different psychological distances are similar to each other because these distance dimensions share one reference point and therefore are cognitively related to each other (e.g. Trope and Liberman, 2010). For this reason, psychological distance systematically changes the way information is represented in our minds (e.g. Liberman, Trope and Wakslak, 2007; Trope and Liberman, 2010; Maglio et al. 2013; Maglio and

Trope, 2011). More specifically, the more remote an object and information is from direct experience, the higher level at which it is mentally construed (Liberman et al., 2007). For the same piece of information, individuals tend to represent it at a higher level of abstraction and it is more context independent when it pertains to distant events than when it pertains to near events (Liberman et al., 2007; Trope and Liberman, 2003). For example, when we make holiday plans for next year, we think of it as an opportunity for relaxation. In contrast, when we go on a holiday tomorrow, we would vividly imagine a beach party or a need to check-in online. In addition, research shows that psychological distance may not only affect construal but may be affected by construal, i.e. the level of mental construal can also induce a different degree of psychological distance (Liberman et al., 2007). Researchers stipulate that high levels of construed stimuli would be perceived as more distant in time and space, as more distant socially, and as less real (Liberman et al., 2007, p.360).

Such change in construal and perceived distance is because we have less information about the things that are far away from our direct experience, therefore the lack of information about future, people, places and alternatives to reality means that regulating towards distal objects in mind requires forming higher level construals to remove incidental features and retain central and invariant features from which only detailed information can we derive (Shapira, Liberman, Trope and Rim, 2012). Similarly, when presented with a highly construed stimulus of abstraction, consumers tend to perceive it as distant due to the lack of concrete information available. Consequently, an association between distancing and construal is formed – as psychological distance increases, construals become more abstract, and as level of abstraction increases, targets seem more psychologically distant (Eyal, Liberman and Trope, 2008). One metaphor could be that we see a forest when we are far away from it. However, when we move closer, we see the individual trees rather than trees as a part of the forest. Researchers also suggest that this association could be overgeneralised; that people continue using high level construals for distant objects and low level construals for proximal objects even when they are offered the same information about both objects (Trope and Liberman, 2003; Eyal, Liberman and Trope, 2008).

These mental representations of information could exist as predictions, memories, and speculations that influence our emotions, and guide our evaluations, decisions and behaviours (Trope and Liberman, 2010). Depending on psychological distance to information and objects, consumers behave differently and make different decisions based on how they construct and consequently how much weight and value they give to the information and objects around them. A large body of research suggests that abstract information, compared with concrete information, tends to exert more impact on representations and judgments of psychologically distant events, while the reverse holds when the focal judgment is about psychologically near events. For example, it is found that consumers tend to assign inherent value to represent objects perceived as distal, and therefore the abstract information induced from a distant perspective focuses on the desirability of goals. Whereas consumers are more distracted from following the intrinsic value of objects from external constraints and circumstances when the objects pertain to more proximal points, and therefore the concrete information induced from a proximal perspective revolves around the feasibility of actions (Liberman and Trope, 1998; Fiedler, 2007; Kruglanski and Higgins, 2013, p.190). Research further suggests such difference in value assigned changes in goal-oriented consumer behaviour. For example, when planning future events, we consider desirability of the outcome first rather than feasibility of doing so. Moreover, we can postpone or even change our plans. This makes us consider less detailed and concrete low-level information (Trope and Liberman, 2003).

In summary, the above discussions show that human behaviour is a result of mental state and the direct social surroundings we experience (Trope and Liberman, 2010). Psychological distance systematically influences consumer behaviour by changing the way they process information existing in the social surroundings. Such influence on the way consumers construe and process information is universal under different psychological distance dimensions (i.e. social, temporal, physical distance and uncertainty).

2.2.4 Psychological distance and CRP buying

As aforementioned, this thesis seeks to fill the research gap in knowledge by bringing the perceived distance between self and cause into focus. A social cause can be perceived as distant or close and therefore the concept of psychological distance or closeness provides an important factor in understanding the underlying psychological process of buying CRPs (Lieberman et al., 2007). This section thus seeks to discuss the legitimacy of psychological distance's use in explaining CRP buying.

Previous studies have given attention to personal relevance of a social cause (Broderick et al., 2003; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004; Hajjat, 2003; Trimble and Rifon, 2006; Lafferty and Edmondson, 2009). Although some overlap may exist between psychological distance and personal relevance, they are essentially different. The fundamental difference lies in that psychological distance is concerned with the subjective distance consumers perceive between them and the social causes, which focuses on the alternative experience to reality accessible by CRP buyers (Trope and Liberman, 2010), whereas personal relevance addresses the extent to which a given cause is personally important to that individual (Inoue and Kent, 2014; Hajjat, 2003). Personal relevance serves as a consequence of the perceived distance rather than the distant or close relation itself. Psychological distance, on the other hand, is the *perceived distance between self and cause in consumers' psychological space*, and is treated as a key construct in *how people process relevant information of CRM in making CRP buying decisions* (Trope and Liberman, 2010; Liberman et al., 2007).

Applying the common rule of psychological distance, a consumer perceives a social cause as distal or proximal when it is removed towards or away from the reference point 'self' and their immediate situation (here and now). As noted in the last section of discussions, a CRM cue (stimuli), thus, may be construed differently in consumers' minds depending on the distance they perceive toward the cause (Trope and Liberman, 2010; Eyal, Liberman and Trope, 2012; Kim, Chang and Li, 2008). A cause perceived to be distant would be mentally represented on a more abstract level due to a lack of information readily available for consumers and a more proximal one would be represented in a more detailed fashion. With CRP purchases, consumers could have less or no knowledge about the details of the causes associated with the products.

Therefore, the lack of information on certain aspects of social cause leaves consumers no option but to know them from a higher level of categorization. For example, a cause could be mentally represented only as an abstract idea of ‘an environmental issue’ if the individuals are offered no information associated with the product.

Since consumers cannot directly experience the social cause or the achievement from the donation, they would have to rely on such mental representation of CRM cues associated with cause and put them together as memory or speculation to predict and evaluate the cause in the CRM programme and make a CRP choice (Alba, Hutchinson, and Lynch, 1991; Lynch Jr., and Zauberan, 2007; Trope and Liberman, 2010, p.440). Consumers process these construed CRM stimuli and cues by matching them with the events in their lives using self as a reference point (Martin et al., 2013). For example, if an individual is familiar with a cause and hence more information available about the CRM campaign, they will form a concrete and detailed representation of cues induced by perceived proximal relation to the cause; it is thus easier for consumers to match experience and turn the information to make it self-relevant which people may pay more attention to (Liberman, et al., 2007; Pronin et al., 2008). For example, it would be easier for UK consumers to self-reference ‘carbon footprint protection in London’ than ‘environmental issue’. The psychological distance between self and cause thus decides how efficiently the CRM information can be self-referenced, interpreted and utilised in consumers’ minds for buying decisions (Liberman and Trope, 1998; Trope and Liberman, 2010).

In addition, the influence of multiple distance dimensions is of particular concern in CRM. It is because CRP buying is a combination of pro-social giving and economic buying behaviour (e.g. Ross et al, 1992). Indeed, consumers’ motivation to buy a CRP is to provide donation and help to worthy causes (Barone et al., 2000). Research has found that social distance toward the people in need accounts for the differences in how much a consumer is willing to devote to pro-social activities and also creates a different variety of feelings toward a charitable cause, even by the same individual (Laaksonen, 1994). For example, it is commonly known that people are more inclined to help those who are in their social circle (Tajfel, 1982; Clark, Mills and Corcoran, 1989; Hewstone and Jaspars, 1982). Similarly, in the CRM context, one could expect to see that consumers’ perceived social distance towards the cause beneficiaries would

influence their decisions to support and buy the CRP. Research has documented that the closer people are to others, the more relevant they consider the cause, which in turn generates more intention to donate or get involved in helping with the cause (e.g. Broderick et al., 2003; Grau and Folse, 2007; Hitaji, 2003; Bigne-Alcaniz et al., 2010).

Nevertheless, CRP buying is different from making donations to social causes. Donation is usually targeted at very specific goals, either helping certain people, certain objects, or certain events. Therefore, people's motivation is 'purer' or more altruistically offering help to others (e.g. Grau and Folse, 2007). CRM, on the other hand, involves commercial elements that are associated with a brand. CRP buying is thus not only limited to the pro-social giving dimension. Consumers not only buy a CRP to support a social cause but also to gain the acquisition benefits from the purchase. Hence, although social distance is highly relevant in CRP buying, CRP buying involves other multiple dimensions of psychological distance, which are equally important to be taken into consideration (Zhang and Wang, 2009; Kim, Zhang, and Li, 2008).

Firstly, CRP buying is relevant to the economic decision of buying now and helping a cause at in the future, which involves a cost and benefit trade-off. In CRM, consumers purchase the product in order to help the social cause beneficiaries. The cost would be the price or in some cases the augmented price they pay towards the CRP in return for benefiting others and a satisfaction derived from helping (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). There is a temporal gap between buying now and obtaining results in the future. In other words, time plays an important role in CRP buying because consumers do not make decisions for the immediate situation without thinking about the consequences in the future (Liberman and Trope, 1998). The theory of psychological distance studies the psychological consequences of time perspective, and in this research, referring to the buying decision as a function of consumers' temporal distance to the social cause (Trope and Liberman, 2003). Secondly, social cause CRM products are associated with causes aiming to help people or events in spatially closer or distal places (e.g. UNICEF's call to help Syrian children). Thirdly, CRP buying is highly associated with consumers' perceived certainty with the campaign outcome. CRM is fundamentally commercial, and therefore inevitably there is a conflict between doing good for society and making more profit (Barone et al., 2000, 2007). Extensive research has shown that

because CRM is a donation-based promotion, customers could have doubts that direct donations would actually reach the people in need (Ellen et al., 2000; Barone et al., 2007; Grau and Folse, 2007; Gupta and Pirsch, 2006). Such a sense of uncertainty may discourage people from doing good (e.g. donating to a cause). Therefore, the uncertainty is another dimension consumers would consider when they purchase CRM products. These dimensions of CRM are closely tied to the concept of psychological distance and therefore determine how close or far away CRM could be represented in front of consumers. Consumers could either feel psychologically close or distant to social causes when the CRM cues are presented in a nearer or more distant form.

To summarise, because psychological distance serves as a key determinant in how consumers process relevant information about CRM and also because all four distance dimensions are highly relevant to such a process, the role of psychological distance needs to be explored and examined thoroughly in order to gain a deeper understanding of consumers' CRP buying.

3. Psychological Distance in CRP Buying Decisions

3.1 CRP buying antecedents

3.1.1 Consumer perceptions of CRM

A common marketing strategy is to link a product with an object that can process positive attributes. For example, in event sponsorship, a product is often related to an event that is well liked by the public. CRM, on the other hand, typically pairs a product with an NPO or a social cause. Therefore, some attributes belonging to a CRM campaign must influence the consumers to hold a positive perception to buy the pairing product (Rifon, Choi, Trimble and Li, 2004; Nan and Heo, 2007).

The first set of CRP buying antecedents is consumer perception variables, as previously identified. In general, they are defined as the consumer perceptions towards aspects in the company-cause relations (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). It has been reported repeatedly as important in forming positive consumer responses to CRM (e.g. Myers and Kwon, 2013; Hajjat, 2003; Lafferty et al., 2004; Simmons and Becker-

Olsen, 2006; Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Basil and Herr, 2006; Washburn, Till and Priluck, 2000, 2004; Dickinson and Barker, 2007; Cui, Trent, Sullivan and Matiru, 2003; Nan and Heo, 2007; Grau and Folse, 2007). Bendapudi et al. (1996, p. 37) suggest that the helping decision typically begins with the potential helpers' perception that the social cause is worth helping. In a more recent study, Koschate-Fischer et al. (2012) also show consumer perception of the CRM campaign as one aspect in influencing buying intention of CRPs.

Extensive research has emerged investigating the factors that could influence purchase intention of CRPs in this respect. Among these studies, the main effect of *consumer perception* toward CRM has been studied (e.g. Hou et al., 2008; Barone et al., 2000; Westberg, 2004; Speed and Thompson, 2000; Royd-Taylor, 2007; Van den Brink et al., 2006; Gupta and Pirsch, 2006). Much of the research has focused on the perceived *cause fit* with the cause-related campaign (e.g. Nan and Heo, 2007; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004; Gupta and Pirsch, 2006). For example, Gupta and Pirsch (2006, p316) show that consumers' intention to purchase CRM products is enhanced by the amount of fit between the company and cause characteristics and their own. In addition, studies have found that consumers' perceived participation effort could influence helping behaviour (e.g. Henderson et al., 2012; Olivola and Shafir, 2011; 2013). For example, Olivola and Shafir (2013) argue that the symbolic value of making an effort for pro-social causes adds meaning to the achievement and increases people's motivation to participate. Based on such an argument and findings, this thesis argues *participation effort* in CRM would have a similar effect on purchase intention. Moreover, *familiarity* with CRM campaigns has been included in the consideration of predicting buying of a CRP (e.g. Grau, Garretson and Pirsch, 2007). For instance, NPO awareness has been proven to affect consumer attitudes and intention to buy (e.g. Lafferty, 2007). Last, due to the ambiguity of some CRM strategies, scepticism about whether CRM campaigns are ethical has risen within consumers (e.g. Folse et al., 2010). This has resulted in negative consumer responses including lower purchase intention of cause-related products (e.g. Barone et al., 2007, Fole et al., 2010). Consumers' perception of *credibility* of a CRM campaign is therefore an important factor to look into. As argued, a general model of consumer perception in the CRM context views the antecedents of CRP purchase intention as derived from: (1) perceived cause fit; (2) perceived

credibility of CRM; (3) perceived participation effort; (4) familiarity of the cause-related campaign. Each of the four components is described more fully below.

3.1.1.1 Perceived cause fit

Perceived cause fit refers to the overall perceived congruity or connection between the sponsored cause and the company's product features (Lafferty et al., 2004; Basil and Herr, 2006; Simmons and Becker-Olsen, 2006; Barone et al., 2007; Gupta and Pirsch, 2006; Precejus and Olsen, 2004; Samu and Wymer, 2009). Scholars have discussed different aspects of cause fit (Ellen et al., 2000; Varadajan and Menon, 1988). Cause fit has been considered whether the image of a brand or a company levels up the image of a charity or an NPO (e.g. Zdravkovic, Magnusson and Stanley 2010). Some have taken it as the fitness between the core business of a company and the core causes an NPO is serving society (e.g. Basil and Herr, 2006). Researchers also argue that the target markets of cause and product should match (e.g. Zdravkovic, Magnusson and Stanley 2010). Researchers suggest that the fit between two entities could be conceptualized as originating from multiple sources such as feature similarities and image consistency (Park, Milberg and Lawson, 1991, in Nan and Heo, 2007), or sharing of core values (Benezra, 1996). Despite the differences in the previous studies' focus points, researchers suggest that the perceived cause fit regards whether or not CRM campaigns closely integrate the value of the social cause (Gray, 2000; Trimble and Rifon, 2006) and considers the overall perception of an alliance between the consumer's pre-existing attitudes toward the CRP and social cause (Basil and Herr, 2006; O'Doherty, 2010; Lafferty et al., 2004; Simmons and Becker-Olsen, 2006; Bigne-Alcaniz et al., 2012; Gorton et al., 2013; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004; Hamlin and Wilson, 2004).

The degree of the fit between a cause and a product varies. Cause and product could sometimes be deemed as unfit - "If you have to explain the connection, the fit between cause and company is likely poor" (Berglind and Nataka, 2005, p.452). For example, a pack of crisps and a cause of children's health could be considered unfit because crisps are perceived to be an unhealthy food. A cause-product association could also be perceived as a high fit or a low fit. For example, Home Depot supporting homeless

people and Revlon cosmetic products linking anti domestic violence charities are considered high fit. The fit is considered lower under the opposite condition (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006). Perceived incongruence between cause and product could lead to a failure of CRM campaigns, and in some cases more serious consequences for business. For example, the collaboration between Sunbeam and the American Medical Association received overwhelming criticism and consumer scepticism. Consumers questioned why a not-for-profit medical organisation could be associated with the company's products such as toasters and eggbeaters (Berglind and Nataka, 2005).

Associating a product with an object possessing positive attributes is a common marketing strategy (Nan and Heo, 2007; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004). For example, celebrity endorsement is a means to associate a product with a well-regarded public figure. Similarly, brand extension strategy links a product with a reputable brand. In any collaborative effort, the characteristics of both parties become part of the equation (Varadarajan, 1986). "Fit" between the two entities in the relationship is therefore regarded as a critical issue to consumers' buying decisions (Nan and Heo, 2007). Research shows that favourable consumer attitudes toward a brand extension will be generated when the fit between a firm's core brand offerings and a brand extension is perceived as good (Aaker and Keller, 1990). In other words, for consumers to have a positive attitude toward an extended brand, the extension and core brand offerings are considered to be similar, typical and related (Bottomley and Holden, 2001; Boush and Loken, 1991; Broniarczyk and Alba, 1994; Dacin and Smith, 1994; Herr, Farquhar, and Fazio, 1996 in Basil and Herr, 2006). It is suggested that people's preexisting affect associated with one subject could be transferred to a closely related object which people may not have affect to (Nan and Heo, 2007, p.66; Shimp, 1981), and thus if an extended product were favourably evaluated, the preference of the associated brand would be enhanced (Pracejus and Olsen, 2004, p.636; Simonin and Ruth, 1998; Basil and Herr, 2006). Studies also show that a high celebrity spokesperson and product fit leads to a more favorable attitude (Kamins and Gupta, 1994; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004). Sponsorship literatures show that companies' sponsorship with events should be high fit otherwise consumers will influence consumer responses (Simmons and Becker-Olsen, 2004; Speed and Thompson, 2000).

Theoretically, researchers argue, similar to sponsorship, endorsement or brand extensions strategies (e.g. Aaker and Keller, 1990 1993), that the fit concept could be applied to CRM studies (Basil and Herr, 2006; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004). CRM is similar to these domains in that brands are intentionally associating themselves with some other object in order to improve brand performance along some dimension. Across all the domains mentioned above, fit has generally been found to facilitate transfer of positives from an object (celebrity, core brand etc.) to the object-associated brand (Pracejus and Olsen, 2004, p.636). In the CRM context, it means that favourable perception toward a cause can result in favorable attitude toward a company or brand when the product has a high fit with the cause. Findings from the above studies suggest that consumers respond positively towards firms with high level of perceived relatedness because they view the actions of firms as “appropriate” (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006).

A lack of fit in CRM partners, however, could result in consumers’ negative attitude towards the fit as “prior attitudes will be integrated with the new information provided by the alliance, thus influencing the evaluation towards the relationship” (Lafferty et al., 2004, p.513). To illustrate, many responses are based on the perceived motivations of CRM campaigns, such as whether it is self-interested or public interested (Samu and Wymer, 2009; Stuart, 2004). Menon and Kahn (2003) suggest that consumers rely on heuristics receiving information on the cause campaign messages to develop their perceived company motivations; so, when the level of fit between cause and product is high, the messages make sense which in turn generates positive thoughts of consumers’ about the company. Moreover, researchers suggest if the cause-brand fit is inconsistent in some fashion (e.g., an oil company linked with preservation of wildlife), this could trigger an attributional search by consumers as to why these two are partners (Mandler, 1982; Eagly and Chaiken, 1993; Kamins and Gupta, 1994). When the cause fit is low, consumers will likely engage in attributional processing leading to a greater attribution to external motivations and in turn less positive consumer responses including purchase intention (Basil and Herr, 2006; Simmons and Beck-Olsen, 2006; Myers and Kwon, 2012, p.77).

Prior research has consistently found a strong relation between perceived cause fit and consumer response in CRM (e.g. Aaker and Keller, 1990; Rifon et al., 2004; Simonin

and Ruth, 1998; Hou et al., 2008). Both real life market response and academic empirical work have proven that companies should ensure the social cause they choose to support fits the associated products and the company (e.g. Berglind and Nataka, 2005; Bcker-Olsen et al., 2006). Studies find that consumers perceive it appropriate for a company to associate itself with a social cause that fits the company (Landreth, 2002; Nan and Heo, 2007; Drunwright, 1996; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004; Gray, 2000; Andreasen, 1996). The level of fit between the company and cause is found to be able to influence consumers' response to CRM products ultimately facilitating purchasing behaviour (Nan and Heo, 2007; Hou et al., 2008; Lattery et al., 2004; Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005). Typically, donating to a high fit cause is found to evoke positive consumer reaction towards the company and an increase in choice possibility (Lichtenstein, Drumwright and Braig, 2004; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004; Samu and Wymer, 2009) and more positive evaluation of the CRM products and campaigns (Gupta and Pirsch, 2006; Nan and Heo, 2007; Westberg, 2004; Van den Brink, et al., 2006; He et al., 2009).

Menon and Kahn (2003) found that higher congruence between the sponsoring brand and the social issue led to favourable ratings for cause promotions when elaboration on the sponsorship activity is facilitated. Similarly, Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) suggested that consumers evaluate the company more favourably when a CSR activity is relevant to the company's existing products. For instance, respondents evaluated a company that manufactures calculators more favourably when it supported fair overseas manufacturing practices rather than women's and minority rights. (Yoon, Gürhan-Canli and Schwarz, 2006, p.378).

Research also shows a direct effect of cause fit on purchase decisions of CRP. The study by Gupta and Pirsch (2006) demonstrates that in CRM, greater fit between cause and product will result in subsequent buying actions. Pracejus and Olsen (2004) extended previous research findings using choice-based conjoint. Their two studies involving 329 respondents show that fit between brand and charity can impact choice. More specifically, they analysed consumer choice on two different theme parks (Study 1), hotels (Study 2) supporting charities and concluded that high fit between theme park/hotel-charity would receive more choice and 5-10 times more than value of donation to a low fit social cause even with less favourable features such as poor

quality food and longer driving distance. Furthermore, the study by Hamlin and Wilson (2004) suggests cause fit is the single most important factor determining CRM effect in low involvement FCMG products. However, their study shows that the effect may be just a result of primitive customer heuristic. Based on the above discussion, it can be proposed that:

H1.1: Perceived cause fit will increase consumers' intention to buy CRPs.

3.1.1.2 Perceived CRM credibility

The CRM credibility construct is similar to source credibility (Aaker and Brown, 1972). Credibility has been discussed extensively in previous research on marketing and advertising. Early research focused on individual credibility, such as celebrities and spokespersons (e.g. Hovland, Janis and Kelley, 1953; Kelman, 1958; McCracken, 1989). In their influential research of conceptualization of credibility, Hovland et al. (1953) proposed two dimensions underlying the concept of source credibility: *expertise and trustworthiness* (Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2009; Erdem and Swait, 2004; Goldsmith et al., 2000; Trimble and Rifon, 2006). Expertise is “the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertion” and trustworthiness is defined as “the degree of confidence in the communicator’s intent to communicate the assertions he considers most valid” (Hovland et al., 1952, p.21). Research suggests that a communication could be deemed persuasive if the messages it consists of are from credible sources (Hovland et al., 1953; Hovland and Weiss, 1951, 1952). It is further evidenced that a highly credible source of message would produce more persuasion toward an advocacy message than a low-credibility source (e.g. Kelman, 1958; Maddux and Rogers, 1980; Mills and Harvey, 1972 in Inoue and Kent, 2014, p.623).

In line with the implications of the earlier research, corporate credibility is defined as the extent to which consumers believe a company can design and deliver products and services that satisfy customer needs (Fombrun, 1996; Goldsmith et al., 2000; Lafferty, 2007; Newell and Goldsmith, 2001). In the market place, each individual customer

assesses companies' activities and products and has certain perceptions and attitudes toward a company. Marketers believe the function of such perceptions and attitudes serves as company credibility (Burke, 2011; Highhouse, Brooks and Gregarus, 2009). Companies with good credibility could attract more people to do business with them (Bromiley, 2000; Carmeli, Gilat and Waldman, 2007), have higher financial performance (Dube, 2009; Preston and O'Bannon, 1997) and have higher degree of employee retention (Greening and Turban, 2000) and customer retention (Kumar, Peterson and Leone, 2007). Company credibility for being socially responsible is thus deemed important for business. Similarly, building and keeping up favorable company CRM credibility is arguably an essential task for establishing any type of CRM activity.

A CRM strategy typically involves a mutual effort given by a company and an NPO. Consumers would firstly expect the company to donate to the social cause and, secondly, would expect the NPO to effectively allocate the resources. Therefore, both of the parties' trustworthiness and expertise would matter to consumers for delivering a successful CRM campaign (Lafferty, 2007; Lafferty and Goldsmith, 1999; Inoue and Kent, 2014; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002). Accordingly, CRM credibility can be defined as the extent to which a consumer perceives that the CRM allies express sincerity and goodwill (trustworthiness) and have the knowledge and ability (expertise) to fulfill the helping claim (Newell and Goldsmith, 2001; Petty and Wegener, 1998; Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2009).

The credibility issue with the CRM alliance partners is highly relevant in CRM. Consumers have no direct connection between those who receive the benefit from the CRP sales contribution. Therefore they rely on the credible company and the NPO to pass on the gesture and also effectively allocate the donations. Additionally, it is reported that consumers could be sceptical about CRM campaigns due to an initial intuitive belief that CRM strategies are motivated by egoistic interest rather than a true desire for social commitment (Dean, 2003; Webb and Mohr, 1998; Speed and Thompson, 2000). Consequently, consumers would easily question the motives of doing CRM campaigns if they cannot trust the company involved and believe in its ability. Research shows that more sincere inferences are drawn when a social cause is supported by a credible company (Yoon et al., 2006).

Moreover, not only are the involved companies expected to show they are socially concerned; consumers also evaluate the other party in the CRM campaign, i.e. the NPO for their actions. Consumers implicitly donate to the social cause by buying the associated product. NPOs receive donations from the sales that consumers contribute in CRM campaigns. Therefore consumers would naturally consider whether their donation is worthwhile by looking at whether the CRM campaign would be conducted satisfactorily and if the NPO linked to the campaign is trustworthy. Once consumers question it, it is even more difficult for NPOs to recover. For example, the Chinese Red Cross has recently got involved in a scandal: a board member of the organisation showed off her expensive belongings on a social networking site. People questioned whether all Red Cross donations had been spent on those really in need, rather than being enjoyed by individuals for hedonic purposes. According to a recent non-profit donation study, whether an NPO is deemed trustworthy is the primary factor that decides people's donation behaviour (Snipes and Oswald, 2010). Researchers suggest that desire to donate to a social cause might be strengthened by the person's trust in the NPO (Bennett and Gabriel, 2003, Bennett, 2009). A report from NetworkForGood (2006) also suggests that individuals are more likely to donate to large well-known NPOs because they are perceived as more trustworthy (cited in Bennett, 2009). Following the same logic, consumers' CRP choice would arguably be affected by their perceptions of trustworthiness of the NPO and social cause involved given they are contributing to the CRM donation.

Furthermore, it is reported that consumers judge a CRM by the results of the campaign (Trimble and Rifon, 2006; Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2009; Rifon et al., 2004). More experienced and capable organisations are preferred in participating in CRM (Till and Nowak, 2000; Goldsmith and Lafferty, 2000). It is argued that people take others' behaviours at face value and attribute it dispositionally when the behaviours are by those about whom they have little prior information (Yoon et al., 2006). Even when such behaviours could be explained, such correspondent inferences still exist. Therefore the pre-attitude would be difficult to remove if consumers perceive the companies and NPOs are not credible (Gilbert and Jones, 1986; Jones, 1979; Yoon et al., 2006). Based on the aforementioned arguments, CRP buyers would need the trust in the CRM allies and their ability to deliver the claim so their kind gestures do not go to waste.

In this regard, the literature suggests that perceived CRM credibility is an essential determinant in improving consumers' purchase intentions of CRPs (e.g. Lafferty, 2007; Goldsmith et al., 2000; Burke, 2011; Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005; Trimble and Rifon, 2006). Lafferty and Goldsmith (1999) found that company credibility strongly influences consumers' attitudes toward the company brand and purchase intentions. It has a direct effect on both variables while the other aspect they examined – that of the highly paid product endorser – only had indirect effect on the two variables, mediated by attitudes toward advertisement. Some researchers found that perceived credibility could influence consumer attitudes (e.g. Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). Other examples include the results of positive relationships between perceived credibility and purchase intentions (Winters, 1988; Goldsmith, Lafferty and Newell, 2000). The study by Lafferty (2007) on CRM shows directly that consumers are more likely to purchase a CRP from a high credibility company than a low one. Thus, the following hypothesis is posited:

H1.2: Perceived CRM credibility will increase consumers' intention to buy CRPs.

3.1.1.3 Familiarity of CRM

Familiarity of CRM discusses the general awareness consumers have for CRM campaign entities such as involved company, NPO and campaign content (Bendapudi et al., 1996). The general awareness of the CRM campaign is posited to influence consumers' purchase intention of CRPs (Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005; Lafferty and Edmondson, 2009).

Consumers' perceived familiarity of a product or a brand is a result of the knowledge that accumulates over time through some form of marketing communications (e.g., Alba and Hutchinson, 1987 in Lafferty and Edmondson, 2009). Research shows that familiarity influences intention mainly by producing differential effects in information processing and brand evaluations (e.g. Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Bettman and Sujan, 1987; Laroche, Kim and Zhou, 1996; Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005; Hoyer and Brown, 1990; Hardesty, Carlson, and Bearden 2002). Familiarity of objects has an important impact on information search, recall and utilization (Brucks, 1985; Alba and

Hutchinson, 1987; Harlam, Krishna, Lehmann and Mela, 1995). More specifically, consumers associate familiar things more extensively in the brain. Therefore they are more easily accessed from memory (Fazio, Powell, and Williams, 1989), and will have stronger effect on outcome variables (Faircloth, Capella, and Alford, 2001). Moreover, it is suggested that people normally hold more confidence and certainty towards a familiar product than an unfamiliar product because they have stronger attitudes, which are based on direct experience rather than indirect experience (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005; Fazio and Zanna, 1981). It is also found that when information exists between familiar and unfamiliar objects, people anchor on more easily accessed information in the memory before they adjust for the less salient information (Tversky and Kahneman, 1973; Taylor and Fiske, 1978, cited in Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005).

The same logic applies in the CRP buying in CRM context. The more familiar the CRM campaign is perceived to be, the easier and quicker consumers can connect to memory and retrieve information when the cause-company alliance cue is presented (Lafferty, Goldsmith and Hult, 2004; Lafferty and Edmondson, 2009). As such, if a consumer finds the CRM parties, i.e. the brand and the social cause, to be familiar, it is likely that he or she would anchor on them because the information is salient and would adjust his or her attitude towards them accordingly (Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005).

Much marketing research has found familiarity to a company and a brand influence consumers' attitude and purchase intentions (e.g. Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005; Sundaram and Webster, 1999; Harlam, Lehmann and Mela, 1995; Kent and Allen, 1994; Biswas, 1992). For example, in the study by Hoyer and Brown (1990), consumers chose products from brands that they were familiar with although the products were lower in quality than those of unfamiliar brands. Sujan (1985) and Hoch and Ha (1986) found that consumers are more familiar with the price information of a more familiar product and have more confidence in the pricing judgment and product choice. Lafferty et al. (2004) found that high familiar brands and causes enhanced perceptions of CRPs, which in turn produced a more positive effect on the attitude and purchase intention towards CRM. In pro-social studies, familiarity has been shown as a precondition for pro-social behaviour (Bendapudi et al., 1996). Research also

explains that familiarity generates the ability to understand the environment and the NPO consequently presents a framework for expectations about the target's future actions (Askool and Nakata, 2010, p.1058). Thus, it is expected that in CRM the familiarity consumers have for either the CRM campaign or the social cause can positively influence purchase intention. Therefore,

H1.3: Familiarity of CRM will increase consumers' intention to buy CRPs.

3.1.1.4 Perceived participation effort

Perceived participation effort for CRM refers to the amount of effort that would cost consumers time, energy and physical endeavour for helping a social cause (Ellen et al., 2000; Inoue and Kent, 2014; Olivola and Shafir, 2013). A common view on human behaviour motivation considers effort to be a deterrent (Heath, 1999; Kohn, 1999; Benabou and Tirole, 2003; Hull, 1943). We typically avoid negative experiences, such as going through trouble and making effort but welcome positive experience, such as pleasure (e.g. Olivola and Shafir, 2013, p.91). In contrast to this widely held view, both in pro-social and marketing reality, there are situations where people deliberately avoid positive experiences and actively seek out trouble and effort. Physical and mental participation effort has long been practised for helping behaviours such as generating charitable donations (Olivola and Shafir, 2013). Examples can be shown such as funding through long distance marathon running and Ice Bucket Challenge, which gained global popularity in 2014.

In CRM, consumers could participate in helping a social cause by buying an associated product in two main ways, either passive or active (Landreth, 2002; O'Doherty, 2010). Passive participation would occur at the point of purchase. Consumers can buy a CRP and count the buying as a means to support the social cause. Active participation would require a higher level of effort. In CRM practice, there is a gradual increase in such requirement (Hou et al., 2008). Marketers seek ways to engage consumers in the product and campaigns to enhance brand equity to eventually increase loyalty and performance (Cornwell and Coote, 2005). For example, Innocent Smoothie teams up with Age UK and promises to donate 10% of

the sales to help older people surviving winter. Buying a bottle of smoothie would be considered as offering help. Consumers could, one step further, knit hats for the smoothie bottles to attract in-store CRP buyers. In academia, CRM research has called to pay attention to such phenomena. Although a study by Ellen et al. (2000) found that donations requiring higher level of effort were perceived more positively, the research in this regard is still scarce and thus needs examination.

Social psychologists explain such effort by the fact that it often relates to the value of the goal or of the reinforcement itself (Lewis, 1951). Copious evidence shows that hard-earned accomplishments and the effort made in the course of goal achievement provides people with meaning and the value of the act (e.g. Kaufman, 1999; Loewenstein, 1999). Furthermore, the presence of a barrier between a subject and a desired goal increases the positive valence of that goal (Wright, 1937; in Lewis, 1951, p.186). For example, research found that objects earned from hard work are valued over those obtained without effort (Loewenstein and Issacharoff, 1994). Wright's (1937) experiment has indicated anticipated effort enhances the preference or incentive value of a goal. This is not only true in situations where hard work and effort is for personal benefit (e.g. working hard for self career promotion, Hoffman, McCabe, Shachat and Smith, 1994) but also in situations where pro-social contribution is involved (e.g. Olivola and Shafir, 2013). Despite some research showing that having to earn money and other resources decreases sharing (e.g. Hoffman et al., 1994; Kameda, Takezawa, Tindale and Smith, 2002), others found that the prospect of enduring pain and exerting effort for a pro-social cause can promote contributions to the cause. In other words, the amount of effort required in the fundraising actually highlights the value of believing in helping social causes and makes people's donations more meaningful. The meaningfulness and symbolic value derived from overcoming costs for supporting causes has an important utilitarian impact on shaping pro-social behaviours (Olivola and Shafir, 2013; Cormack, 2002; Fields and Owens, 2004; Ariely, Kamenica and Prelec, 2008). The researchers' study also provided evidence that people contribute more to a pro-social cause when the participation required pain and effort rather than enjoyment and effortlessness (Olivola and Shafir, 2013).

The evidence thus sheds light on the argument that if making an effort (e.g. running a marathon) to raise money for a social cause adds positive value and meaning to the fundraising process, then this could be transferred to the CRM context. Although much less compared to donation or fundraising behaviours, CRP buyers' effort put in to helping the social cause arguably can still have impact on their purchase intentions of CRPs. It is argued that effort can influence preference for an object depending on whether the goal is easy to obtain or not (Loewenstein and Issacharoff, 1994). Moreover, Festinger and Aronson (1960) suggested that effortful activity could be preferred when there was a sufficient reward. In CRM, buyers are exposed to CRM messages of corporations' promises. In a sense, the goal of buying CRP is easier to achieve from the consumers' point of view, as they are not the real actors. In addition, CRM campaigns contain messages such as what kind of benefit would be given to the donation recipient. Therefore, such reward would almost always be highlighted for consumers at the point of their purchase.

Furthermore, it is indicated that such participation or effort required in cause activities would reaffirm consumers' personal values and "their sense of responsibility" and stimulate them to purchase (Ross et al., 1991; Hou et al., 2008; Ellen et al., 2000). Empirical support was found by Ellen et al. (2000) in that CRM donation campaigns with higher levels of consumer engagement were perceived more positively to consumers' purchase intention. Hou et al.'s (2008) survey on 376 Chinese consumers also suggests that the higher degree of cause participation consumers perceive, the more likely they are to purchase the CRM product. Landreth (2002) also directly found that higher level of participation effort results in higher purchase intention compared to passive participation. More specifically, the more effort consumers are asked to make for improving the cause, the more they would make to purchase associated products. In other words, consumers may buy those CRPs that require salient participation effort for the cause because they would deem the prospect of going through trouble for a cause is meaningful. Accordingly,

***H1.4:** Perceived participation effort will positively influence consumers' purchase intention of CRPs.*

3.1.2 Consumer characteristic attributes

The other set of buying antecedents, consumer characteristic attributes, is defined as donation-related consumer characteristics which reflect consumers' attitudes and motives towards their giving behaviour (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). In investigating consumer characteristic attributes, this thesis responds to calls in the literature to analyse how individual differences may alter the effectiveness of CRM (Chang, 2008).

A focus purely on consumer perception to the CRM initiative is limited, as it does not necessarily direct to purchase intention, or purchase behaviour of CRPs (Gorton et al., 2013). Even when a person thinks positively towards cause-brand alliance, it does not necessarily lead to buying because of intervention from certain other factors including consumer characteristic attributes, such as the degree of their emotional responses (Strahilevita and Myers, 1998; Ajzen and Fishbein, 1977; Barone et al., 2000; Meyer, 1991; Kim, Kim and Han, 2005; Van den Brink et al., 2006; Olivola, et al., 2013). In addition, scholars argue that individuals differ in the extent of their personal interest, values or needs (Zaichkowsky, 1985; Antil, 1984; Celsi and Olson, 1988; Schlegelmilch, Love and Diamantopoulos, 1997), and therefore perceive a product distinctively (Van den Brink et al., 2006; Sridhar, 2007; Quester and Lim, 2003). Following this argument, this thesis also examines the influence of consumers' emotional state and social value on cause-related product buying. Overall, the components consisting of consumer characteristic attributes are: (1) altruism (2) emotional intensity.

3.1.2.1 Altruism

Extensive studies have been done to explain why people sometimes act primarily to benefit others rather than themselves (e.g. Penner, 2004; Penner, Dovidio and Piliavin, 2005; Batson, 1991). They have found that people who are more likely to act pro-socially may tend towards an altruistic personality (Steele et al., 2008; Penner, Fritzsche, Craiger and Freifeld, 1995; Penner et al., 2005; Coke et al., 1978; Batson et al., 1981; Toi and Batson, 1982; Andreoni, 2006).

Altruism, as a psychological term, is defined in various ways in the literature. It is defined as a cognitive activity to help others (e.g. Brewer, 2003), as an attitude (Frydman et al., 1990), as a motive (Sober, 1992), as a helping behaviour (Schwartz, 1970) and as a desire (Karylowski, 1982) to improve another's condition (Ranganathan and Henley, 2008). In pro-social literature, it is regarded as "global and relatively enduring evaluations with regard to helping or assisting other people" (Webb, Green and Brashear, 2000 in Ranganathan and Henley, 2008, p.3). Research suggests that pro-social behaviour is driven by altruistic value with motivational goals of appreciation, tolerance and protection for the welfare of someone else (Schwartz, 1992; Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2009; Batson et al., 2007; Basil and Weber, 2006). By helping others, people's reward for helping includes "fame, gratitude from the victim and relatives, the intrinsic pleasure and self-satisfaction derived from the act of helping, the avoidance of guilt and even money" (Gross, 2005, p.437). Therefore, altruism is usually seen as an intrinsic determinant or motivation of people's pro-social behaviour (e.g. Sargeant, 1999; Schroeder, Penner and Dovidio, 1995; Steele et al., 2008; Gillespie and Hillyer, 2002; Glynn et al., 2002; Oswald, 1977; Dovidio and Penner, 2005; Penner et al., 1995), such as in blood donation (e.g. Reid and Wood, 2008; Steele et al., 2008), helping behaviour (e.g. Loewenstein and Small, 2007; Tang et al., 2007), and charitable giving (e.g. Anderoni and Miller, 2002; Kelly, Morgan and Coule, 2014; Eveland and Crutchfield, 2007).

Researchers suggest that pro-social behaviour by nature involves exchange between self-interest and society. Unlike typical direct and immediate market transactions that purchase behaviours represent, pro-social behaviours encompass situations in which the exchange process is indirect and perhaps separated by long periods of time (Basil and Webb, 2006, p.62). Typically, such exchange is embedded in behaviours that benefit others or society in general rather than oneself directly (Marshall, 1998). It is argued that although purchasing a commercial product to acquire utilitarian or hedonic benefits, consumers still need some kind of social motivation in order to participate (Strahilevitz and Myers, 1998; Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). In their seminal paper on CRM, Ross et al. (1992; 1993) stipulate supporting social causes by purchasing CRPs is one form of pro-social helping behaviour. Altruism is clearly an influencer (Bekkers and Wiepking, 2011) in CRP buying because consumers support social causes beyond their own self-interest (Basil and Webb, 2006). Basil and Weber (2006)

conducted a national survey with 6065 participants and showed that consumers' support for CRM is motivated by their altruistic value. Therefore,

H1.5: Altruistic consumers will be more likely to purchase a CRP.

3.1.2.2 Emotional intensity

Emotional arousal is a “call to action” that can elicit behavioral responses where dispassionate analysis might not (Huber, Van Boven and McGraw, 2010, p.2). Research suggests that “we respond emotionally to events and situations that we believe make demands on us that we cannot make because we do not have the necessary abilities or resources” (Gross, 2005, p.133). When facing other people dealing with hardship and suffering, we can react emotionally. It is well established that people experience empathy and exert sympathy towards people in need or other relevant social causes (Gross, 2005; Baston, 1990; Bagozzi, Gurhan-Canli, and Priester, 2002, Shiv and Fedorikhin, 1999; Hsee and Rotten, 2004). Such emotional reactions including feelings of compassion, concern, and tenderness can exert powerful influence over people's decisions to help others (Sturmer, Snyder and Omoto, 2005; Huber et al., 2010). Without such emotions, people may behave more selfishly and less altruistically (Huber et al., 2010). Since consumers may elicit sympathy and concerns to the social causes supported by CRM campaigns, CRP buying can be regarded as consumption with an affective nature (Strahilevitz and Myers, 1998). Research has found contributing to a social cause is influenced by the individual's emotional state (Strahilevitz and Myers, 1998). For example, when experiencing pleasure (Cunningham, 1979; Isen and Levin, 1972; Strahilevitz, 1999) or guilt (Baumann, Cialdini, and Kendrick, 1981; Carlsmith and Gross, 1969), consumers will engage in CRM participation more.

According to this discussion, one important construct that is relevant in driving CRP buying is the degree to which consumers emotionally react to other people's problems, described in CRM cues, i.e. emotional intensity (Huber et al., 2010). When consumers react strongly to a cause, more emotional responses will be elicited. Research suggests the extent to which a person feels this emotional reaction with the cause recipient is

strongly linked with the likelihood of providing help and higher charitable giving (Sargeant, 1999; Coke et al., 1978; Eisenberg and Miller, 1987). Echoing this view, researchers also argue that much pro-social behaviour is made intuitively, based on immediate emotional reactions (Huber et al., 2010; Van Boven, White and Huber, 2009). For example, marketers often stimulate powerful emotional arousal in order to aid advertising and compliance with pro-social requests (Small et al., 2007). Research has explicitly addressed the impact of powerful emotional arousal on giving behaviour and found a strong link between the intensity of such emotion attained and the likelihood of providing help (e.g. Sargeant, 1999, p.226; Wong and Bagozzi, 2005; Sargeant, 1999). Following this logic, it can be proposed that,

H1.6: Consumers who have higher emotional reactions towards social causes will be more likely to purchase a CRP.

3.2 Psychological distance application in CRM context

As aforementioned, psychological distance refers to the subjective experience between an actor and an event in the actor's psychological space when the event is close or far away from the self, here, and now (Trope and Liberman, 2010, p.440; Kim et al., 2008, p.707). A social cause associated with a CRP is arguably psychologically distant for consumers as it is not part of consumers' immediate surroundings and cannot be experienced directly by the consumers (Xue and Xiao, 2014). While psychological distance has been stipulated with four dimensions in its concept, i.e. social, temporal, physical distance and uncertainty (e.g. Trope and Liberman, 2010), it has not been defined in the context of CRM. Although some aspects of the four distance dimensions are directly transferable to CRM, there are several unique aspects to this particular area of application which require careful examination. A detailed understanding of psychological distance in CRP buying includes discussing each dimension in further detail and specifying how they can be applied to the CRM context.

3.2.1 Physical distance

Physical distance is relevant to the question of how distal people perceive an object is according to the spatial location of an object (Fujita et al., 2006). In the context of CRM, the relevant physical factor that determines psychological distance, which could influence CRP buying, is the spatial distance between the CRM activities and the consumers, i.e. cause proximity. Cause proximity refers to the distance between the cause-related campaign activity and the potential consumers that would make the purchase (Varadarajan and Menon, 1988; Anuar and Mohamad, 2011). In the real world, many companies also support causes at local, national or international levels. For instance, in Malaysia, Motorola and Celcom supports Global Fund in their CRM campaign; throughout this campaign for each unit of Moto (Product) Red handsets sold, a portion is directly contributed to the Global Fund in order to support HIV/AIDS patients in Africa (Anuar and Mohamad, 2011).

This thesis argues that perceived proximity of a cause can increase CRP buying among consumers. The reasons are given as follows. First, proximity influences how much information of CRM and the cause is available to consumers. Extensive research has shown perceived physical distance can influence how people make decisions (e.g. Fujita et al., 2006; Trope, Liberman and Wakslak, 2007; Williams and Bargh, 2008; Bar-Anan, Liberman and Trope, 2006, 2007; Henderson et al., 2006; Jia, Hirt and Karpen, 2009). Ordinarily, spatial distance determines the amount and kind of information an individual could obtain about an object. More information about the object could be obtained and this information could be understood in a more accurate and detailed way (Liberman et al., 2007). Easier access to more detailed information through decreasing spatial distance could potentially influence people's judgments and change behaviour (Leonidou, Barnes, and Talias, 2006). For example, when one gets closer to a shopping mall, one gets to know more details about the offering and retailers from the mall. Moreover, information gathering is an important processing stage to evaluate products in consumer product acquisition (Howard and Sheth, 1969; Bains et al., 2011). As a source of learning, information is often more rapidly gained in spatially proximal situations, which also stimulates the intensity of purchase motives (Kogurt and Singh, 1988; Howard and Sheth, 1969). Aligned with these arguments, it is logical to predict that information about CRM campaigns appears

more comprehensive when the cause proximity increases, i.e. when consumers are proximal to an area where a cause is supported by a CRM campaign.

Second, perceived cause proximity also decides the efficiency of consumer processing of CRM information. Liberman et al. (2007) further demonstrate that in a close or a distant location, the same piece of information could have mental representation in different levels of construal. More specifically, participants of their experiment reported in a more detailed fashion for the information that relates to a proximal location than a distant location. Explaining this result, the researchers argue that the process of abstraction involves a loss of specific, idiosyncratic, and incidental information; the detailed information process allows a relatively simple and coherent mental model that connects it to stored knowledge (Liberman et al., 2007, p.355). Accordingly, perceived physical distance between consumers and social causes can arguably alter how people interpret the CRM cues and information. More specifically, the more proximal the social causes are perceived, the easier and thus the more efficient it is for consumers to process the information.

Third, research into pro-social behaviour provides theoretical explanation about perceived proximity from cause location to self being an important influencer on the helping behaviour of consumers (Anuar and Mohamad, 2011). Predominantly, physical distance between the recipient of the donation and the potential donor negatively impacts on the engagement of donation behaviour (Bar-Tal, 1976). The same logic can be applied to consumer buying products linked with social causes, i.e., CRM campaigns that support a geographically proximate cause are more likely to engage consumers than campaigns that support a distant cause. The empirical literature on this issue echoes this view. It suggests that consumers prefer causes that support local issues and they prefer local to international NPOs (Ross et al., 1992; Hou et al., 2008; Ellen et al., 2000; Drumwright and Murphy, 2001; Grau and Folse, 2007). Researchers suggest people use signal cues to provide themselves with tangible information to evaluate uncertain or unobservable situations and make decisions (Spence, 1974). Consumers in the marketplace use certain cues in order to make an evaluation about a particular product. Several factors, such as price, warranties and advertising expenditures have been used by consumers as signals or cues that assist them in evaluating companies' products and help them in their decision-making

(Zeithaml, 1988; Rao and Monroe, 1988; Inman, McAlister and Hoyer, 1990; Grewal, Krishnan, Baker and Borin, 1998). In the context of CRM, CRM elements act as cues that consumers can use in their evaluation and judgment about a particular CRM campaign. Consumers use the support of, for example, a local or national cause in order to evaluate a particular CRM campaign. Thus, a CRM campaign that supports a local cause might signal a greater or better offer for a consumer compared to support of a national or international cause because they are more likely to be involved in consumers' lives (Gau and Folse, 2007; Yechiam, Barron and Erev, 2003; Tangari, et al., 2010; Anuar and Mohamad, 2011).

As highlighted earlier, one recommendation in formulating CRM strategy is for companies to develop partnerships with local causes. Perceived cause proximity represents one of the important elements of CRM's structure that has been proven to significantly influence consumers' response to CRM (Grau and Folse, 2007; Landreth, 2002). Past studies have focused on how cause-proximity influences the less-involved consumers' response towards CRM (e.g. Grau and Folse, 2007). They found that the impact of cause-proximity is significant; company support of local rather than national causes generates more favorable attitudes among consumers. Likewise, studies on cause-proximity impact on consumers' response to CRM found similar results (Smith and Alcorn, 1991; Ross et al., 1990,1991). In addition, Cone Roper's (2000) survey found that 55% of consumers surveyed indicated local causes as most important, followed by national causes (30%) and global causes (10%) (cited in Kolter and Lee, 2011). While these papers highlight the importance of cause-proximity on generating consumers' favorable response towards CRM, the impacts of cause-proximity on consumers' response are mixed. In Ross et al. (1992), although they found that the impact of cause-proximity is not significant, the results of their study show that the support of local causes is slightly more favorable than the national condition.

To conclude, the physical dimensions grounded in psychological distance in the context of CRM consist of perceived cause proximity from the consumers. Based on the above discussion, it is proposed that the cause-proximity cue communicated in a CRM campaign will influence consumers' response to CRM. Consumers will respond more positively towards a CRM campaign that supports a local cause as it will have

more direct impact on the consumers compared to CRM that supports an international cause. The following hypothesis can be proposed:

H2.1: Consumers' perceived physical proximity towards social causes will increase their willingness to buy CRPs.

3.2.2 Temporal distance

Consumer experiences and decisions are fundamentally temporally situated (Mogilner, 2009; Kim et al., 2008; Nenkov, 2012). The psychological consequences of the time perspective often affect people's purchase behaviour, judgments and evaluations as we rarely make decisions for the immediate situation without referring to the past or thinking about the consequences in the future (Ariely and Zakay, 2001; Liberman and Trope, 1998). The time issue has been investigated extensively across different behavioural science disciplines to explain how people evaluate and judge their past (e.g. Gilovich and Medvec, 1995), future activities (e.g. Liberman and Trope, 2008; Loewenstein and Prelec, 1992), and the further influences on economic decisions such as retirement savings, credit card borrowing and charitable giving etc. (Loewenstein and Prelec, 1992; Breman, 2011).

Temporal distance is defined as how far psychologically one perceives an object or event between one's present and future time (Fujita et al., 2008). CRM campaigns usually include temporal elements and cues that could influence CRP buying. Temporal distance in the CRM context refers to the consumers' perceived distance towards social causes that is determined by such time-related factors (Tangari et al., 2010; Xue and Xiao, 2014).

A temporal dimension is inherently embedded in CRM. The temporal issues that are highly relevant here include the cause duration. CRM campaigns typically involve social causes reflecting societal needs in an immediate or a delayed term (Tangari et al., 2010). For example, the Chinese Wanglaoji pharmacy company's support of the Wenchuan Earthquake can also be seen as an immediate solution for the post-earthquake reconstruction and rehabilitation. Other brands, such as Avon and Estée

Lauder, have certain products associated with support for breast cancer research, which is a much longer project. Or in China, the well-known association between the educational Hope Primary School project and Coca Cola has been conducted since 1993. In representing these immediate and delayed needs, CRM campaigns categorise social causes into two different time durations: ongoing causes and current causes. Ongoing cause campaigns are those that support long-term charitable events, such as that regarding breast cancer. Current cause campaigns relate more to short-term or immediate needs, such as disaster relief for earthquakes. Consumers help social causes through contributing financially to both immediate and long-term solutions for those currently afflicted with or those facing a future risk of societal problems such as poverty and cancer (Tangari et al., 2010, p.35). It is reasonable to think CRP consumers are likely to have concrete and detailed understanding of social causes highlighting immediate needs due to more media exposure. Thus, compared to ordinary ongoing causes, major causes (e.g. disaster relief) are considered more important, thus receive more attention (Ellen et al., 2000; Skitka, 1999). Individuals would generate more helping behaviour due to the expectation from the other important referents (Ajzen, 1991). Consequently, the higher the level of importance they perceive a certain CRM campaign to have, the higher level of motivation they will get thus making it more likely for them to increase purchase intention (Hou et al., 2008).

Moreover, researchers suggest duration is a fundamental aspect of perceived temporal distance that plays a significant role in many aspects of consumer decision making (e.g. Kim et al., 2008; Tangari et al., 2010). For example, consumers' decisions on a long-term mobile contract would depend on how long they perceive the period is and how they value the proximal and distant future outcomes for locking themselves into a contract (Kim et al., 2008). Perceptions regarding temporal duration are particularly important in intertemporal decisions that involve trade-offs between two temporally situated outcomes, for example, receiving £100 now versus £105 in a month (Kim et al., 2008; Loewenstein and Prelec, 1992). Research shows that the importance of immediate value will surpass delayed outcomes rapidly when temporal distance decreases (Guo, 2009; Malkoc and Zauberman, 2006; Zauberman and Lynch, 2005; Ainslie and Haslam, 1992; Read et al., 2005; Soman et al., 2005; Guo, 2009;). Individuals tend to discount the future and value future receipts and rewards less than

current and temporal ones with the increase of temporal distance (i.e. in a more distant future) (Foxall, 2010; Foxall, 2007; Soman et al., 2005; Castaño et al., 2008). Consequently, we might have preference of a smaller sooner reward over a larger later reward (Trope and Liberman, 2000; Read and Loewenstein, 2000; Guo, 2009; Ainslie, 1975; Pronin et al., 2008; Loewenstein, Read and Baumeister, 2003).

In such logic, the value of future bigger company donations accumulated over time through CRP sales might be discounted in consumers' minds. Instead, a more temporally proximal company donation that would create smaller but more instant rewards for the cause beneficiaries might be favoured (e.g. Read and Loewenstein, 2000). Correspondingly, This is supported by findings that suggest that some consumers appear to respond more favourably toward campaigns emphasizing immediate (e.g. medical support for a natural disaster) versus ongoing needs (e.g. medical support in general) (e.g. Cui, Trent, Sullivan and Matiru, 2003). Another stream of research findings also suggest the CRM with immediate time effect could appear more altruistic and closer to consumers' motivation of performing pro-socially (Tangari et al., 2010).

Further to this stream of views, researchers suggest that temporal distance could systematically influence people's interpretation of future events, which consequently affects preference and choice of products (Trope and Liberman, 2000; Liberman and Trope, 1998). The researchers discovered that when making decisions for a temporally distant event, people's choice usually presents their core value related to high-level construal, whereas when making decisions for a temporally proximal event, low-level value determines their choice (Eyal, Liberman, Sagristano, and Trope, 2006; Eyal and Liberman, 2012; Eyal et al., 2009). In other words, when temporal distance decreases, events and objects become more detailed and specific with consumers, therefore they tend to place more value on short-term than on long-term desires (Ebert, 2005; Fujita, Trope, Liberman and Levin-Sagi, 2006).

In consumer studies, researchers also demonstrated that low-level features of products (e.g. price) would be emphasized more than high-level features (e.g. quality) when it is closer in time (Dhar and Kim, 2007; Yan and Sengupta, 2011). For example, Castaño et al. (2008) conducted three studies to test how consumer intention to buy new

products would be affected by innovation uncertainties when the time to make purchase decisions comes. They found that over time consumers are concerned more with cost-related uncertainties than symbolic and benefit-related uncertainties, therefore the purchase intentions reduced (Castaño et al., 2008). In addition, researchers suggest that the intertemporal trade-offs between costs and rewards also have a large impact on pro-social behavior, such as charitable giving (Breman, 2011; Dean, 2003; Mongilner and Aaker, 2009). Consumers' giving behaviours often align more with their immediate concrete needs, which reflect their charitable motives and values (Bishop, 2008; Goldsmith, Newman and Dhar, 2012). People tend to associate benefit or reward (e.g. societal benefit) for a present or near future event, and cost of donation (e.g. money) for a distant future event (e.g. Trope and Liberman, 2010; Kennedy et al., 2009). Such focus on different aspects of donation would subsequently impact on giving behaviour (Pronin et al., 2008).

On the other hand, Huber et al. (2011) found that people exhibit an immediate bias in judgements and decisions about humanitarian suffering and response more strongly hence allocate more charitable resources to the causes that are temporally closer to the time when they are learnt than those equivalent. This study gives evidence that decisions in pro-social events can be influenced by temporal distance. That is, it is important how immediately people are exposed to the cause because of the assumption that immediate emotions are more intense than previous emotions. Accordingly, researchers argue that one of the motivations for people conducting pro-social helping behaviours, such as CRP buying, is to be rewarded with a sense of 'warm glow' (Andreoni and Payne, 2003; Andreoni, 1989, 1990; Harbaugh et al., 2007; Palfrey and Prisbrey, 1996, 1997). Research shows that this reward could be realized at the time of purchase for short-term charitable campaigns, whereas long-term sustainable development would have no immediate effect on the warm glow because the result of a potential donation would be realized in the future (e.g. Huber et al., 2011; Cui et al., 2013). Therefore, the perceived temporal distance towards cause duration can decide whether the consumers are motivated to purchase a CRP.

Another important dimension grounded in temporal distance in CRM regards companies' donation response. Although usually current causes highlighting immediate social needs are associated with immediate donation from companies (e.g.

American Express' donation to repair the Statue of Liberty every time one of their credit cards is used), it is not always the case that causes highlighting different time durations receive corresponding company responses. For example, Coca Cola has been supporting an ongoing education cause in the Hope Primary School project in China for 20 years by making both long-term donations and short-term investments in building and reconstructing primary schools. The benefit for the donation may occur in the near future (i.e. if the company makes a donation every time the purchasing happens or if the donation goes towards an immediate current cause such as earthquake reconstruction) while other benefits may occur in the distant future (i.e. if the donations are to be made after a long-term campaign is finished such as six months after, or the social cause aims for a long-term benefit such as cancer research). Therefore, company response in terms of a more immediate (e.g. every time the product is bought) or delayed donation (e.g. in three months) could create different psychological consequences in consumers' minds.

It can be argued that the linkage between the consumer and the social cause is indirect in CRM (i.e. donation or help through a company) as opposed to a direct individual donation. An individual donation by a consumer or a company through a corporate philanthropy scheme could be interpreted as altruism, as the entity donates money, possessions, or their labour and time (Dean, 2003). Whereas in CRM, companies could benefit from product sales before any obligation to donate is accrued. This might be interpreted as self-interest rather than a pure pro-social motive. Therefore logically, a shorter time period between sales through selling a CRP and a social cause receiving a donation reduces speculation consumers might make regarding the motive of conducting a CRM campaign. Moreover, donations made in a temporally fast manner, although a relatively small amount compared to a donation to a social cause after the campaign is finished, could show the dedication of the company in helping the cause (Webb and Mohr, 1998). Consumers, on the other hand, require companies and NPOs to regularly update the outcome of their charitable giving. For instance, UNICEF regularly sends cards and photos of children's recent life to their donors. Logically, consumers would prefer companies to show the progress of a CRM campaign since they are asked to buy the CRPs in order to help the social cause. One obvious way to do this would be responding to needs and making donations quicker. Some studies have already used immediate and delayed company response as a temporal framing

effect on CRM product packaging and found that consumers have more purchase intention when a corporate response is framed in proximal terms compared with distal terms (e.g. Tangari et al., 2010).

Besides the discussion above, another temporal factor unique to CRM is related to consumers' purchase timing. Research suggests that at specific times of year, such as in the holiday season, people are usually more involved in taking part in pro-social activities (Bendapudi, Singh and Bendapudi, 1996). Moreover, temporal relevance could be another time-related factor in driving CRP buying. Companies usually conduct campaigns at the time when certain causes are highlighted. The timeliness of the charitable cause could be relevant to consumers when they are looking out for such information (Aggarwal and Vaidyanathan, 2003; Pharoah and McKenzie, 2010). For example, Evian supports the breast cancer cause by associating their bottled water with the Breast Cancer Awareness Month. A product that supports breast cancer research charities would be especially relevant to consumers when they purchase the good at that time.

Overall, consumers would feel closer or more distant towards a CRP regarding four temporal constructs in the CRM context: cause timing, company response time, purchase timing, and temporal relevance. Based on the discussion of the various elements of temporal distance and their respective roles in CRP buying, it can be expected that:

H2.2: Consumers' perceived temporal closeness towards social causes will increase their willingness to buy CRPs.

3.2.3 Social distance

Social distance is the extent to which someone is perceived or experienced as closer to or further away from an individual (Trope and Liberman, 2010). It represents the psychological space people think exists between themselves and others within an interaction (Liberman et al., 2007; Stephan, Liberman and Trope, 2011). Social distance is particularly important within the context such as CRM where individual

consumers interact with the company and the social cause. The judgements consumers make about how socially distant or close they feel towards a cause beneficiary and the associated company might influence the willingness to help the cause and the purchase intention of an associated product (e.g. Breman, 2011; Trop and Liberman, 2010).

Much of the research on social distance has focused on the perceived social distance to self (Fiedler, 1953; Magee and Smith, 2011; Trope and Liberman, 2010). For example, we feel closer to a friend than to a stranger. Research shows that perceived social distance between consumers themselves and other people in their social surroundings is a powerful determinant of whether people demonstrate moral regard towards others (Hardy, et al., 2010; Stephan et al., 2011) and actions such as donation (e.g. Breman, 2011; Bennett and Gabriel, 2000; Sturmer and Snyder, 2005; Olivola and Liu, 2009; Kennedy et al., 2009), offering help to others (Brewer and Gardner, 1996; Reicher and Wetherell, 1987; Henderson, Huang, and Chang, 2012; Nan, 2011), and participation in CRM campaigns (e.g. Hou et al., 2008).

It is argued that all aspects of social motivation are somewhat linked to the self (Triandis, 1989). From those whom we have a closer relationship with we sample information that is self-relevant quickly, and assess more positive information that supports current self-structure (Triandis, 1989, p.506). In other words, the self is an active agent that promotes differential sampling, processing, and evaluation of information from the environment, and thus leads to differences in social behaviour. It thus can be argued that people donate more to social causes when their self-concept is manipulated to think of 'self' more (Kraut, 1973). When referring to the 'self', there would be a higher degree of psychological involvement in social causes (Bennett and Gabriel, 2000), which may result in the individual processing CRM campaign messages more intensely and being more receptive to the cues (Broderick, Jogi and Garry, 2003) and hence having a more favourable attitude towards the cause and a possible inclination towards buying the CRP (Barone et al., 2007; Clark, Mills and Corcoran, 1989).

Moreover, researchers suggest that social distance also forms social categories that influence helping behaviour towards 'insiders' or 'outsiders'. Besides the traditional approach of individual-level or interpersonal perspective, it is proposed that the group

level relations, i.e. whether the cause beneficiaries are within the consumers' social group or as an out-group member, is also an important consideration in helping and giving behaviour (Levine, Prosser, Evans and Reicher, 2005; Batson and Shaw, 1991; Brewer and Gaetner, 2001; Smith, Devos and Mackie, 2000; Sturmer and Snyder, 2005).

Researchers argue that because psychological distance is re-elected in socially defined group boundaries, perceived social distance is also a function of the relationship with members from inside or outside of a particular group (Brewer and Kramer, 1985; Brewer, 2007; Levine et al., 2005; Hoffman, McCabe, and Smith, 1996). Central to this argument is shared identities among social groups (Brewer and Gardner, 1996; Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Tajfel and Turner, 1985), which create "a sense of connectedness or a categorization of another person as a member of one's own group" (Dovidio et al., 1991, p.102). For example, football fans typically share a common identity and feel closer to someone who wears a shirt of the team they support. Individuals and groups are perceived and hence treated differently in terms of how they are socially proximal and distant (Brewer and Kramer, 1985).

A person's social identity is defined as the aspects of an individual's self image that derive from the social categories to which he perceives himself as belonging (Tajfel, 1978, p.16; Tajfel and Turner, 1985; Hogg and Abrams, 1988). These social categories or groups are formed based on the prototypical characteristics of their members (Turner, 1985; Ashforth and Mael, 1989). Group members perceive themselves to be part of the same social category, are emotionally involved with the group in some way, and evaluate the group and its membership similarly (Tajfel and Turner, 1985; Liviatan, Trope and Liberman, 2008; Liberman et al., 2007). As such, research suggests that social distance decides consumers' self-construal (e.g. general tendency to identify with groups), and their social identities (e.g. level of identification with the particular social cause featured in a CRM campaign), which are great considerations in forming CRP buying preference (Winterich and Barone, 2011, p.857).

It is evidenced that people are generally more willing to engage in pro-social activities toward targets that are socially close to them. Specifically, reduced psychological distance is found to increase pro-social behaviour (Rachlin and Jones, 2008;

Henderson et al., 2012). For example, less helping intention is found for targets that are genetically unrelated to people (Kanekar, Pinto and Nazareth, 1990) and out-group members (Levine and Thompson, 2004). In contrary, individuals are more likely to donate to recipients who are in the same ethnicity group (Henderson, Huang and Chang, 2012). Furthermore, a considerable amount of research suggests that people tend to construe others as socially distant (e.g. strangers; out-group members) in higher-level terms in their mind. Compared to socially proximal others (e.g. self; in-group members), the distant ones are described more abstractly and are perceived as more homogenous (Jones, Wood, and Quattrone, 1981; Liberman et al., 2007) because we typically have less direct experience with and thus have less information about socially distant people or companies. With more information a situation could be better understood and in turn promote CRP buying (Liberman et al., 2007).

Besides the cause beneficiaries, consumers' perceived distance with the sponsoring company also determines their overall perception of the social distance towards a cause. CRPs are products promoted by a brand by bundling with a social cause (Ross et al., 1992). There are multiple entities involved in how consumers regard CRP buying: the NPOs, the supported subject (cause), and the supporting company. Resultantly, social distance in CRP buying goes beyond the perceived interpersonal relationship between the buyer and the cause beneficiaries, but rather is a function of the social relation between the buyer and all CRM attributes (e.g. it also involves individual consumers' interaction with companies involved in CRM campaigns). The judgments consumers make about how socially distant or close a CRM campaign is might influence the amount of effort they are willing to make to support a social cause. For example, consumers who dislike a certain brand may not feel as close to its CRP or CRM campaign as they would to the ones associated with the brands they adore. Companies that have similar socially responsible values with consumers would feel closer to consumers than those with whom they cannot identify in this way.

Research suggests that individuals tend to take actions congruent with salient aspects of their value and they support the companies embodying those values (Ashforth and Mael, 1989 in Lafferty, 2009, p.363). Similarity seen in other entities fosters feeling of warmth and closeness and therefore brings positive attitudes and closeness in relationship (Fiedler, 1992). Individuals perceive a sense of connectedness to a

company when they identify the similarity in pro-social values in the company (Mael and Ashforth, 1992). It is evidenced that such connectedness with a company enhances support for and commitment to product purchase (Mael, 1988, Lafferty, 2009). From companies' perspective, participating in CRM shows the consumers additional pro-social goodwill in social responsibility. If consumers feel connected to such commitment, they are likely to buy CRPs (Lafferty, 2007; Currás-Pérez, Bigné-Alcañiz, and Alvarado-Herrera, 2009).

To summarise, the social distance in CRM could refer to the perceived distance between consumers and the social cause recipient or the company. It is proposed to be grounded in the perceived social distance to self, difference of the cause recipient as an in-group and out-group member, as well as the degree to which the company shares a similar value (e.g. Trope and Liberman, 2010; Zajonc, 1968; Festinger, 1951; Brewer and Miller, 1984; Stephan et al., 2011).

Based on the above discussion, the hypothesis can be proposed as:

***H2.3:** Consumers' perceived social closeness towards social causes will increase their willingness to buy CRPs.*

3.2.4 Uncertainty

The last psychological distance dimension relates to uncertainty. An event or object may seem distant when they are possible but not certain, when they could have happened but have not yet happened (Waslak, 2008, p.6). For example, people often refer to an unlikely event as a 'remote possibility', 'a far chance', 'a lack of certainty', and so on (Liberman, Trope and Waslak, 2007). Applying in this specific context of CRM, it regards the factors that will contribute to the perceived uncertainty of the probabilities of social causes benefiting from the contribution to CRM sales (Trope and Liberman, 2010; Liberman et al., 2007).

Researchers assume that a probable event would be perceived as less distant for a consumer than an improbable one, and the greater the probability of the event, the less its psychological distance (Trope et al., 2007, p.86; Wakslak, Trope, Liberman, and Alony, 2006). Based on such assumptions, a series of empirical studies have been conducted to investigate the effect probability has on mental construal (Liberman et al., 2002; Castaño et al., 2008). For example, Castaño et al.'s (2008) study shows that in distant future, promotions reducing performance uncertainty of products would stimulate positive feeling and enhance purchase intention.

For CRP buyers, this probability lies in the uncertainty in the cause outcome, or in other words, the risk of what they pay for the product. The uncertainty could play a significant effect on their mental representation to the cause that could eventually influence choices of product. Given the nature of CRM, CRP buyers' inference of a company's social efforts is affected by the uncertainty of the campaign outcome. Consumers face greater distance psychologically from a cause when they have doubts about whether their input would turn into real benefit for the social cause (Trope and Liberman, 2010; Liberman et al., 2007). Unlikely outcomes would be perceived as more remote for a consumer than likely ones, and are therefore represented in a form of mental construal that highlights the central features of the event (Trope and Liberman, 2010). In CRM, high uncertainty of outcomes highlights the salience of means-related features of outcomes (e.g. spending money to support the cause), relative to the salience of ends-related features of outcome (e.g. people in need are being supported) (Liberman et al., 2007). Accordingly, high uncertainty introduces scepticism and emphasises cost rather than a positive result of CRM campaign and decreases the level of consumer positive response to the cause (Barone, Norman and Miyazaki, 2007; Dean, 2003).

Moreover, in the CRM context, perceived uncertainty can also originate from their perceived company motivation of doing the CRM activities (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Barone et al., 2000; Barone et al., 2007). The donation behaviour from an individual customer and a company could be perceived differently. An individual customer gives his or her possessions or labour to the cause and receives gratitude back as well as self-satisfaction for doing good (Dean, 2003). However, the exchange equation of donation behaviour between a company and a charity is more complicated.

From the customers' point of view, a company may be altruistic when they donate money to a charity without customers' participation in the sales. The relationship between cause and customer is indirect in such direct company donations (also called corporate philanthropy). In the case of CRM, there are three participants (customer, company and charity) instead of two (company and charity). Companies make profits through CRP sales before the obligation to donate is accrued (Dean, 2003). Although scepticism toward CRM has declined and consumers gradually perceive CRM as positive (Ross et al., 1992), the efforts companies make still appear to raise doubts that companies' motivation behind those CRM campaigns is 'cause beneficial' or 'cause exploitative', which refers to whether those CRM campaigns are designed to benefit the cause or for the company to generate profit (Drumwright, 1996; Webb and Mohr, 1998; Barone et al., 2000).

Consumer inference of whether a company's social efforts are 'cause-beneficial' or 'cause-exploitative' depends on the company's use of CRM (Barone et al., 2007; Drumwright, 1996). Therefore, companies should be very careful with what the customers perceive their motivations to be behind the CRM campaigns according to the campaign design. In fact, the 'Think before you pink' initiative promoted by the Breast Cancer Action advocacy group urges consumers to investigate any 'Pink' CRM campaign sponsored during October's Breast Cancer Awareness Month to avoid any cause exploitative products and companies (Folse et al., 2010). Research suggests in the latter instance consumers could suspect the company's intention and question how genuine a company's CRM activity is (Barone et al., 2007; Fein et al., 1990). It is, however, not difficult to understand why consumers hold uncertain perception towards some causes since the nature of CRM is to serve marketing purposes and gain sales profitability (Barone et al., 2000). While having the suspicion of a company's motivation for making CRM efforts, consumers therefore experience larger psychological distance from the cause as they have a negative mental representation towards the company (Trope et al., 2007).

Previous literature points out that perceived company motivation can influence behaviour intention (Pracejus and Olsen, 2006; Barone et al., 2000; 2007; Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Szykman, 2004). Consistent with the earlier discussion, cause-exploitative activities are often seen as profit-generating from sales as well as gaining

tax benefits for liquidating inventories of obsolete or returned products that would not be easily sold again (Stecklow, 2005 cited in Barone et al., 2007). Backer-Olsen et al. (2006) suggest that company motivations for doing CRM campaigns could be questioned when there is a low fit between company and cause. More specifically, participants show more thought when motivation is profit driven than socially driven under a high cause fit condition. Barone et al. (2000) summarized two scenarios of consumer perceptions toward company motivation supporting a cause campaign. Under the same cause campaign, consumers may generate different interpretations depending on whether the CRM campaign is benefiting the cause or benefiting profit. Cause campaigns may not always achieve the expected effects when consumers have doubts over company motivation for conducting such campaigns (Forehand and Grier, 2003; Osterhus, 1997; Strahilevitz, 2003; Webb and Mohr, 1998; Yoon et al., 2006). Based on these influences, consumers could suspect the company's intention and question how genuine a company's CRM activity is, which in turn decreases the level of consumer positive response to the cause (Barone et al., 2007; Brønn and Vidaver-Cohen, 2009).

To summarise, psychological distance consumers perceive in terms of uncertainty in CRM lies in the likelihood of a desired outcome from donation and perceived company motivation. Based on these discussions, the hypothesis can be given:

H2.4: Consumers' perceived certainty towards social causes will increase their willingness to buy CRPs.

3.2.5 Mediating role of psychological distance

Although CRP purchase has been directly linked to consumer perception of cause-brand relation and consumer pro-social characteristic factors, recent research suggests that such effect of antecedents on CRP buying can be explained through the perception of personal closeness to the social cause (Grau and Folse, 2007; Hajjat, 2003).

CRPs are created to provide extra social motivations and the satisfaction of doing good, apart from the acquisition value from purchasing the product. In much pro-

social literature, it is repeatedly suggested that closer relationship between the helper and the ones in need promotes helping behaviour (Levine, Prosser, Evans, and Reicherm 2005; Gialdini, Brown, Lewis, Luce and Neuberg, 1997; Hornstein, 1972, 1976; Wegner and Crano, 1975). As aforementioned, the closer relationship the consumers perceive with a CRM campaign, the more likely they are going to buy CRP to help. It is expected that consumer perception of CRM and their characteristic factors form the perception of self-cause relationship and bring the self closer to the social cause. This is because consumer perception of CRM is seen as a source of CRM information which individuals process and use to make CRP buying decisions. If the consumers derive positive perception from a CRM campaign, they are likely to restructure their mental representation of the relevant social cause and company to something that fits their own pro-social value category. According to Construal Level Theory, such categorization leads to perception of similarity, feelings of greater closeness and therefore a sense of connectedness to self (Levine et al., 2005; Trope and Liberman, 2010; Liberman et al., 2007). In turn, consumers perform the intended pro-social behaviour whenever they encounter a CRP. In addition to this, it is logical to assume that pro-social characteristics and emotions can influence CRP buying through a perceived closeness to social cause. Altruistic individuals and emotional intensity both elicit stronger emotional responses, which serve as a driver to bring personal closeness to the cause (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Hajjat, 2003).

Since there has been little research focusing on the processes by which these factors influence the intention to purchase CRPs, this section seeks to recognise a variety of different processes that may be involved in the purchase antecedent and explores the potential role of psychological distance with respect to the relationship between cause-related product purchase intention antecedent variables and purchase decisions.

3.2.5.1 Indirect effect of familiarity on CRP buying through psychological distance

We typically feel closer to the ones that we are more familiar with; be that an acquaintance or someone we have only heard about, we always find those about whom we have a little knowledge more relevant to ourselves. This is because familiarity reflects the experiences accumulated with the social surroundings, and is a collection

of associations that exist within the consumers' memories (Lafferty, 2009). Unlike unfamiliar events, through familiar ones consumers attain more in depth information and knowledge, which leads to a better-developed cognitive structure in consumers' minds (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987, Edwards, Lee and Ferle, 2009). Therefore, they are easier to be retrieved from memory and for consumers to make associations with the self (Lafferty, 2009; Fazio, Powell and Williams, 1989). For example, a consumer may relate CRM advertisement information to his or her life, such as recalling a similar donation experience. This information is more easily associated with previously stored information because the self is a frequently accessed construct in memory (Martin, Lee, Weeks, and Kaya, 2013). Applied to the CRM context, familiarity thus increases consumers' perceived closeness between themselves with CRM constructs, i.e. the company and social cause beneficiaries. To illustrate, a consumer who has more knowledge about mental illness issues might find a mental health cause socially closer to himself than another consumer who does not have such prior knowledge and detailed information. This is consistent with the fact that people use social conventions to distance themselves or bring themselves psychologically closer to one another based on the experience gained from others (Hess, 2003; Edwards et al., 2009). Higher willingness to help the cause by buying CRP is then expected to form given the closer relation to self (Hajjat, 2003).

It is also expected that perceived physical distance and temporal distance at least partially mediate the relationship between familiarity with CRM constructs and CRP buying behaviour. Researchers discuss the psychological distance of space and suggest that familiarity with a location or entity attenuates psychological distance (Smith, 1976). Similar to familiarity's effect on social distance, knowledge about details of CRM campaigns could also reduce consumers' perceived physical and temporal distance towards a social cause. Familiar social causes and companies produce stronger attitudes due to the extensive associations consumers have in their memories (Lafferty, 2009). Research suggests when repeatedly having familiar stimulus exposure, consumers elicit further elaboration of CRM campaigns (Grush, 1976), and affect toward a given object will arise as a consequence (Zajonc, 1968). This is why something that happened decades ago would still feel like yesterday and feel more attached to our homeland than the country one currently stays in even when home is far away (Maglio et al., 2013; Trope and Liberman, 2010).

In addition, research has also shown consumers would reduce effort looking for additional cues to diminish their uncertainty over a familiar product or company (Edwards et al., 2009). Familiarity helps reduce the cognitive cost of thinking and increase the certainty surrounding a decision (Shugan, 1980, in Zhao and Xie, 2011, p.487). Consistent with this point, being familiar with a promoted product would reduce uncertainty distance by diminishing the cognitive effort and in turn increase the purchase intention. Moreover, unlike unfamiliar CRM campaign, familiarity gained from positive prior experience with a brand or an NPO arguably give consumers more confidence and certainty in reaching a positive desired CRM campaign outcomes and a peace of mind that their donation may benefit the social cause (e.g. Lafferty, 2007). Thus, the following mediation hypotheses can be proposed.

H3: Consumers' perceived: 1. social distance, 2. temporal distance, 3. physical distance, and 4. uncertainty towards a CRM mediates the effects of CRM familiarity on CRP buying intention.

3.2.5.2 Indirect effect of perceived credibility on CRP buying through psychological distance

It is expected that if a consumer perceives one CRM campaign to be more credible than another, one would expect him or her to have less uncertainty of the campaign outcome. In turn, reduced level of uncertainty will increase the willingness of a consumer to help the social cause. Generally speaking, credible CRM campaign would involve trustworthy CRM alliance and their expertise in helping the social cause (Lafferty, 2007). Low level of trust and competence in CRM alliance would raise and speculation on self-interest-serving purposes by the company, and therefore uncertainty about the quality of the help or whether the social cause would be supported at all (Walker and Kent, 2013).

Since in CRM and other similar philanthropic pursuits consumers are not conditioned to seek information about such activities, it is essential to earn an image of being credible to eliminate any uncertainty (Meijer and Schuyt, 2005; Walker and Kent, 2003). Consumers have encountered doubts in CRM that created uncertainty about the

campaign result. This also raises question about whether their contribution to the sales would be worth it. Research suggests consumers often question companies doing CRM purely to serve profit-maximising self-interest purposes (Berglind and Nakata, 2005). Even with an important cause such as breast cancer, associated CRM initiatives have received criticism for creating a ‘cult of pink ribbons’ that exploits the cause for corporate gain (Gorton, Angell, White and Tseng, 2013). Trust in CRM alliance (both the company and NPO) is evidenced to be one of the biggest contributors when it comes to CRM successes (Nowak and Clarke, 2003). It can be argued that credible companies and NPOs that earned a high level of trust would eliminate much of consumers’ scepticism before buying CRPs. Another question consumers have in mind is whether the CRM alliance has the capability and experience in helping the social cause. Companies gain credibility through conducting successful CRM campaigns. Credible companies with expertise through past experience and knowledge would make consumers more certain of the outcome of the CRP buying and further justify that their contribution is needed.

Second, CRP buyers are socially responsible individuals because of their pro-social behaviour (Paek and Nelson, 2009; Ross et al., 1992). CRM activities can be regarded as a communicator of the company’s social responsible value (Inoue and Kent, 2014). Companies that are perceived as highly credible in CRM thus would be deemed more ethical for genuinely serving those in need. Therefore, CRP buyers may find they share similar ethical values in their value system with the involved companies. As aforementioned, social distance could be the perception of the similarity of a company to oneself (Liviatan et al., 2008). In CRM, similarity reflects judgements about whether consumers and companies share certain values (Lii, Wu and Ding, 2013). Perceived social distance is shortened when consumers share similar values with companies that are deemed credible, which in turn facilitates CRM conveying social responsibility value across to the consumers and convincing them to buy CRP (Lichtenthal and Tellefsen, 2001; Lii et al., 2013). Based on the above discussion, the following can be proposed:

H4: Consumers’ 1. social distance, and 2. perceived uncertainty towards the cause mediates the effects of perceived credibility of the cause-related campaign on consumers’ CRP purchase intention.

3.2.5.3. Indirect effect of cause fit on CRP buying through psychological distance

This thesis proposes that the effect of perceived cause fit on purchase intention depends on the consumers' psychological distance from the cause. While much research has suggested that high degree of fit between cause and company or brand has positive influence on consumer responses in CRM (e.g. Nan and Heo, 2007), a number of other studies conclude that although perceived fit is necessary, it is not sufficient for intent to buy a CRP (Lafferty, 2007; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004). Studies show that good fit did not have significant effect on purchase compared to poor fit between cause and brand (Lafferty, 2007). Researchers explain that one reason is that compared to other brand alliance, the typical cause and brand alliance in CRM lacks an emotional association (Lafferty, 2007). These findings from previous literature validate the argument that although cause fit is an indicator of CRP buying, the influence might be indirect through an agent (Nan and Heo, 2007).

A lack of fit between the social cause and the supporting company could easily raise consumers' perceived uncertainty of the CRM campaign. Although companies use intrinsically positive initiatives to support social causes, it can still lead to negative assessments of companies if the alignments are perceived as low fit (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001; Becker-Olsen, Cudmore and Hill, 2006). Firstly, prior research on sponsorship and co-branding suggest that perceived relatedness enhances consumer attitudes towards a firm. High fit between the prior expectations and knowledge of a company and the supported cause can more easily enhance the existing cognitive connection between the firm and cause (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006). Such consistency in turn strengthens companies' market position (Keller, 1993), through which consumers can more easily identify the companies' competitive advantage as well as reduce uncertainty about the companies' products. Clear market position from high cause fit therefore increases consumers' purchase intention (Brown and Dacin, 1997), whereas low fit is likely to bring up scepticism about a company's motives because of a less clear market position (Barone et al., 2000; Becker-Olsen et al., 2006).

Secondly, research suggests that a lack of perceived fit with the cause will distance consumers' self-identified pro-social role from the participating companies. That is, consumers are likely to stimulate, if not negative evaluations, doubt on the sincerity of

the company, which also affects perception of the outcome of CRM campaigns (Forehand and Grier, 2003; Webb and Mohr, 1998; Yoon et al., 2006). When there is a high fit between a company and a cause, evaluations of the company can be used to appraise the cause (Pracejus and Olsen, 2004). The positive evaluations of the firm and the cause can be transferred to the CRM strategy itself (Barone et al., 2007) whereas in a low fit condition, such a process may not be employed (Barone et al., 2007). This could prompt consumers to ask questions about how sincere the companies are in supporting social causes. In such a condition (low fit) companies could easily be considered to be cause-exploitative, in which case they will in turn lower the willingness to buy a cause-related product from these companies.

Furthermore, it is known that consumers symbolise their purchase and find self-identify in the brands they purchase (Keller, 1997). Perception of high fit between the brand image and NPO image could arguably narrow the distance between self and CRP, given that cause fit also regards the perceived connectedness between the brand image and NPO image (Latterty et al., 2004). Lower fit would detach consumers from the social cause and therefore leave them with less willingness to buy a CRP. In addition, higher cause fit predicts higher level of CRM outcome effectiveness (Hamlin and Wilson, 2004). Compared to a lower fit CRP, consumers may buy a high fit CRP with expectations to have shortened time period for an ideal outcome. Based on the above arguments, the hypothesis could be given as:

***H5:** Consumers' 1. social distance, 2. temporal distance, and 3. perceived uncertainty towards the cause mediates the effects of perceived cause fit on consumers' CRP purchase intention.*

3.2.5.4 Indirect effect of participation effort on CRP buying through psychological distance

Researchers have looked at the symbolic value of pain and effort people go through to help a pro-social cause. The symbolic value of making an effort for pro-social causes adds meaning to the achievement and increases people's motivation to participate. For

this reason, compared to pro-social tasks that are easy and enjoyable, consumers feel psychologically closer when the symbolic value is highlighted for making effort (Olivola and Shafir, 2012). It is therefore reasonable to say that participation effort could be a determinant of psychological distance in pro-social behaviours. In fact, sacrificing comfort for pro-social causes is a common means nowadays, such as in fundraising through Marathon (Hoffman, McCabe, Shachat and Smith, 1994). However, pro-social donation research has also found suffering and effort will only be meaningful when they are perceived to be necessary for promoting a cause (Thompson and Bunderson, 2003).

In CRM, cases of requiring consumers to suffer physical pain such as running a long distance are almost non-existent. If anything, the purpose of conducting CRM is partly because it is easier for consumers to participate in helping social causes than to donate. Therefore in CRM, requested effort to help a social cause is limited to a certain level. Nonetheless, consumers realise the meaningfulness of their effort by establishing a connection between the social causes, the company and the CRM campaign. For example, many campaigns give away special wristbands together with the CRP. Consumers are asked to wear the wristbands as a symbol to support the cause (e.g. LO'real products for Breast Cancer Research). Just like charitable giving behaviour, wearing the wristband is a symbol of a part of a pro-social activity. Another example can be given as Innocent selling smoothies with consumer co-created packaging to support Age UK. Consumers actively create self-formed brand community and knit for social cause. In doing so, consumers will also feel closer to the cause recipient because rather than just spending the money, they also sacrificed time and effort to help. It can be argued that because the time and effort spent, consumers will be more involved in the CRM campaign than those who have not spent more effort. Consequently consumers will pay more attention to the campaign procedure and outcomes. Therefore, they will be more sensitive towards company donation and response time, as well as feeling less uncertainty and less perceived physical distance towards the cause.

H6: *Consumers' 1. social distance, 2. temporal distance, 3. physical distance, and 4. perceived uncertainty towards the cause mediates the effects of participation effort in the cause-related campaign on consumers' CRP purchase intention.*

3.2.5.5 Indirect effect of altruism on CRP buying through psychological distance

Consumers perceive companies conducting CRM to be altruistic if the companies promise to donate money to the social cause (Nan and Heo, 2007). Altruistic consumers therefore have more tendencies to incorporate CRM into their self-concept (Escalas, 2004; Escalas and Bettman, 2003; Chang and Lee, 2009, 2011). CRM can result in a sense of closeness or social identification, which is the inference that the sponsoring brand or company has certain desirable traits that resonate with consumers' sense of self (Lichtenstein, Drumwright and Braig, 2004; Mael and Ashforth, 1992 in Nan and Heo, 2007, p.66; Chang and Lee, 2009, 2011). A closer self-cause connection is more likely to form when the consumers' pro-social value is closely tied to the value of the company's (Russell and Russell, 2010). When self-cause connection is high, consumers see aspects of themselves mirrored in the CRM campaigns and are likely to have higher levels of willingness to buy the CRP (Edwards et al., 2009).

In addition, altruistic consumers are found to be more sympathetic towards people in need. Researchers found that intergroup relations could be improved due in part to people being altruistic and emphatic towards others (Bridgeman, 1979; 1981, Aronson, Blaney, Stephan, Sikes and Snapp, 1978; Aronson and Bridgeman, 1979 cited in Stepahn and Finlay, 1999). Moreover, it is suggested that altruistic motives could reduce perceived dissimilarity between one and another (Stephan and Finlay, 1999). More specifically, it may lead people to see that they are less different from others than they thought. It also leads to a perception of them sharing a common humanity and destiny as others (Gaertner, Mann, Dovidio, Murrell and Pomare, 1990; Stephan and Finlay, 1999). Further, it is also said that such people tend to acquire knowledge, understand the worldview of outgroup others and learn their cultural, norms, values and beliefs (Stepahn and Finlay, 1999). In regard to CRM, altruistic consumers are expected to buy CRP because they are willing to learn more about the cause beneficiaries as well as CRM details in need, and therefore reduce the sense of distance towards them. Given the above discussion, it can be proposed:

H7: Consumers' perceived 1. social distance, 2. temporal distance, 3. physical distance, 4. perceived uncertainty towards the cause mediates the effects of altruistic motives on consumers' CRP purchase intention.

3.2.5.6 Indirect effect of emotional intensity on CRP buying through psychological distance

Emotional intensity is the level of people's reaction to emotion eliciting stimuli. Much pro-social behaviour is made intuitively, based on immediate emotional reactions. It is well established that people who have stronger emotional responses (e.g. stronger empathy) are more likely to engage in pro-social activities (e.g. Wong and Bagozzi, 2005). The greater the emotional intensity, the less the psychological distance is toward an object or event (Van Boven, Kane, McGraw and Dale, 2010). For example, people who are more easily aroused by empathetic emotions tend to extend the self-concept by incorporating external elements into themselves and engender the same feelings and the same behaviour in the self (Lancaster and Foddy, 1988). When consumers find a cause closer to them as it is part of their self-concept (e.g. environmentally conscious people are likely to find recycling programmes closer to them), they are more likely to engage in pro-social activities such as CRM (Grau and Folse, 2007). Accordingly, it is proposed:

H8: Consumers' 1. social distance, 2. temporal distance, 3. physical distance, and 4. perceived uncertainty towards the cause mediates the effects of emotional intensity on consumers' CRP purchase intention.

3.3 Product Level and Psychological Distance

Prior CRM research has recorded different consumer response to different CRPs regarding the product nature. In their work, CRPs were generally categorised into ones that offer either utilitarian or hedonic benefits (Strahilevitz, 1999; Strahilevitz and Myers, 1998; Subrahmanyam, 2004; Chang, 2008; Chowdhury and Khare, 2011). More specifically, researchers stated that social causes are associated with certain products that dominantly offer "tangible, objective features that offer functional benefits, fulfil utilitarian needs, and are meant to solve problems" (e.g. going to a movie), and others dominantly offer symbolic benefits, "subjective, non-tangible features that fulfil experiential needs, and whose consumption produces enjoyment and pleasure" (e.g. buying a sports car) (Chowdhury and Khare, 2011, p.829).

However, scholars also noted that this categorisation might be overly general (Chang, 2008). First, not all products fit into either the purely hedonic or purely practical categories (Strahilevitz, 1999). Especially as markets are becoming more competitive, products are typically identified as both hedonic and utilitarian simultaneously (Voss, Spangenberg and Grohmann, 2003). For example, the chocolate brownie was identified as a hedonic product while it could also be bought as a meal choice (e.g. Strahilevitz and Myer, 1998). Additionally, it is known that consumer choice is influenced by the interaction of utilitarian and symbolic benefits (Foxall, 2007). The categorisation does not distinguish the symbolic meaning of a product, which many companies use to tie it to social causes. Clearly, although both could be categorized into the hedonic, a Formula One ticket will have more symbolic meaning to consumers than a chocolate brownie. Second, it can be argued that separating the two benefits completely neglected the social cause's effect on consumer responses in this specific context of CRM. CRP buying is an economic utilitarian acquisition but also gives symbolic benefits for helping. Even buying a practical CRP, such as a notebook, can also be reinforced by benefit, such as the good feeling of offering help other than the functional benefit of consumption (Foxall, 2005).

Therefore, it is deemed necessary to extend the consideration of product categorisation in order to have a deeper understanding of the product level's effect on consumer purchase behaviour in CRM (Chang, 2008). According to the interaction of utilitarian and symbolic/informational benefits, Foxall (2002) stipulates four relevant product levels associated with the consumer choice contingency: Accomplishment, Hedonism, Accumulation and Maintenance.

According to this classification, buying '*Accomplishment*' products is maintained by high levels of both utilitarian and symbolic benefits. They refer to consumption of social and economic achievement and acquisition and conspicuous consumption of status goods or personal fulfilment (Foxall, 1997). They are mostly used for their pleasure and thus provide extensive hedonic rewards. In addition, they are often status symbols. For example, going to a classical music concert can be seen as an act of gaining personal pleasure afforded by owning it, and the symbolic benefit of impressing others by showing social status. '*Hedonism*' products are associated with relatively high utilitarian and relatively low symbolic benefits. This type of purchase

regards consumption of popular entertainment that brings near-constant hedonic reward, such as TV or a video game. '*Accumulation*' products are image-oriented consumption associated with relatively low utilitarian and relatively high symbolic benefits. They are generally described as saving and collecting and token-based buying, such as collecting coupons, monthly instalments or collecting for a trivial free gift. '*Maintenance*' products are associated with relatively low levels of both utilitarian and symbolic benefits. They are usually bought by routine and out of habit that neither results in personal satisfaction nor increases social recognition; an example would be grocery items (Foxall, 1997, 2007).

Research suggests that characteristics of products associated with utilitarian and symbolic benefit aspects determine the nature of rational or emotional responses to those products (Chaudhuri, 2006 in Chowdhury et al., 2011). It can be argued that *Accomplishment* products can offer consumers utilitarian functions of the product and also a high level of symbolic benefit in the form of social approval. Consumption such as buying an expensive Formula One ticket thus is highly motivated by symbolic benefits, which are evidenced to result in sensual pleasure and guilt. Research suggests that both pleasure and guilt can significantly increase an individual's willingness to engage in charitable giving behaviour (Baumann et al., 1981; Isen and Levin, 1972; Chang, 2008). Moreover, guilt induced by such pleasure-based consumption can appear even before consumers' actual purchase behaviour, adding a negative component to an otherwise pleasurable experience (Strahilevitz and Myers, 1998, p.436). Regarding CRP buying, pleasure generated from *Accomplishment* consumption induces guilt whereas the pleasure of warm glow generated from helping reduces guilt. The guilt induced from buying an *Accomplishment* product may lead to consumers trying to rationalise their purchase and thus overcome cognitive dissonance (Okada, 2005; Chang, 2008; Polonsky and Wood, 2001). Doing good for a social cause can provide such a justification (Chowdhury et al., 2001).

Hedonism products are typically associated with low symbolic benefits but high functionality (Foxall, 1997). Consumers who buy a video game are mainly attracted by the potential interesting experience of the game rather than to realise their social esteem. Although the high level of utilitarian benefits can introduce pleasure and guilt feeling, it can be argued the effect would not be as strong as buying *Accomplishment*

products (Foxall, 1997). However, it can also be argued that the positive feeling generated by making a contribution to a charity might counteract the lack of symbolic benefit from the product alone. Therefore, *Hedonism* products could also be effective in CRM.

It is expected that *Accumulation* products might not attract much CRP buying because of the product nature. Although it is a common way of charities attracting giving by asking consumers to opt in to a monthly payment as a donation (e.g. £3 per month to adopt a near extinct animal), it would not be effective if CRM was tied to such an accumulated way. CRP buying is arguably, firstly, an economic acquisition of a commercial product. Most CRP buying is conducted because consumers want to gain immediate acquisition value. Supporting social causes might be the additional motivation to get the product. *Accumulation* products can only be gained after episodes of payment (Foxall, 2005). More importantly, with the episodes of payment, the cost of acquiring a product might be highlighted. Adding extra cost of supporting a social cause might be salient in this case and could also be seen as a trade off between helping and getting the product quicker (Liu and Aaker, 2009).

Lastly, it is expected that *Maintenance* products provide opportunities for linking to CRM. This is mainly due to the frequency of purchase for this type of product as most of them are routine shopping items. Although *Maintenance* products are associated with relatively low levels of both utilitarian and symbolic benefit, it is argued that the utility provided by such products is always important to consumers (Foxall, 2007). In terms of the buyer's self esteem, it might be important among a few close friends but it does not have any broader connotations within the society (Foxall, 2007). Tying a social cause to a *Maintenance* product thus could reinforce the self image in front of the close social circle, which in turn encourages CPR buying. Importantly, this categorisation has not been empirically tested in the context of CRM and thus calls for special consideration. In the light of the preceding discussion, it is therefore proposed:

H9.1: CRP buying will differ across the four product levels: maintenance, accumulation, hedonism and accomplishment products.

As aforementioned, a closer perceived relation between self and the social cause would result in greater positive attitude and preference for the cause and the CRP (e.g. Hajjat, 2003; Grau and Pirsch, 2007). Also discussed was that the guilt induced by acquiring *Accomplishment* and *Hedonic* products might use social causes as justification for the pleasure derived from the high level of utilitarian or symbolic benefits (e.g. Chang, 2008; Chowdhury et al., 2011). Thus, in the case of these products, consumers should have higher preference for products engaging in CRM activities, regardless of whether the supported cause is perceived as close or distant from an individual self (Chowdhury and Khare, 2011). Additionally, research suggests that for *Maintenance* and *Accumulation* products, the acquisition of utilitarian benefit provides the main justification for the product purchase and that the external benefit of helping a cause might not be as salient as compared to the other two levels of products. However, it is suggested that CRM messages are more persuasive when they match consumers' self-concept (Cacioppo, Petty, and Sidera, 1982). Further to this, the closer relation can give additional symbolic meanings to consumers, in addition to and beyond functional information (Chowdhury and Khare, 2011). Therefore, perceived closeness to the cause can arguably increase the effect of helping even in the case of products with low level of symbolic benefits. According to these discussions, it can thus be proposed:

H9.2: Consumers' purchase intention of CRPs will vary across product levels based on psychological distance towards the social causes.

3.4 Donation Magnitude and Psychological Distance

Another important structural element in CRM is the company donation (e.g. Chang, 2008; Strahilevitz, 1999; Strahilevitz and Myers, 1998; Holmes and Kilbane, 1993; Dahl and Lavack, 1995; Pracejus, Olsen and Brown, 2003, 2004; Folse, Niedrich and Grau, 2010). Although in some cases it has other forms, the most common method of CRM donation is that companies donate according to consumers' transaction of sales (Varadarajan and Menon, 1988; Folse, Niedrich and Grau, 2010). Donation magnitude or donation size is a design element directly controlled by CRM managers (Muller et

al., 2014). The current CRM market, however, might be quite confusing and even misleading to consumers (Pracejus, Olsen, and Brown, 2003). Campaigns vary in their donation magnitude. For example, Tommy Hilfiger gave 50% of the price of a bag to Breast Health International. Procter and Gamble conducted a campaign which promised £0.054 (1% of the price) to UNICEF for every featured product sold. Therefore, how consumers perceive and respond to different levels of donation magnitude associated with each purchase is a key area of investigation in CRM (Chang, 2008).

While consumers usually express positive attitude towards the idea of CRM (Webb and Mohr, 1998; Ross et al., 1992; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004), prior research shows contradicting results on the effect of donation magnitude on consumer responses in CRM (e.g. Chang, 2008; Chang and Lee, 2008; Strahilevitz, 1999; Hajjat, 2003). Some researchers suggest that consumer choice of CRP usually comes under certain conditions, with a majority might prefer a larger donation with product price held equal (Moonsmayer and Fulijahn, 2010; Dahl and Lavack, 1995; Strahilevitz, 1999). These researchers argue that small donations might give the impression of exploiting the social cause, which leads to doubts about the company's motive for participating in CRM (Dahl and Lavack, 1995). Larger donations thus are generally evaluated more positively (Moonsmayer and Fujiahn, 2010). In addition, Strahilevitz (1999) argues that there will be a relation between how much people give and how they feel about it consequently. Consumers may also view small donations as tacky or cheap (Strahilevitz, 1999). This is evidenced by charitable giving research that shows that some people do feel better giving more (Jacoby, 1997; Dickert, Sagara and Slovic, 2011).

A contrasting view to this argument is relating to consumers' psychology when facing a large size of donation attached to a product to purchase. The aversion to small donation discussed above is likely to be less pronounced in the case of CRM. Unlike direct donation, CRM provides an opportunity for consumers to feel good about making a contribution to a social cause. For consumers who shy away from large donations or those who do not feel like contributing more, buying CRP is deemed desirable as a pro-social act. Indeed, the donation magnitude is decided by the company not consumers, and therefore they do not have to feel responsible for

contributing less (Strahilevitz, 1999). Moreover, consumers may think large donations represent firms trying to take credit for doing something good for society at the expense of consumers (Strahilevitz, 1999; Hajjat, 2003 in Chang, 2008, p.593). Greater cost is likely to occur due to firms giving more per purchase. Such cost is likely to be passed on to consumers in one way or another (e.g. fewer price promotions) (Strahilevitz, 1999). Empirical studies from Folse, Niedrich and Grau (2010) show that increasing the firm's donation amount is negatively associated with consumers' purchase intention of CRP. This is also supported by other studies (Moonsmayer and Fulijahn; 2010; Boenigk and Schuchardt, 2013).

Considerations of donation magnitude in CRP buying can often involve consumers being asked to contribute slightly more in addition to the price of the same product (e.g. Evian charges a price premium for products in promotion to support Breast Cancer Research). Meyer's study (1999) also shows that two-thirds of UK consumers are willing to pay more for a product associated with a good cause. Research has also tested participants' responses to choices between a CRP in which the money is donated and an equivalent non-CRP, which offers a price reduction of equal size (Muller et al., 2014). To illustrate, a consumer could be asked to choose from a box of orange juice with a promise to donate to a certain charity (charged at £1.65 with 10p donation), or the same box charged at £1.60 down from £1.65 originally. In both cases, consumers face a fairly straightforward financial trade-off/cost – they either do something good by choosing the CRP or they can gain a financial advantage by selecting the competitive offer or choosing not to pay the extra premium (Muller et al., 2014).

The reason why this kind of financial trade-off needed to be taken into consideration in CRM research is because CRPs face competition from alternatives with other types of promotion. Price discount is the most common promotional means that consumers face when choosing products. In retail environment, where the majority of CRPs are sold, this competition is even fiercer. Studies down this stream tend to find that larger donations hurt sales whereas small magnitude is more easily accepted (e.g. Arora and Henderson, 2007; Strahilevitz, 1999, Subrahmanyam, 2004; Chang and Lee, 2008). For example, Chang and Lee (2008) found that consumers are not actually willing to share the costs with companies to support social causes even though they say they may be.

Their studies show that consumers would accept a product with a cause more easily when the magnitude is lower than when it is higher. Subrahmanyam (2004) tested consumers' purchase intention within a varying price differential (5%, 10%, 25%, 50%) between CRPs and non-CRPs and found that CRPs at a price premium would decrease the likelihood of consumers purchasing the product unless the consumers were told the difference would go to charities helping social causes (Subrahmanyam, 2004). Strahilevitz (1999) examined the effect of price differentials (5%, 25% and 50%) between CRPS and non-CRPs as donation magnitude on consumers' purchase intention on different product types. The author found that consumers would be more likely to buy a CRP "when the donation and corresponding price difference are relatively small than when they are relatively large" (Strahilevitz, 1999, p.231).

Although this result contradicts the intuition that doing more good leads to more purchases, the studies show that consumers prefer direct financial benefit when facing a large trade-off or sacrifice between charity motive and economic self-interest. Scholars explained that helping decreases when cost increases due to the fact that donors are price sensitive (Chang and Lee, 2008). However, it is clear that prior research has only manipulated the CRM elements such as donation level, product type, product price, and trade-off amount to examine the effectiveness of different strategies. The results derived thus do not represent how consumers feel about the social cause involved. Given CRP buying is a giving behaviour, it could be argued that how much consumers are willing to contribute or to sacrifice their economic interest is also largely down to how consumers perceive the social cause. Importantly, pro-social literature has repeatedly demonstrated that the relation between the consumer and the social cause determines the effort and sacrifice they are willing to devote to support the cause (e.g. Olivola and Liu, 2009). For example, studies on charitable giving show that people give more when they find the causes are more relevant to them (Lafferty, 1996). In the case of CRM, limited research has been done to investigate the effect of perceived closeness and distance between consumers and the social cause on purchase intention of CRP with different donation magnitude. An exception is Hajjat's (2003) study that examined the interactive effect of consumer personal involvement with the cause and donation level. However, the study did not specify the relationship between consumers and social cause, and hence limited implications for research and businesses.

Indeed, when the economic sacrifice (either donation premium or the same discount amount) to the giver is relatively high, fewer people are likely to choose to make a relatively substantial contribution for a good cause in the absence of emotional stimuli (Strahilevitz, 1999). It can be argued that psychological closeness towards social causes provides emotional stimuli for CRPs that request larger amount. In general, it can be argued that consumers will prefer CRP with higher donation magnitude when they are psychologically closer to the social cause.

First, it is repeatedly evidenced that people are likely to offer more help to those they believe are socially closer than socially distant others (e.g. Henderson, Huang, and Chang, 2012; Rachlin and Jones, 2008). It can thus be argued that CRP buyers will want to and expect to give more help, in this case a higher level of donation attached to the product (Hajjat, 2003). Second, the temporal factors of CRM can assign significance to the support that motivates more contribution. For example, a call from a social cause to support disaster relief would create a sense of urgency in consumers' minds. They may be willing to offer more contributions in order to fulfil the timely request. Third, a sense of being physically close to a cause recipient extracts a higher level of empathy or more information to understand the situation, both of which mean a higher level of potential donation. For example, research shows that people are more likely to donate more to causes that are closer to them (Ellen et al., 2000). In addition, people sometimes increase physical distance from others to avoid obligations to help (Pancer, 1988; Pancer et al., 1979). Such increased distance also signals that people are aware of the negative relationship between distance and the likelihood of giving more help (Henderson et al., 2012, p.220). Last but not least, a high level of certainty towards the CRM result gives reassurance to consumers that the contribution to social causes is worth it. Prior research shows that if consumers are more likely to invest more in investment with lower risks (e.g. Miller, 1977; Fombrun and Shanley, 1990). In the case of buying CRO, it thus can be argued that large contributions may be given for campaigns that are highly expected to have the desired outcome. Based on the discussion,

H10: Consumers' purchase intention of CRP will vary on high and low donation magnitude items depending on the psychological distance towards the cause.

3.5 Cross-cultural Difference of CRP Buying

First adopted in North American and European countries, such as the US and the UK, in the last decade CRM has been seen in the emerging Asian countries such as China as a business trend (Wang, 2014; Lavack and Kropp, 2003). Although relatively new as a marketing practice in China, research shows that CRM has a growing demand for corporate social responsibility among Chinese consumers (Darigan, 2010; Cone, 2010). While the concept of CRM is transferrable from western countries to the Chinese market, businesses are advised to consider a variety of market environments that differ in consumer traits (Wang, 2014; Luo, 2005). With global expansion, organisations need to adjust their strategies to fit the surrounding environment to improve performance when marketing conduct is constrained by different context (Luo, 2005). To stimulate CRP buying, CRM strategy is most notably conditioned by the culture contexts in the target markets (Wang, 2014; La Ferle et al., 2013; Kim and Johnson, 2013; Singh et al., 2009).

Previous research has pointed out that a person's disposition and behaviour is affected not only by his or her own make up, but also by the norms and beliefs of the cultural environment (Hofstede, 1980; Steenkamp, Hofstede and Wedel, 1999; La Ferle, Kuber, and Edwards, 2013; Wagner, 1995; Franke and Hofstede, 1991; Wang, 2014). In particular, prior research has identified two cultural dimensions, namely individualism and collectivism (Hofstede, 1991). The two constructs summaries "fundamental differences in how the relationship between individuals and societies is construed and whether individuals or groups are seen as the basic unit of analysis" (Oyserman and Lee, 2008, p.311). Systematic changes in cultural orientation between western (e.g. the UK) and eastern countries (e.g. China) have been widely documented (Hofstede, 1991; Triandis, 1995). Consumers' perception of self, view on the relationship with others and beliefs of social norms all differ from country to country (Wang, 2014). It is argued that consumers in some countries may be, on average, have higher self-construal levels than consumers in other countries (e.g. Markus and Kitayama, 1991). Consumers can view themselves either as individuated entities (independent) or they can view themselves in a relation with others (interdependent).

More specifically, in Individualistic countries, such as the UK, there is a focus on individuals. Societies such as this exist to promote the interest of individuals, prioritise personal goals over in-group goals, and rely more on attitudes than on social norms (Oyserman and Lee, 2008; Laufer et al., 2010; Oyserman, Coon and Kimmelmeier, 2002; Wang, 2014). People in more individualist cultures will have self-cognitions and refer to themselves as independent, self-contained and distinct units (Markus and Kitayama, 1991). In contrast, collectivist countries tend to emphasize the social group as the primary unit of analysis (Laufer et al., 2010). Seen as fundamentally connected and related through relationships, members of collectivist societies tend to have an interdependent or sociocentric self-concept because their identification of themselves and their personal interest is located in their group membership (Laufer et al., 2010; Oyserman and Lee, 2008; Bochner, 1994).

The perceived differences between self and others in individualist and collectivist cultures have been associated with pro-social behaviours including CRP buying (e.g. Kim and Johnson, 2012; Robinson et al., 2012; Singh et al., 2008; Betancourt, Hardin and Manzi, 1992; Baron and Miller, 2000; Kimmelmeier, Jambor and Letner, 2006; Laufer et al., 2010; Wang, 2014; Tata and Leong, 1994; Basil, 2007). In general, researchers argue that people from individualist cultures will regard themselves as more differentiated and separate from others (Bochner, 1994). On the other hand, more connected relationships with others make people from collectivist cultures very sensitive to the demands of their social context and more responsive to the assumed needs of others, and therefore should be more likely to offer help to others (Bochner, 1994; Levine et al., 2010).

However, recent discussions of cultural factors on pro-social behaviours point out that cultural individualism has the potential for promoting charitable giving (Kimmelmeier et al., 2006; Wang, 2014). It is suggested that people from such societies regard pro-social action as a matter of personal responsibility as individualist self-actualization is about living one's life as responsible and being a conscientious citizen who is able to make informed ethical choices (Kimmelmeier et al., 2006). Pro-social behaviours thus become as a matter of principled decision making in these countries due to such individualist contexts, personal values and preferences (Triandis, 1989; Waterman,

1984). Therefore, researchers argue these factors should increase social interdependence and pro-social behaviours (Waterman, 1984).

Moreover, research also points out that collectivism should not necessarily always be equated with concerns for individuals outside of one's relevant collective (Levine et al., 2001). It is argued that pro-social helping behaviours can be seen as normative in-group solidarity. That is, people in collectivist countries are always expected to support their in-group members. Because of this mechanical solidarity, the in-group and out-group boundaries might sometimes be more firmly drawn (e.g. Lyengar, Lepper and Ross, 1999; Schwartz and Bilsky, 1990; Schwartz, 1990). Therefore, some studies show that collectivistic cultures often focus less attention on outsiders than do individualistic cultures and that helping tend to be given primarily to the in-group (e.g. Sethi, Lepper and Ross, 1999; Gomez, Kirkman and Shapiro, 2000). This indicates that collectivist people are less likely to extend helping beyond the in-group to out-group members including strangers (Kimmelmeier et al., 2006). With regard to the two particular nation contexts included in this thesis, research suggests that Chinese are likely to hold deep relationships with a narrow group of people and a sharper distinction between in-groups and out-groups than their UK counterparts (Wong and Bagozzi, 2005). In CRM, compared to UK consumers, this is likely to result in closer (more distal) psychological distance between self and in-group (out-group) members, and in turn more willingness to support those in-group causes.

Furthermore, it is noted that cultures may differ in consumers' attitudes toward time or in their perception of time (Gell, 1992, Helfrich, 1996, in Du, Green and Myerson, 2002, p.480; Takahashi et al., 2008). Researchers further suggest that such differences can lead to differences in temporal discounting of rewards (Du et al., 2002; Chen, Ng and Rao, 2005; Frederick et al., 2002; Tan and Johnson, 1996). Behavioural economic and social psychological research has together evidenced that Westerns in individualist culture are more impulsive and inconsistent in intertemporal choice behaviour in comparison to Easterners in collectivist culture due to distinct cognition style (different allocation of attention) (e.g. Takahashi et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2005; Du et al., 2002) and future orientation (Joireman, Sprott and Spangenberg, 2005; Tangari et al., 2010). More specifically, Westerns in individualist culture focus their attention more on the magnitude of a reward in *lieu* of its context, and therefore are more

affected by a proximal reward than by the distant one in the future. Moreover, they are more impervious to the time existing in between of the rewards. In comparison, consumers from collectivist culture are found to focus equally on the immediate and delayed rewards as well as the time interval between the rewards because they tend to allocate their attention more holistically (Takahashi et al., 2008, p.2). Similar with the research that collectivist consumers tend to discount future rewards less (Takahashi et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2005), Du et al., (2002) also found there were differences among the Chinese and American groups in the rates at which the consumers discount delayed rewards. Literature also suggested that collectivists are more future oriented and hence have a lower discount rate compared to individualists who are more present oriented (e.g. Joireman et al., 2005; Tangari et al., 2010). These results mean that among consumers from collectivist and individualist cultures, there is a great difference in preference to obtain an immediate gain or a delayed reward. Applying to the CRM context, consumers' perceived temporal distance may elicit different influence on CRP buying due to the cultural influence. In particular, there may be a varying degree of preference in wanting the social cause to receive immediate donation. There also may be a difference in perceptions towards donations made after long period of campaign. In the latter condition, UK consumers arguably tend to discount more of the campaign outcome.

Similarly, it is found that under different culture context, consumers will differ in their attitudes toward risk or in their perceptions toward risk (Weber and Hsee, 1998), and the differences could lead to probability discounting (Du et al., 2002, p.480). With respect to outcomes with low probabilities (e.g. probability of having a desired outcome from CRM), Chinese are found to be less risk-averse than Westerners (e.g. Americans) with respect to financial decisions. In addition, individuals from Western countries discounted probabilistic rewards the more than the Chinese consumers (Du et al., 2002). CRP buying is a combination of economic and social giving behaviour. When consumers buy a CRP, they automatically contribute to the later donation made to a social cause with the expense of paying for the product. Therefore, the perceptions they have of the probable desired CRM campaign outcome will largely influence their CRP buying. In this sense, comparing the two countries' consumers, how certain consumers feel about the realisation of the desired outcome may have different influence on CRP buying, such that individualist consumers such as UK consumers

may feel less certain about a CRM campaign outcome than the Chinese consumers. Taking the above discussions together, a hypothesis can be proposed that:

H11: Psychological distance will have different influence on CRP buying for UK and Chinese consumers.

Researchers have widely acknowledged that in collectivist cultures (such as China), people perceive relational value (Chan, Yim and Lam, 2010), and favour altruism more than the people in individualist cultures (such as the UK) (Moorman and Blackely, 1995; Trolli and Shavitt, 2010; Robinson, Irmak and Jayachandran, 2012). Collectivist consumers are said to have more altruistic motives and tend to care more about contributing to society rather than their own value and goals (Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Lee et al., 2000; Iyengar and Lepper, 1999; Robinson et al., 2012). It is evidenced in research that consumers from individualist culture (e.g. US) and collectivist culture (e.g. Hong Kong) have different philanthropic orientation (Singh et al., 2008; Polonsky et al., 2001; Rawwas et al., 1994; Al Khatib et al., 2005). In addition, people from the two different cultural backgrounds have variations in emotions including differences in the intensity (Aaker and Williams, 1998; Kitayama et al., 2006; Markus and Kitayama, 1991; Kim and Johnson, 2013). Particularly in pro-social helping settings, consumers have been found to elicit varying degree of empathy and sympathy, which in turn lead to their pro-social behaviour (e.g. Kim and Johnson, 2012; Trommsdorff, Friedlmeier and Mayer, 2007). Since CRP buying is a form of pro-social helping behaviour that requires consumers to give to the social causes, it is thus logical to assume the intention to buy may vary across the two cultural contexts due to consumers' pro-social characteristics, i.e. altruism and emotional intensity.

Moreover, cross-national studies also noted that the surrounding market environment could impact consumers' responses to pro-social strategy (Wang, 2014; La Ferle et al., 2013). It can be argued that CRP buying will vary in the UK and China due to the companies' CRM practices and the consequent differences in consumers' perception of CRM. Due to the much shorter history of CRM and less established CSR system in China (Shue, 2011), Chinese consumers on average may be less familiar with the concept of CRM compared to their counterparts from developed economies such as the UK where CRM is more widely practiced (Wang, 2014; Cone, 2015; Darigan and

post, 2009). The unfamiliarity could create a sense of distrust of cause outcome in general, which prohibits CRP buying behaviour (Lieberman et al., 2007). Following the same logic, consumers may not be willing to offer even more endeavour and time to participate in a CRM campaign. In addition, Chinese companies are reported to still place important emphasis on economic features and are much less engaged in the social dimension and only contribute a small proportion of profit inconsistently to charitable causes annually (Zu and Song, 2008; Tang and Li, 2009; Chu and Lin, 2012). With regard to the NPO and charities associated in CRM campaigns, Chinese consumers are reported to have a lasting distrust in the CRM credibility due to the large scandals in the recent years (Hatton, 2013; Kazer, 2013). In this sense, the CRM campaigns may be deemed as less credible too. Therefore, for Chinese consumers credibility issue can be of great importance in driving their decisions to buy CRPs. Similarly, cause fit has been found to have different effect in markets that differ in intensity of practices (e.g. Nan and Heo, 2007). Research found that cause fit does not have a large impact on consumer response when the CRM campaign is unfamiliar to the consumers. The researchers give explanation that these consumers are more influenced by salient feature of products such as brand and price. (Nan and Heo, 2007). It thus can be argued that UK and Chinese consumers' CRP buying may differ due to the above discussed CRM perceptions. Furthermore, it is suggested that Chinese consumers have a weaker sense of citizen responsibility due to strong government control, which leads to a perception that charitable behaviours are largely a governmental, rather than an individual undertaking (Wang, 2014). Therefore, compared to the UK, Chinese society may have a lower expectation for individuals to give larger amount to social causes (Yang and Ge, 2010; Yang, 2012 in Wang, 2014). It is reasonable to assume that donation amount associated with CRPs may have different impact on consumers' CRP buying from the two countries. Based on the two aspects of discussions above, the following hypotheses were developed:

***H12:** CRP buying will differ between Chinese and UK consumers, such that 1. CRP buying antecedents will have different influence on CRP buying, and 2. buying of products with high and low donation magnitude will differ in two groups.*

4. Conclusion

This chapter has sought to develop a framework for consumers' CRP buying, applying the theory of psychological distance (Trope and Liberman, 2010). It has explained psychological distance and specified the ways of applying its principle components in the chosen context of CRM. The proposed explanatory account of the CRP buying can be summated into an analytical frameworks (**Figure. 2-1**).

Built on literature on CRM and psychological distance, the analytical model proposed in this thesis include a set of CRP buying antecedents (i.e. consumer perception of CRM variables and consumers' pro-social characteristics), four psychological distance dimensions, consumers' general purchase intention of CRP and consumers' purchase intention in two conditions with CRM structures (i.e. four product levels and high vs. low donation magnitude). Regarding the hypotheses development for psychological distance in CRP buying, the first section based on previous literature on CRM and proposed the relationship between consumer perception of CRM and consumers' pro-social characteristics and purchase intention of CRPs. The examination of psychological distance's role in CRP buying is proposed as the relationship between the four distance dimensions (temporal, social, physical and uncertainty) and purchase intention, and as a series of mediating role in CRP buying antecedents and CRP buying intention. Further to this, the thesis proposed psychological distance's effect on consumers' CRP buying under different CRM buying structures, namely products with four product levels and high and low donation magnitudes. Lastly, culture effect has been proposed to see the difference in CRP buying between UK and Chinese consumers.

The next chapter will provide a description of the research methodology and the findings of the first empirical study of this thesis, which was conducted to examine to explore psychological distance in CRM context.

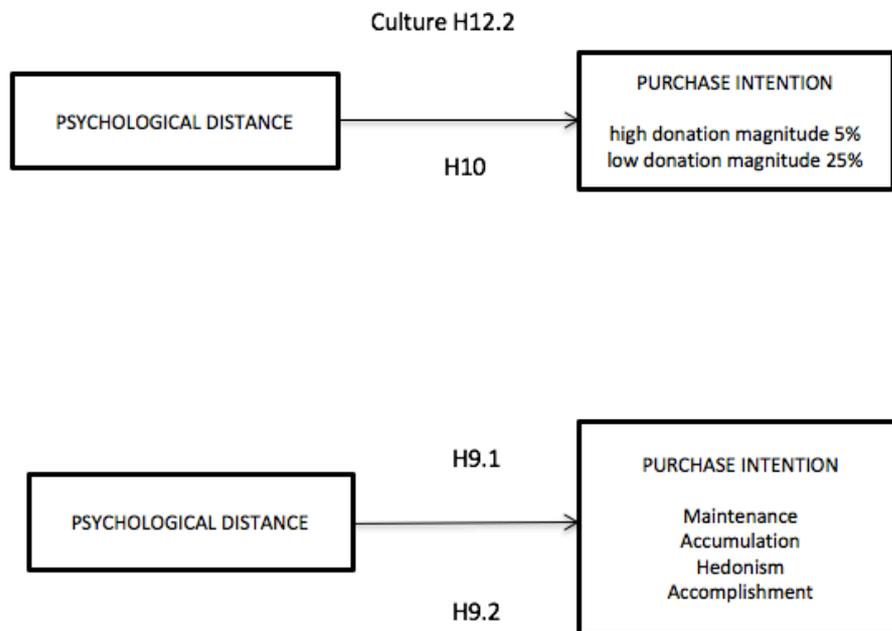
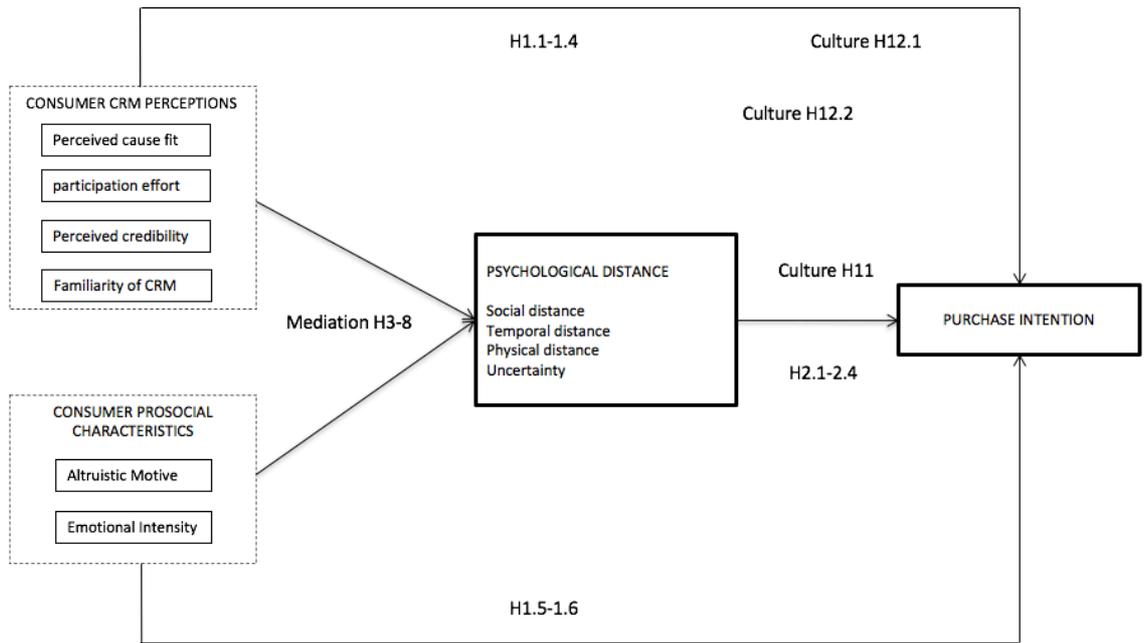


Figure (2-1): Conceptual models of CRP buying

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND

EXPLORATORY STUDY

1. Introduction

Previous chapters identified gap in the existing literatures on buying behaviours in CRM and proposed the significant role of psychological distance on choice of cause-related products (CRPs). Significantly evidenced by previous research, the way consumers experience events that are psychologically proximal or distant from self (individual consumer), has impact on their buying decisions (e.g. Olivola and Liu, 2009; Goldsmith et al, 2011; Winterich and Barone, 2011; Henderson et al, 2011). In the light of such indication, this thesis seeks to understand how psychological distance influence CRP buying that is a combination of pro-social giving and economic buying behaviour (Winterich and Barone, 2011).

Chapter Two has reviewed previous literatures on CRM and psychological distance. In seeking to explore the psychological distance's potential to enlighten understanding of the psychology in consumers' CRP buying behaviour, Chapter Two has discussed the theory's key dimensions and, based on previous studies in psychological distance and CRM, proposed ways of interpreting and applying these constructs in the CRM context. Importantly, it has demonstrated that the purchase behaviours on CRP could be fruitfully interpreted with all four dimensions of consumers' psychological distance towards social causes. In addition, it has discussed the influence of psychological distance on the effect of two sets of CRP buying antecedents, (namely factors relating to consumer perceptions of CRM and consumers' pro-social attributes), and CRM structure factors (i.e. various levels of products, and donation magnitude). Furthermore, Chapter Two has discussed psychological distance's impact on CRP buying in a cross-cultural context.

Since the theory of psychological distance has not been studied in the context of CRM before, Chapter Three first seeks to explore the determinants of each distance dimension within the concept and the factors to be considered when studying CRP purchase behaviour. The current chapter thus continues to focus on the task of examining the respective roles of the components in the research conceptual framework: psychological distance, consumer perceptions of CRM, consumer pro-social attributes and CRM structural factors.

This chapter will include discussion of the thesis' methodology and the exploratory study. Firstly, it discusses the philosophical stance of methodology and its implication on the current research. Secondly, this chapter outlines a general approach for the inquiry in this research and presents detailed objectives for each study. Thirdly, Study One of this research will be discussed in this chapter, including the method Study One adopts, the procedure, the analysis and the discussion.

2. Research philosophy

2.1 The big picture- the two and alternative paradigms

“Questions of method are secondary to questions of paradigm”

(Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p.105).

All research starts from the broadest level where lies issues of philosophical assumptions. These philosophical assumptions, in turn, inform the use of theoretical stance by a researcher. Methodological approach of research, which is “a strategy, a plan of action, or a research design” (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p.38), is led by the theoretical stance. On the bottom level, such research strategy then implies methods, techniques or procedures used to collect, analyse, and interpret the data (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Crotty, 1998).

Clearly, following such logic, one step prior to selecting an adequate research method is to understand the underlying philosophical beliefs and assumptions as they shape the process of research and give strong implication of how the inquiry should be

conducted (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Burrell and Morgan, 1979, Marshall and Rossman, 2011). Therefore, it is imperative to understand and discuss the research philosophical aspect in detail to ensure approaches congruent to the nature and aims of particular inquiries adopted.

Philosophical stance of research include “a basic set of beliefs” (Creswell, 1998, p74) and “a variety of assumptions regarding the nature of knowledge and the methods through which that knowledge can be obtained, as well as a set of root assumptions about the nature of the phenomena to be investigated” (Morgan and Smircich, 1980, p.491). A term to describe such beliefs and assumptions is *paradigm* or *worldview* (Kuhn, 1970; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Sale, Lohfeld and Brazil, 2002). The assumptions about the nature of social world which lead the research of social and behavioural science split into two paradigms, known respectively as the *positivism* and *interpretivism* (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Guba and Lincoln, 1994, Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Hassard, 1991).

In their seminal work on philosophical framework of social science, Burrell and Morgan (1979) conceptualized four sets of philosophical assumptions under each paradigm, which relate to (1) the nature of reality (the ontology issues), (2) the grounds of knowledge (the epistemology issues), (3) the relationship between reality and human beings (assumptions relating to human nature), and (4) the process of research or the method of investigating and obtaining knowledge about the real world (the methodological issues) (1979, p.1; see **Figure.3-1**).

The assumptions of the two paradigms individually represent an objective or subjective viewpoint of the world (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). The *Ontological* position of positivists (objectivists) is that there is only one truth. Reality exists independently of human perception and could be found only through objective research. Whereas interpretivism (subjectivism) views reality exist through experience of it and is unique to individuals. There are multiple realities based on individuals’ construction of reality. They believe reality is socially constructed (Berger and Luckmann, 1966) and hence is constantly changing (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998).

Epistemologically speaking, positivism sees investigator and the object of study as independent entities (Salt, et al, 2002). Knowledge is seen as “hard, real and capable of being transmitted” (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p.1-2), and therefore “inquiry takes place as through a one way mirror” (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p.110). In contrast, interpretivists believe that knowledge is “a soft, more subjective, spiritual or even transcendental kind, based on experience and insight of a unique and essentially personal nature” (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p.110). In the positivistic paradigm, the investigator is able to study phenomena without influencing it or being influenced by it (Salt, et al, 2002; Bogdan and Taylor, 1975). On the other extreme end, the inquirer and the inquired are seen interactively linked, and the findings are mutually created within the context of the situation (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, cited in Salt et al, 2002; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994).

Further, the two paradigms have different assumptions regarding *human nature*-whether human are the controller or as the controlled by reality. In line with the assumptions of positivistic stance, human nature is deterministic, that is, casual laws exists to explain the pattern of human behaviour (e.g. Easterby-Smith et al, 1991). On the other hand, the belief subjectivists hold is that human nature is voluntaristic, that is, humans are intentional beings who have freewill and are autonomous. Their own immediate experience shapes the world (Morgan and Smircich, 1980, pp494).

Led by the above philosophical assumptions, *on the methodological level*, positivism focuses on explanation, prediction and control and so relies on scientific methods (Lee, 1991) by measuring and analysing casual relationships between variables (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994). Approaches to ensure this are quantitatively based, including “randomization, blinding, highly structured protocols, and written or orally administered questionnaires with a limited range of predetermined responses” (Salt, et al, 2002, p.45). Data is collected on predetermined instruments and large sample size that represents large populations should be used to predict broad and generalizable trends (Carey, 1993; Remenyi, Williams, Money, and Swartz, 1998). Interpretivists pay interests in processes and meanings of the research, and therefore use qualitative approaches including in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, and observation to get a deeper contextual picture. Open-ended data is collected through small, purposeful samples (Reid, 1996).

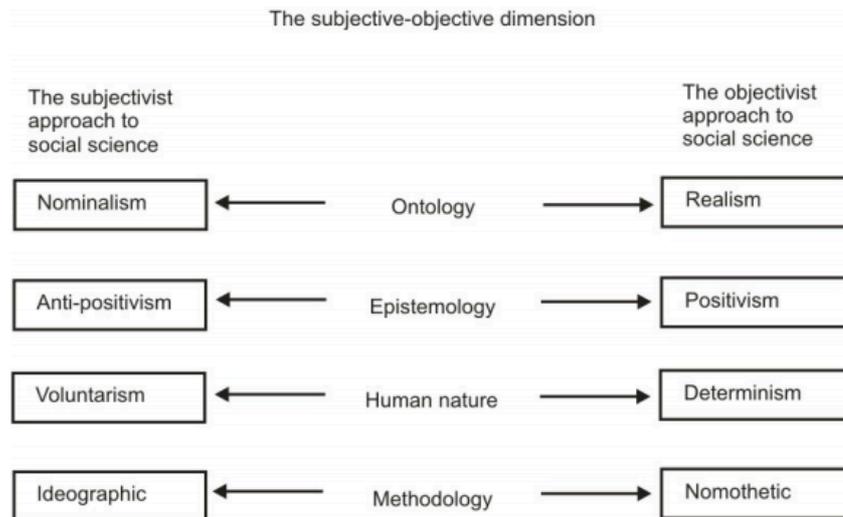


Figure (3-1): A scheme for analysing assumptions about the nature of social science (Burrell and Morgan, 1979)

The underlying assumptions of the two paradigms resulted in the longstanding quantitative-qualitative debate across social and behavioural field regarding which stance is more superior (e.g. Reichardt and Rallis, 1994; Smith, 1983). The quantitative methods used in social sciences are considered “appropriate for capturing a view of the social world as a concrete structure” and therefore “can reveal the nature of the social world by examining lawful relations between elements that, for the sake of accurate definition and measurement, have to be abstracted from their context” (Morgan and Smircich, 1980, p.498). However, this idea has been criticized that positivism is unable to reach its own goals of having specific truth which is independent of its own subjective construction (Morgan and Smircich, 1980), “but only probabilistic inferences of truth in which theory never becomes regarded as fact” (Kim, 2003, p.12). Moreover, positivists disregard the fact that researchers make subjective decisions throughout the research processes that precede objective verification decisions. Consequently, any interpretations of the empirical data yielded cannot be entirely objective. (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005).

As a result of unsatisfactory with methods derived from natural science, interpretive perspectives are now increasingly overtaking the positivism (Belk, 1995). Researchers that hold an interpretivistic view argue that the dominance of positivism could

potentially jeopardize the soundness of research in social science (Remenyi, et al, 1998). For example, methods aiming at drawing causal inferences can ignore influential contextual elements embedded in human behaviour by examining only phenomena that are readily observable (Kim, 2003). In fact, “historical change, contextual fields of information, and processes through which human beings engage in symbolic models of discourse, create their reality, and project themselves from the transcendental to more prosaic realms of experience, can be captured and measured only through means of static techniques and only in the most partial and limited of ways” and these approaches are more often than not qualitative rather than quantitative (Morgan and Smircich, 1980, p.498). They focus on the meaning of phenomena in social context rather than its objective measurement, and social phenomena are not determined by causes because they are “engaged in a process of continuous creation” (Hirschman, 1986, p.238). Despite the argument, interpretivistic purists also risk adopting the relativist attitude where no attention paid to provide an adequate rationale and public inspection for interpretations of their data (Onwuegbuzie, 2000; Constas, 1992).

It is not difficult to see that much of the debate and criticism is largely based on researchers’ own belief on the basic assumptions about their subject. The argument, in fact, remains that neither of the stances can be considered superior to the other (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Hunt, 1991). Very little research today makes extreme assumptions. Most consumer research has been from a more moderate objective position. A new trend of assumptions therefore has raised and argues the qualitative and quantitative viewpoints should be seen as *compatible* rather than mutually exclusive (e.g. House, 1994; Howe, 1988; Hunt, 1991; Hudson and Ozanne, 1988), as they share enough similarities in fundamental values and ideologies (Reichardt and Rallis, 1994). For example, both stances believe “that the world is complex and stratified and often difficult to understand”, and that “any given set of data can be explained by many theories (Reichardt and Rallis, 1994, p.88-89). Consequently, reflecting on the philosophical level, it can be argued a continuum exists between the two extremes in which a different paradigm posited as *pragmatism* (Creswell, 2003; Creswell and Clark, 2011; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998, 2003). Pragmatists argue that “scientific inquiry is not formalistic and that researchers may be both objective and subjective in epistemological orientation over the course of studying a research

question” (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998, p.25). Unlike the beliefs under other paradigms that search for metaphysical truth, pragmatism considers a practical level of truth exists and believes when judging ideas one should consider their empirical and practical consequences (Dewey, 1948; James, 1995, 2000). Epistemologically, researcher must be interactive with the reality at some points during the study of subject, while at others can stand apart from it (Howe, 1988; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). “This middle-positioned paradigm offers a practical and outcome-oriented method of inquiry that is based on action and leads, iteratively, to further action and the elimination of doubt, and it offers a method for selecting methodological mixes that can help researchers better answer many of their research questions” (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p.17).

2.2 Science and interpretation in inquiry of consumer studies

The discussion in the above section gives an overview of the philosophical paradigms and their assumptions that lead research processes and methods. It argues that research does not necessarily adopt either of the two extreme paradigmatic stances (either subjective or objective stance), but is usually positioned at the *middle ground* of the stances. The *pragmatism* considers the practical concerns with human existence, the research questions being asked, and the consequences of inquiry, to be more important than which version of the truth is more superior to another (James, 1970; Giacobbi, Poczwardowski, and Hager, 2005, p.22). Therefore pragmatists accept the external reality and choose most practical explanations that best produce desired outcomes (Baum, 1994; Leigland, 1999. 2010; Moore, 2008). Descending from the theoretical level, the inquiry of the current research requires insights from both sides. The arguments will therefore be largely built on this “practical” point. In general, there are two broad lines of explanation in social and behavioural sciences, especially consumer research, that (1) observed behaviour is explained through unobservable mental structures such as attitudes; and that (2) behaviours are explained through the realm of observation (Foxall, 1997). According to the first explanation, cognitivism in consumer studies holds a deterministic view that “reify internal subjective states and explain behaviour as being determined by these states” (Hudson and Ozanne, 1988,

p.510). More specifically, cognitivists believe the concept of human nature is “a rational information processor who forms beliefs, attitudes, and intentions that are casually determinant of his behaviour” (Anderson, 1986, p.160). Arguments against this pure positivism or intentional stance (Foxall, 1999) state that the influence of important context factors have been ignored when it comes to analysing actual consumer behaviour (Tadajewski and Wagner-Tsukamoto, 2006; Wagner-Tsukamoto and Tadajewski, 2006). More specifically, choice behaviour has always been modeled in a more positivistic style (Menon and Kahn, 1995, Meyers-Levy and Tybout, 1997). The epistemological position postulates the existence of casual relationship between the two conceptually separated aspects of cognition and behaviour. This has generated limited view of cognition that marginalizes the complex relationship between context and choice (Wagner, 2003). It is suggested context and choice behaviour should be integrated rather than exist as independent, exogenous variables (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Mitchell and Dacin, 1996). Therefore, it holds an interpretative potential when contextual factors are to be explored. This initial interpretation of some phenomenon in the specific context where current research falls into conforms to the meaning given to the phenomenon through the researcher’s lived experience of it (Weber, 2004). For example, before “predicting” and “explaining” the behaviour as positivism achieves, interpretivists argue there comes a prerequisite for doing research-*Verstehen*, which is defined as grasping the shared meaning within a culture of language, contexts, and roles et al. (Wax, 1967). Getting shared meaning is especially important in the current research because one of the objects is to see cultural impact on CRP buying. In the situation where the researcher is unfamiliar with the shared meaning, qualitative techniques should be employed (Wax, 1967). As a matter of act, Hunt (1991) reviewed relevant studies on philosophical issues in the context of *consumer research*, and stated that there exists no dominant paradigm or philosophical “ism” in consumer studies, as “consumer research’s history is best characterized by the open, often indiscriminate, borrowing of disparate methods and theories from everywhere” (Hunt, 2003, p.217).

In conclusion, the current research can never be categorised into either of the extreme end, as it does not intend to find either a subjective or objective truth, but an effective way of understanding CRP buying. The above discussion provides a hint foreshadowing that research approach of cognitivism in consumer research could be

more flexible. In other words, the philosophical stance of current research leans towards pragmatic, which is an intermediate state between the two extreme ends. It enables researcher to adopt a pluralistic stance of gathering all types of data to best answer the research questions (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Notwithstanding the intermediate position, methodologically, this thesis still remains *positivistically-inclined* methodological, in the sense that it applies mostly on quantitative methods. However, cognitive points are also challenged to be ignoring contextual factors and therefore interpretive techniques are used to aid the understanding of human behaviour, mostly through accessing the unobservable via observable (e.g. verbal) behaviour.

3. Research approach

3.1 A mixed-method approach: the justification

Scholars suggest that the question of interest plays a central role in the process of designing any methodology, and therefore the methodological approach must match the research problem, purpose and questions (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). The current research aims to examine the impact of psychological distance in consumers' CRP buying decisions and the cultural difference of CRP buying in different country contexts. The discussion in the literature review (Chapter Two) shows that this thesis follows a preliminary framework of psychological distance. Although the concept has been longstanding studied in social psychology and applied widely on different contexts of people's decision-makings (e.g. Trope and Liberman, 2010; Magali et al., 2012), It is still relatively less explored in the area of consumer buying decisions in the CRM context. As aforementioned in the previous chapters, psychological distance in CRP buying requires further investigation because CRP buying is beyond simply helping and giving to social causes. All four dimension of psychological distance is highly relevant to CRP buying. For example, it also involves people making buying decisions for the future CRM projects, their uncertainty associated with the desirable outcomes and their perceived physical distance from the cause beneficiaries. Therefore, based on a list of pre-determined factors indicated in prior literature (e.g. social distance) might not be comprehensive to learn the effect of psychological

distance on CRP buying. Moreover, since the psychological distance has not been studied in CRP buying, it is important to establish the determinants of each dimension of psychological distance. For these reasons, it is clear that the conceptual framework regarding psychological distance is to be built. In addition, this study also aims to explore the CRP buying behaviour and find out how CRP buying antecedents and CRM structural factors contribute to consumers' buying of CRP. This thesis acknowledges that the research problem needs to be studied through multiple phases. For that reason, a sequential two-study approach is adopted to ensure the issues to be examined in a systematic way.

As previously mentioned, pragmatism leads this thesis' research approach and design, aiming to determine the meaning of words, concepts, beliefs and ideas by adopting both subjective and objective point of view. It is therefore logical to adopt a *mixed-method* consisting of two qualitative and quantitative strands for the current research. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) suggest integrating methodological approaches enhances the overall research design and benefit interdisciplinary studies. Legitimately combining qualitative and quantitative approaches are for the purpose of (1) gaining a more complete understanding of phenomena by achieving cross-validation or triangulation-combining two or more theories or sources of data (Denzin, 1970), (2) achieving inclusive, pluralistic, and complementary results by using the strengths of one method to help develop or inform the other, "where development is broadly constructed to include sampling and implementation, as well as measurement decisions" (Greene, Caracelli, and Graham, 1989, cited in Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p.62; Morgan, 1998; Salt, et al, 2002), (3) answering different research questions, (4) seeks the discovery of new perspectives of frameworks (Green et al, 1989).

These reasons also stand in conducting the current research. First of all, before moving onto a systematic analysis of the proposed relationship (e.g. "What is the impact of psychological distance on consumer intention to buy CRPs?"), it is necessary to begin with a prior *exploratory investigation* to not only categorise factors in each distance dimension, but also ensure the general *applicability* of the proposed explanation (e.g. "Is temporal distance important in consumer buying decisions of CRPs?"). Secondly, besides providing validation of explanation in consumer buying, this preliminary

exploratory study also serves the purpose of *instrument development*, that is, identifying the key factors influencing the product choice for psychological distance dimensions at the later research stage. It hence meets the need of identifying important variables to study quantitatively when the variables are unknown (Creswell, 1999). This will support the research question by gaining a better understanding of consumers' experiences about CRP purchase and exploring whether such experiences can be explained by the psychological distance concept. Moreover, it will provide material for questionnaire design including actual buying behaviour reported by participants, as an interview is able to obtain a large amount of information that can be adaptable to individual situations (Kerlinger, 1964). Individual situations or experiences may contribute to the questionnaire design. This technique is also used in other social research, and it is proven that instrument that is revised in order to match the respondents' language more closely is more successful in later studies (Blumberg et al, 2005).

The combination is also rationalised in terms of qualitative research providing contextual understanding of the target studied context of CRM, coupled with generalised relationships among variables uncovered through a later quantitative study (Bryman, 2006; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). There is little known in terms of what determine each psychological distance dimensions in CRP buying. Therefore, mixed-method is used to extend both the breadth and range of this thesis' inquiry (Greene, Caracelli, and Graham, 1989). More specifically, different methods will be used for different inquiry components - an exploratory qualitative study for investigating the determinants of each distance dimension and the consumers' experience of CRP buying, combined with a quantitative study to examine the relationships.

3.2 The design of mixed method approach

Guided by the research objectives and questions, the design of a mixed-method approach should reflect *interaction, priory, timing and mixing* of the qualitative and quantitative strands. The level of *interaction* between the two strands is one important factor to consider in designing mixed method approach (Creswell and Plano Clark,

2011). Two general options of a relationship could exist in a mixed method study: independent and interactive (Greene, 2007). Qualitative and quantitative strands are implemented distinctly, which would indicate an independent level of interaction, when they reflect separate research question, data collection process and analysis. They are only mixed when conclusions are drawn for the overall interpretation of the research. Alternatively, the two strands directly interact with each other, which allow the two methods mixed before final interpretation of results (Creswell, 1994; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Greene, 2007). Following the current research's objective, the two strands are interacted in a way that the design and conduct of quantitative strand depends on the results from the qualitative one (item development).

In the light of the earlier arguments in this section, this study utilizes a quantitative *priority* where a greater emphasis is place on the quantitative method, with the qualitative study utilized in a preliminary capacity at early enquiry stage, supporting in a secondary role as item development method (Creswell, 1994; Creswell, Fetters, Plano Clark and Morales, 2009). In addition, the *temporal relationship* between the qualitative and quantitative strands within a research project is also a consideration in the design of mixed method study. It discusses the order in which the data collection and analysis are done (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Because the qualitative study is conducted for the purpose of developing items for the quantitative study later on, the data should be collected and analysed before the later study. Therefore, for this research, the two strands follow a *sequential timing* principle. Following the objectives of the research approach, the two strands of mixed methods are implemented in a sequentially phases. Finally, where to mix the two approached within the mixed method design should be discussed. For the current research, the qualitative and quantitative strands are mixed in the level of larger design stage of the research process, based on the fact that they are mixed within an overall research objective that guides the studies in a multiphase project (Greene, 2007). Technically speaking, a supplemental qualitative strand is embedded within a larger quantitative design, as the purpose for the qualitative study is to explore and build items for the quantitative study (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011).

A mixed methods design is only persuasive and strong when consideration of the above criteria is addressed appropriately. In light of such decisions on priority,

interaction, timing and mixing of the qualitative and quantitative strands, rationales and objectives of the intended studies are presented as follows. The premises of this design are that a single data set is not sufficient, that different questions need to be answered, and that each type of questions requires different types of data (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011, p.91). The research questions are approached by an *embedded sequential* design (see **Table. 3-1**), where qualitative measures are used to *enhance* quantitative tools and overall design (Ulin, Waszak, and Pfannenschmidt, 1996; Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). More specifically, *Study One* is designed to contribute to the first object of this thesis, that is, by conducting a preliminary qualitative investigation to identify factors affecting consumer buying of CRPs and categorise into the four dimensions of psychological distance: temporal, physical, social distance and uncertainty. Built upon the exploratory results, a second, quantitative phase (*Study Two*) is designed to test and generalise the initial findings in order to analyse the effects of psychological distance dimensions. Study Two will be included in the Chapter Four and Five.

Sequential		
	Qualitative strand (Study One)	Quantitative strand (Study Two)
Purpose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Explore and extend the breath and range of inquiry · Develop determinants for distance dimensions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Examine relationships
Research question answered	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · What determines psychological distance dimensions in the context of CRM? · What CRM attributes and consumer attributes affects CRP buying? · Does psychological distance matter in CRP buying? · Are there differences between UK and Chinese participants regarding CRP buying? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · What is the impact of psychological distance on CRP buying? · Are there any significant differences among consumers' CROP buying in different country contexts?
Subject	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Psychological distance constructs in CRM context · Explore CRP buying factors 	CRP buying antecedents + psychological distance + product level + donation magnitude
Result	Initial validation of the conceptual framework proposed	Examination of direct and indirect effects
Propositions	Initial supporting	Hypotheses

Table (3-1): Mixed Method: Embedded approach

4. Research strategy and data collection

4.1 Instrument

In seeking to explore rather than predict cause-related product choice, and to develop measures for future systematic analysis, Study One adopts an in-depth interview strategy in order to capture the deep meaning of buying CRPs in the participants' own words (Marshall and Rossman, 2011; Kvale, 1996). In-depth interview is a typical tool for investigating individuals' lived experiences on particular consumption phenomena and is deemed to be the most direct way to obtain specific information from consumers' perspective (Marshall and Rossman, 2011; Guest, Namey, and Mitchell, 2013). An in-depth interview is defined as "a set of probing questions posed one-on-one to a subject" to gain knowledge of what the subject consider something or why they behave in a certain way (Burns and Bush, 2006, p.221). In market research, in-depth interviews have been used as a common tool to obtain unrestricted opinions of consumers in order to better understand the various dimensions of these opinions as well as the reasons for them (Burns and Bush, 2006; Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). They are also suggested to be a powerful tool if one wants to understand decision making in an individual level, especially when it involves emotional experiences (Wansink, 2000).

There are a few reasons why the in-depth interviewing is the most appropriate means for developing items. On a basic level, in-depth interviews are a powerful tool that is especially useful for both *exploring and explaining* phenomena (Guest et al, 2013). The strength of this technique lies in its unique format and structure. Firstly, the *one-on-one* format of in-depth interviewing allows the researchers to not only get insights of mere facts, but also gain deep meanings of certain elements of the experience from the interviewees (Guest et al, 2013; Fink, 2003; Marshall and Rossman, 2011). This allows researchers to capture the participants' responses precisely, not just the interviewing content but also the tone, and body language (Guest et al, 2013), which indicate more information such as emotions. It has been discussed in the previous chapter that emotions could play a role in determining CRP buying, and therefore accurate capture of participants' body language and facial expression is seen as important as the content of the interviews.

Secondly, the *one-to-one* setting also ensures participants would feel comfortable and safe discussing topics that are sensitive, controversial, confidential, or highly personal (Guest et al, 2013). Discussing attitudes to NPOs, charitable donation and experiences in participating in supporting charitable causes needs such environment in which is free from peer-pressure and social embarrassment. Anything other interview formats such as focus group discussion is not suitable for the topic of current research as it could prevent the interviewees from showing their real attitudes toward CRM and buying CRPs because it is usually seen as a “right” thing to do, and therefore they might be concerned about offending someone else by answering in the “wrong” or socially unacceptable way. However, potential bias still exists to give socially desired answer still exists in the in-depth one-on-one setting (Guest et al, 2013; Douglas, 1976). Building trust is therefore important. This could be limited at maximum by good question framing and gentle probing for elaboration (Marshall and Rossman, 2013).

Lastly, the questions for in-depth interviewing are distinctively *open-ended* which are designed to lead the conversation into the topic of interest and are constructed so as to encourage discursive, detailed, and highly textured responses (Guest et al, 2013). This method is thus appropriate for a topic as the psychological distance in cause-related product choice, in which area limited is known. Open-ended questions are necessary to help frame the boundaries of the topic, which helps identify variables and frame hypotheses for quantitative research in the later stage of the research (Weiss, 2008). This further substantiated the selection of the one-on-one interview instrument for Study One.

4.2 Sampling and interview participants

4.2.1 Sampling criteria and method

Sampling is one of the most crucial aspects in research design. Researchers could choose approach either concerning non-probability sampling or probability sampling (Guest et al, 2013). Probability sampling uses random processes to select individuals or other units for a study, and therefore can calculate whether the chosen sample represents the larger population well (Henry, 2009). In contrast, non-probability

sampling essentially refers to all forms of sampling that are not conducted through probability sampling (Bryman, 2012).

The primary drive of selecting a sampling strategy should be whether it suits answering the research question in the scope of research design and objectives (Breakwell, et al, 2006; Polkinghorne, 2005; Guest et al, 2013). Probability sampling is often chosen if representativeness of the results is the absolute priority in the research objective (Guest et al, 2013). Hence it is rarely used in qualitative research based on interviews (Bryman, 2012), whereas is mostly seen in survey research or other statistical studies (Bryman, 2012; May, 2001; Bernard, 2002). Nevertheless, researchers do argue that from a pragmatic perspective, randomly choosing a sample advantages qualitative research (Guest et al, 2013).

On the other hand, researchers state that non-probability sampling is the norm for qualitative inquiry (e.g. Guest et al, 2013; Bryman, 2008; May, 2001; Bernard, 2002; Patton, 2002). Although this type of sampling approach does not attribute the results to the entire study population as its opposite does, it still can generalise conceptually (May, 2001; Guest et al, 2013). This is due to the fact that non-probability sampling selection fits qualitative studies' design and objective (Guest et al, 2013; Marshall and Rossman, 2011). Indeed, qualitative inquiry is not intended or designed for statistical generalizability (Gest et al, 2013). Rather, it seeks to generate rich, contextually laden data in order to understand "common processes, shared experiences and understandings, or to identify shared cultural knowledge and norms" (Guest et al, 2013, p.48). It is widely accepted that non-probability sampling fulfills such goal and that it is used to "obtain evidence about individuals whose experiences are particularly relevant to the study's research questions" (Henry, 2009, p.81).

Regarding the current study (Study One), it does not intend to draw a statistically representative conclusion. The objective is closely linked to the research questions and aims to support them by exploring the common language and scenarios of consumers' experiences with CRM and buying relative products, and further contribute such responses to the later questionnaire design (Study Two). In light of the above argument, this study adopts a non-probability sampling approach.

4.2.2 Sample size and characteristics of participants

After discussing sampling criteria and choosing the appropriate approaches, the next step is to decide the sample size for the study (Cohen et al, 2007). Regarding the adequate sample sizes in qualitative inquiry, researchers argue as long as the samples could serve the objective of the study, no rules should determine an appropriate selection of interviewees (Breakwell, et al, 2006). Creswell (1998) suggests between five and twenty-five interviews for a in-depth interview study. Due to the purpose of cross-cultural comparison, this study chose two samples of 10, 20 in total, with each from a Chinese and UK background.

The strategy for recruiting participants in this study starts with *convenience sampling*, from which data was collected from whatever cases present themselves. This implies that researchers use what is available and easily accessible (Bryman, 2008; Basit, 2010). This allows recruiting participants from personal connections, with the consideration of the limited money and time as an individual researcher. This study then followed the rule of *maximum variation* that features a relatively wide range of demographics of age, sex, education, income level, geographic location, and occupation (Patton, 2002). This method serves the exploratory purpose of the study that investigate in the choice of cause-related products among *general consumers*. Moreover, by using a sample consisting a wide range of demographics, the bias caused by convenience sampling thus could be largely limited (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Maximum variation sampling has been used and supported by several preliminary qualitative CRM studies as it can document the diversity of opinions and variety of consumers' purchase experiences with CRPs (e.g. Ross et al, 1992; Webb and Mohr, 1998). Using different non-probabilistic sampling methods in different stage is common in qualitative inquiry as it considers both the informational adequacy and the efficiency of these methods (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Marshall and Rossman, 2011).

As suggested in the sampling approach section, the sample **Table (3-2)** consists of participants divided evenly between men and women, and covers a wide spectrum of ages from 18 to 64 (Group Chinese: 18-64; Group UK: 22-62). Group One (Chinese)'s participants were selected UK-based or from cities in different regions of China.

Group Two (UK)'s participants were selected from both North and South of England (Durham and London). Participants' occupations include student, housewife, retired, factory worker, painter, young professional, manager, company executive, and business owner. The interviewer assessed each participant in terms of overall socioeconomic status (SES). 9% of the participants were classified as low SES, 52% as middle SES, and 39% as high SES. Data regarding income and education provide further support for the variety of consumers interviewed (Webb and Mohr, 1998).

Group		UK	China
Age Cohort	51 years or more	1	1
	41-50	2	2
	31-41	3	3
	19-30	4	3
	Younger than 18	0	1
Gender	Female	6	5
	Male	4	5
Education level	High School	1	2
	University/College	5	6
	Graduate School	4	2
Income level	< £15,000 / <¥30,000	4	2
	£15,000-£25,000 / ¥30,000-80,000	2	1
	£25,000-£35,000 / ¥80,000-¥200,000	3	4
	>£35,000 / >¥200,000	1	3
Occupation	Admin/Clerical	0	1
	Manual	1	0
	Professional	4	3
	Full-time student	3	2
	Self-employed	1	3
	Not working (Housewife/retired)	1	1

Table (3-2): Study One Participant Characteristics

4.3 Procedure

4.3.1 Interview guide: developing questions

The first step of developing an efficient in-depth interview instrument begins with a building an *interview guide* which contains a review of the study’s research questions and objectives, the primary domain of content to be covered in the interviews, as well as the type of data needed to provide the answers (e.g. opinions, experiences, attitudes, and lists), as these aspects will influence the format and content of the instrument and the questions within it (Gorden, 1992; Guest et al, 2013). **Table (3-3)** contains the framework for the interview guide for Study One.

(1) Main enquiries the interview is designed to answer	(2) Primary domains of content to be covered in the interview	(3) Types of data needed
What determines psychological distance dimensions in the context of CRM?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Temporal · Social · Physical 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> List Experiences Opinion
Does psychological distance matter in CRP buying?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Uncertainty 	
What factors affect CRP buying?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Knowledge of CRM 	Knowledge
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Personal attitudes and experience of CRM and buying CRP 	Attitudes
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · CRP buying antecedents 	Attitudes/Opinion/List./Experience
Are there differences between UK and Chinese participants regarding CRP buying?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · CRM structural factors 	Experience
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Different buying behaviour 	Opinion
		Attitudes
		Knowledge

Table (3-3): Interview guide framework
Source: made according to Gorden (1992)’s framework

Semi-structured interviews were thought the best tool to identify and describe the many factors likely to influence consumers’ experience with CRM (Webb and Mohr, 1998). The final interview guide was developed through the next few steps, following

Krueger and Casey (2009)'s approach. The researchers give guidance with steps to take to developing effective interview questions when using a semi-structured instrument. This procedure is considered important as it enhances research *validity*. (Guest et al, 2012). Validity should be enhanced through all stages of research process. Since designing research instrument is at the very beginning of the research process, it is crucial to ensure high credibility (Guest et al, 2012). The interview questions were created according to this interview guide.

4.3.1.1 Initial formation of questions

Followed the Section (2) in **Table (3-3)** primary domains of content to be covered in the interview, three to five potential questions were created for each point to map the objectives. For example, to ask about factors relating to consumer-related attributes, an example question was created as "What do you think about the people who buy CRPs?" The finished questions for each domain were compared and collated in order to combine similar ones. Identical questions with both Chinese and English versions were developed in this stage.

4.3.1.2 Phrasing questions

The interview questions were designed *open-ended* because it served the goal of uncovering the topic more openly at various level of specificity with each participant (Bernard, 1988; Casey and Krueger, 1994), and to give participants more opportunities to describe in their words their opinions on CRM and what was important to them when choosing cause-related products (Esterberg, 2002).

As stated in previous section regarding Research Approach, the purpose of conducting a qualitative study is to (1) investigate what factors influence CRP purchase, in particular with the purpose of confirming whether psychological distance plays a role in buying, and (2) to explore each dimension of psychological distance in the context of CRP buying, given the fact that little knowledge is known how each dimension is determined in consumers' buying decision on products associated with social causes. Since the interview is designed for the confirmative purpose on hypotheses derived from literature review, with exploratory insight in each component to be confirmed, this interview design follows a hypothesis driven deductive principle.

Questions were then revised to make sure they directly address research objectives and seek answers to the research questions. While developing the question items, Yes or No phrasing was completely avoided. Each question item was made sure to present maximum clarity. A variety of question types including *descriptive and perception* questions were incorporated. Descriptive questions were designed to use in the beginning of the interview as a warm-up (e.g. “Can you tell me one time you have seen a CRM campaign?”). Perception questions were developed to ask about the domains of content (e.g. What would make you buy a CRP?). Each element of psychological distance was represented by at least one question.

4.3.1.3 Sequencing questions

Rephrased questions were organized into an order that flows logically, starting with more general and background questions then narrowing the focus to address the research objective more specifically to specific questions about each domain (Bernard, 1988; Guest et al, 2012; Berg, 2009; Warren and Karner, 2010). For example, general questions such as “what do you know about CRM” were to address first, followed by specific questions such as “ Can you please tell me what kind of products did you buy as a CRP? (product level)” The time for asking each question was estimated to allow interviews to fall into a reasonable length of time.

4.3.1.4 Reviewing questions

The draft interview guide with both language versions was passed onto an expert who speaks both languages fluently and is familiar with this topic. A meeting was held to discuss the comments for revising the guide accordingly.

4.3.1.5 Testing questions

A *pilot* study with two respondents (one Chinese and one British, very similar to but excluding from the target sample) was conducted to test the peer-reviewed, revised interview guide. According to the feedback, the grammar was modified and the structure of the questions was reorganized to more acceptable in oral discussion, on the basis of how well the questions were working in the pilot study (Merrill and West, 2009).

4.3.2 Conducting the interviews

Interviews were conducted in the UK and China. All participants were approached with a one-on-one in person interview although 8 were based on online video calls across Skype. It is logistically simpler, especially when the participants reside in a geographically distant location (Mann and Stewart, 2000). Moreover, video-call serves the similar requirements as one-on-one interviews because the researcher could capture the responses in the same way and that the obtained diagnostic information is as valid as that obtained in person (Rohde and Lewinsohn, 1997; Branthwaite and Patterson, 2011). There was no technical failure in the process of video-call interviews. Hence the bias of online interview was eliminated. Other in-person interviews were conducted in comfortable, permissive yet relatively private environment (Krueger, 1994; Mann and Stewart, 2000) such as private houses, quiet corner of a coffee shop etc. The relative private environment ensured participants to discuss freely without peer pressure about the amount of effort they have put in supporting charities.

Following the accepted interview procedure of working from general to specific question (Bernard, 1988), the participants were firstly asked more general questions regarding corporate social responsibility to get them into the direction (e.g. “Do you think companies should help society and the community, such as an NPO?”). To determine the knowledge participants had about CRM, they were asked for examples of CRM campaigns (e.g. “Have you ever seen or heard of a company supporting an NPO or a charity? If so, can you tell me when and where you saw it?”) They then were given a definition of CRM following Ross, Patterson and Stutts (1992):

“Companies have sponsored advertising campaigns designed to get people to support worthwhile causes by non-profit organizations (NPOs). This strategy is known as cause related marketing. Most cause-related marketing (CRM) takes the form of a company asking the consumers to purchase the company’s product in return for the company making a donation to the cause or an NPO.”

A typical example of a CRM campaign and product in their countries were described to them in order to enhance the knowledge of CRM or to refresh their memories

(Nongfushanquan bottled water bundling Hope Primary School in China; ASDA's Tickled Pink t-shirt bundling breast cancer research in the UK). General questions regarding CRM then were asked (e.g. "Why would you buy a CRP?" "What would make you buy or not buy such a product?"), followed by specific questions regarding each domain of content (see earlier section 4.3.1). Interviews contained in-depth probing. Hence, some inductive, unscripted questions were asked based on the participants' previous response if it was regarding the particular interest of the exploring more themes other than the identified domains (Seidman, 2006). The order of the interview questions were largely depending on the themes emerged during the dialogue. In situations where participants misunderstood the question, further clarifications were given to facilitate the dialogue. However, no extreme restriction in terms of the direction was stressed, because clearly, restricting on answers would limit the responses exploratory data. The duration of the interviews varied from approximately 45 minutes to an hour and half in length. In particular, some interviews needed more time than others in order to cover as well as explore the intended themes (psychological distance dimension elements) due to frequent changes of direction. However, sufficient time was given to fully encourage idea development (Hedges, 1985). In other cases where the researcher estimated time to spare, questions were revisited to see if there were any that could justifiably be added (Guest et al, 2012). Participants were all thanked after the interview finished. As suggested by most researchers (e.g. Bernard 2000; Guest et al, 2012; Marshall and Rossman, 2011; King and Horrocks, 2010), all interviews including those conducted by video calls were audio-recorded to maximize accuracy and completion of the dialogues (Guest et al, 2012). All participants were asked prior the interview and they gave permission for recording. Notes were taken throughout the each interview process by writing down key words in the responses. Additionally, the emotional climate of each interview was noted as it might effect the subsequent interpretations in the later analysis stage (Anderson, 1991).

4.4 Analysis

4.4.1 Organizing the data-transcribing, translating, cleaning the data

Human action can be seen as “a collection of symbols expressing layers of meaning” (Berg, 2001, pp.239). Therefore interview data can be transcribed into written text for analysis (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Berg, 2001, 2009). In the light of this argument, each recorded interview for this study was transcribed into readable texts, including every word the participants said. Pauses, repetitions and other sound such as laughter were also written down in between these verbatim transcripts, as they are likely to have meanings (Fraser, 2004; Silverman, 2001; Gibbs, 2008). The initial verbatim transcripts were then edited to change grammatically wrong words and sentences, to delete some filler words, and broken sentences etc., so as to make the texts clearer and more comprehensive to read (Powers, 2005). Since the group consisting Chinese participants was interviewed in Mandarin (Official language in P.R. China). The translating process of converting written words and ideas to English for this thesis was conducted. All the translated scripts were reviewed by another researcher who speaks both languages to ensure reliability.

4.4.2 Analytic approach to documents - quantifying the information encoded in the message by using content analysis

Content analysis is chosen to uncover the meanings from the transcribed data and the interpretation of participants’ experience of CRM (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005; Krippendorff, 2004; Berg, 2001; Holsti, 1968, 1969; Franzosi, 2008). It is suggested that the analytical method should serve the purpose of examining the meaning and symbolic content of qualitative data (Krippendorff, 1980). Study One aims at exploring psychological distance constructs in CRM context and factors affecting buying decisions of CRP through inquire to the symbolic meaning of messages from the interviews. Clearly, the interest of research lies in the content rather than the process (Millward, 2006).

Content analysis is a widely used method for analysing qualitative data gathered in the form of answers to open-ended questions (Krippendorff, 1980; Guest et al, 2012; Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009). It is defined as “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context” (Krippendorff, 1980, p.21).

For the common, as well as the simplest form, it is referred to as “*thematic content analysis*”, which aims to encode qualitative information in a systematic way that results in credible answers to the research questions and reflection of research objectives embedded within a study (Guest, MacQueen, and Namey, 2011, p.4). To do so, a researcher needs to identify, analyse, and report patterns or themes within data (Boyatzis, 1998; Braun and Clarke, 2006; Attride-Stirling, 2001; Tuckett, 2005). Krippendorff (1980) states that the task for content analysis is to “make inferences from data to certain aspects of their context and to justify these inferences in terms of the knowledge about the stable factors in the system of interest” (p.27). However, such unobtrusive data are often not amenable to analysis until the information they convey has been condensed and made systematically comparable (Berg, 2001, p. 238). In order to do so, an objective systematic classification process of coding was applied to the data to identify themes and patterns (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005).

Researchers suggest that the first step of content analysis is to *design* an approach to realize an idea and to operationalise a way of observing *reality* vicariously, where the interest of research is clarified and the available literature is explored for insights about the surrounding conditions of the qualitative data. The design of an approach for content analysis relies much on how to apply the framework (Krippendorff, 1980, p.170). Krippendorff (1980) suggests that such framework is built upon which reality to choose: whether it is (1) the reality of the data or (2) the reality of what the researcher wants to know about. The former one reveals whatever is derived from the data, whereas the latter emphasizes on the portion of reality where the researcher is interested in (Krippendorff, 1980; Braun and Clark, 2006; Berg, 2007).

Accordingly, two frameworks could be chosen to analyse the content of qualitative data based on the two different realities, which are respectively *inductive content-driven* and *deductive theory-driven* approach (Guest et al, 2012). While both approaches are to identify themes from the content of text data, they differ in terms of different coding schemes, origins of codes, and threats to trustworthiness (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005, p.1277). *Inductive* analysis is a content-driven enterprise, in a way that themes, codes and items are emergent within the raw data (Wengraf, 2001; Guest et al, 2011; Patton, 2002). In this approach, a researcher would read and re-read the data for any themes related to the investigated topic and the process of coding the data *does not*

involve trying to fit the data into the pre-existing coding frame, or any analytic preconceptions that are identified by previous research on this topic (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Rather, it aims at exploring the meaning underlying physical messages (Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009). Inductive content analysis relies on researcher repeatedly traveling back and forth between the data and an emerging structure of theoretical argument (Pratt, Rockmann, and Kaufmann, 2006; Locke, 2001). Therefore the reliability of coding is very important in this kind of approach (Huberman and Miles, 1994; Guest et al, 2011, 2012; Braun and Clarke, 2006).

In contrast, a *deductive* approach is used to work from the more general and broad spectrum of information to more specific conclusion (Wengraf, 2001; Braun and Clarke, 2006). The themes or defining categories are usually determined *prior to* reviewing the data according to some preliminary theory. Coding the data is based on instances or expressions of these themes (Guest al, 2011). This might result in data is coded to include, speak to, or expand on something approximating the original themes. Researchers use this kind of theoretical thematic analysis for their theoretical or analytic interest, which usually requires coding for specific research questions by generating concepts or variables from theory or previous studies (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009). Codes are counted in this analysis (Weber, 1990) and the frequencies of relevant categories.

However, in real research work, researchers do not mutually exclude the two approaches for content analysis. Rather, in some situations, a combination of both inductive and deductive analysis approach is increasingly important within applied qualitative research, (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005; Zhang and Mildemuth, 2009; Weber, 1990; Berg, 2001; Babbie and Mouton, 1998), which is also referred to as “explanatory or conceptual content analysis” (Guest et al, 2012, p.39).

One might argue qualitative research methods are difficult to reconcile with a positivist approach, as deductive approach would do. Guest et al. (2012, p.5) provided a convincing statement “it is what you do with qualitative data, and not the methods themselves, that define whether you are engaged in a research endeavor that is interpretive, positivist, or hybrid of the two.” Practically speaking, a model or conceptual framework of a topic in thematic content analysis serves as the evidence of

empirical connection between data and what is to be inferred from them. To justify any inferences from data, some hard knowledge and empirical evidence is essential, as “It is the knowledge that enables the researcher to place his data in a suitable content, to render them indicative of phenomena outside of themselves, and thus provides him with a logical bridge for marking inferences” (Krippendorff, 1980, p.172). Moreover, existing theories or prior literatures studying a phenomenon are likely to be incomplete therefore would benefit from further description (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005, p.1281). In the light of such argument, researchers point out that the best content analysis studies use both operations (Weber, 1990), because one can benefit from both sides – “qualitative analysis deals with the forms and antecedents-consequent patterns of form, while quantitative analysis deals with duration and frequency of form” (Smith, 1975, p.218).

Nevertheless, whether to combine the two approaches is largely depending on the research objective, i.e. what does a researcher want to obtain from the qualitative data. This study follows the guide by Morse and Mitcham (2002)’s stepwise conceptual research process that “includes deconstructing the concept to be explored from the existing literature, developing a skeletal conceptual framework for data collection that focuses inquiry but does not sharply define its limits, and using previous work as a scaffold to explore the internal structure and dynamics of the concept” (Morse and Mitcham, 2008; cited in Guest et al, 2011, p.38). As stated in the beginning of this section, Study One follows a specific research question and aims to understand the context of CRM by investigating the influencing factors in determining choice of CRPs. In particular, this study seeks to uncover the sub-factors that would be consisted in the four dimensions of psychological distance. Therefore, the analysis of the interview data is guided by a preliminary theoretical conceptual framework of psychological distance, meaning that it initially follows a deductive approach to use an initial list of coding categories based on the conceptual framework derived from existing research findings (Berg, 2001; Berelson, 1952; Silverman, 1993; Selltiz et al, 1959; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Hsieh and Shannon, 2005; Mayring, 2000). Meanwhile, since this study also seeks to *validate, extend and modify* the conceptual model by exploring components in each psychological distance dimension, within the course of data analysis, interview data will be interpreted and new themes will be

allowed to emerge inductively and added to the preliminary model (Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009; Hsieh and Shannon, 2005; Miles and Huberman, 1994).

The adoption of coding schemes developed in previous literatures is widely used by researchers (e.g. Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Krippendorff, 1980; Lichtman, 2012), as it has the advantage of supporting the accumulation and comparison of research findings across multiple studies (Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009, p. 311). Moreover, following existing theory can help focus research question in content analysis, as it can provide predictions about the variables of interest or about the relationships among variables, thus helping to determine the initial coding scheme or relationships between the codes (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005, p.1281). Following the above arguments, it is logical to take a thematic approach to examine the content of the data then proceeded to quantitatively analyse the identified themes by determining the frequencies in order to assess their importance in the decision making process.

4.4.3 Defining the unit of analysis

The next step before constructing content analysis is to define the unit of analysis, i.e. what basic unit of text to be classified and counted (Berg, 2007; Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009; Weber, 1990). This step is the most fundamental decision prior analysis, as text data have to be unitized before they can be coded, and coding decisions and comparability of outcomes with previous research findings can be affected by how the units are defined (Weber, 1990; De Wever et al, 2006; Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009). By counting the frequency of the unit of analysis, a researcher can then indicate their magnitude, as “it is more convincing when researchers demonstrate the appearance of a claimed observation in some large proportion of the material under study” (Berg, 2001, p.243).

Manifest content in the data, which refer to physically present and countable elements such as word, sentence or paragraph, could be used for unitizing for analysis. Alternatively, *latent content*, which is extended to an interpretive reading of the symbolism underlying the physical data and reveals the deep structural meaning conveyed by messages, can also be defined as units of analysis (Berg, 2001, p.242). As

this study also aims at testing viability of psychological distance dimensions in explaining the choice process of cause-related products, it is necessary to carefully interpret participants' responses and ideas rather than rely on mechanical counts of the times a word mentioned (Millard, 2006). Therefore, the participants' verbal statements are used as units of analysis.

4.4.4 Coding the data

Coding is part of analysis, as it is a process of organizing data into meaningful groups (Miles and Huberman, 1994; Tuckett, 2005). A code in content analysis refers to “the basic segment, or element, of the raw data or information that can be assessed in a meaningful way regarding the phenomenon” (Boyatzis, 1998, p.63). Researchers use codes to symbolically assign a “summative, salient, essence-capturing, and evocative attribute for a portion of language-based data” (Saldana, 2009, p.3).

To ensure the consistency of coding, a *coding manual* or *codebook* was created (Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009; Krippendorff, 1980; Berg, 2007). As argued in the previous section, the coding scheme and theme development process (see **Table.3-4** Codebook) is guided by the preliminary framework and previous studies specifying the nature of the investigated elements discussed in Chapter Two. Using existing theory, researchers suggest that analysis begins with identifying key concepts as initial coding categories (Potter and Levine-Donnerstein, 1999) and follows by defining operational concepts for each category (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). Accordingly, in this study data should be coded and categorised into ten *preliminary themes* (or concepts), which are temporal, social, physical, uncertainty distance factors and buying antecedents. Under each theme, *subordinate categories* were listed according to the discussion in Chapter Two. With regard to operational concepts of each theme and sub-theme, for instance, the theme “*Temporal Distance factors*” refers to any time-related factors having impact on creating a subjective feeling of distance toward a CRP. As the discussion in Chapter Two has shown that *company response timing* is an important temporal factor that determines feeling distant in a buying a CRP (e.g. Tangari et al, 2010; Ellen, et al, 2000; Skitka, 1999), it is then treated as a sub-theme for “Temporal distance factors”. Guided by the discussion in Chapter Two, “company response timing” is thus defined and put into codebook as “the perceived length of time to achieve the CRM campaign

goals (e.g. in three months time coke cola will donate 10% of the sales profit to a certain charity)”).

After defining the key themes and their sub-themes that derived from the conceptual framework, the coding process continued as each unit of data first was assigned its own code, then was categorised into the identified sub-themes. For example, statements where participants indicated the importance of how soon companies donate to the cause were coded and categorised under theme “Temporal distance” as “company respond timing”. Likewise, in line with the earlier discussion on physical distance toward a product associated with a social cause, statements where they stressed that the influence of how geographically proximal or distant the cause can have on consumers’ buying of CRPs were coded under theme “physical distance” as “cause location proximity” (e.g. Ross et al, 1992, Drumwright and Murphy, 2001). Text that could not be coded were identified and analysed later to determine if they represented a new category or sub category of the existing theme (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). New emerged themes will be discussed in detail in the Finding section later.

Themes are more useful unit to count to analyse qualitative data (Berg, 2001; Berelson, 1952; Merton, 1968; Selltiz et al, 1959). After coding process, the sub-themes were quantified by counts to see how frequent they appeared, with an attempt not to infer meaning but, rather, to explore usage (Potter and Levine-Donnerstein, 1999; Kondracki and Wellman, 2002; Holsti, 1969). Analysing for the frequency of themes that indicating interpretation of content helps to see the importance of each factor mentioned by the participants, so that later the factors can be compared with the findings in the previous research and used to develop questionnaire for later study.

According to the discussion in Chapter Two, this study also aims at exploring the effect of product level and donation magnitude on CRP buying. These effects are however analysed in a different fashion. This is because the participants tended to share stories about the shopping trips and descriptions about the consumption situation and use of products, the data collected regarding this aspect were consequently infrequent due to their narrative nature. Hence, analysis purely based on frequency for this aspect would have been inappropriate. Therefore, data relating to how consumers

reacted and chose different level of product consumption and the desirable level of donation were separated from the main body of data and analysed individually.

The analysis of the current study was conducted based on contingency tables consisting of the counts of appearing themes. Firstly, a general contingency table was created which consists of the major themes (i.e. components in conceptual framework of CRP buying; e.g. Temporal, Physical distance factors etc.) on the basis of the coding procedure. Secondly, a separate contingency table for each psychological distance theme containing their sub-themes was created (e.g. a table for temporal distance factor only containing its sub-themes, Company response timing etc.). Each table serves a specific purpose for analysis. The general contingency table facilitates a cross-factor analysis. The separate contingency table allows in-detail analysis that offers insights into the influences of each sub-factor. At each stage, the data were analysed quantitatively by comparing the number of times each factor was mentioned. In addition to the cross-factor analysis in a broad and detailed level, the analysis also includes group comparison between the responses from Chinese and UK participants. This inter-group analysis will provide additional insights into differences existing in the consumers from the two backgrounds. Finally, product level and donation magnitude will be analysed using more traditional qualitative technique that are commonly recommended for instances where researcher is interested in.

	Theoretical dimensions	Themes	Definition	Example
Psychological distance	Social distance	Self vs. others	The degree of the cause beneficiary is perceived as close to 'self'	I would definitely buy it if I found the cause is relevant to me, such as a cause that would improve my life etc., then it would have been something that stuck on my mind
		In-group vs. out-group	The degree of the cause beneficiary is perceived as close to participant's social group	In fact I think I would definitely get the cause product over just a normal one for someone who I'm emotionally close to. I would choose something relevant to my friends and my family we will be able to benefit from the cause rather than someone else such as African children
		Similarity in value	The degree of shared value consumer perceive in a sponsoring company	If I had come across the company's campaigns then I could know they were probably keen on helping people in society like I do. It doesn't matter what company, how big or small it is, if I know they are in this, I will be happy to help too.
	Physical distance	Cause location proximity	The perceived distance from self to where the CRM campaign offers help	I would also consider where is the donation going to is important, as in which part of the country the company donates to.

Table (3-4.1): Codebook: Themes, Definitions of themes and Examples of coding

	Theoretical dimensions	Themes	Definition	Example
Psychological Distance	Temporal distance	Cause duration	The temporal length the social cause being supported by the company	If its current definitely because you know around that time you were kind of exposed to the media like the news were all over TV
		Company response timing	The perceived length of time and frequency to achieve the cause campaign goals (e.g. every three months time coke cola will donate 10% of the sales profit to a charity)	It depends on how fast the people or the charities can receive the money or other forms of help.
		Purchase timing	The specific time of CRM purchase behaviour (usual time / Christmas)	Different time of year people have different shopping behaviour patterns. I'm quite charitable on holiday season so definitely will support more such products.
		Temporal relevance	Whether the CRP is promoted in a period when a social cause is typically promoted (e.g. Breast Cancer Awareness month)	Well in one of those awareness weeks or months, for example breast cancer and mental illness month, I find it easier to remind me or I would just think and read more about those causes. I guess that's why I will buy from the companies that donate to these causes during those months. When I know more, I will be happy to contribute.
	Uncertainty	Perceived motivation	The probability of social donation made to social causes induced by perceived motivation behind the CRM campaign (e.g. profit-driven campaign puts doubt if the donation will reach people in need)	The motivation of the company. Is it profit-driven? If so who knows where the money goes. That'd probably make difference too.
		Possibility of desired outcome	The probability that the companies can achieve a desired outcome from the donation (e.g. the perceived possibility of the promised numbers of wells built for African villages)	So I buy partly based on the fact that I know it's going to benefit people but also partly because like I've seen them doing it before I know the result was good. If a company doesn't update their progress or show my money is well spent I'd get annoyed. I may even question why they are doing this.

Table (3-4.2): Codebook: Themes, Definitions of themes and Examples of coding

	Theoretical dimensions	Themes	Definition	Example
Consumer-related attributes	Altruistic value	Altruistic motivation	Motivation to provide other individuals something of value or help/the degree of people being willing to provide helping behaviour	I think it's good to help other people. I would appreciate other's help if I was in need of help
		Social value	Socially concerned	I believe society needs people who are socially concerned. Buying such products is a sign of you being socially concerned.
	Emotional intensity	Emotional intensity	The degree people react to emotion eliciting stimuli. Emotional intensity consists of two processes: emotional arousal and emotion control or inhibition (Frijda, 1994). Some people react consistently stronger to emotional stimuli than others (Larsen, 1984)	I am a softy deep down...I can't watch other people suffer, especially children. These kinds of ads always make me teary (embarrassed)...whenever I feel very emotional for this I will buy products for donation.
CRM perceptions	CRM Perceived credibility	Company trustworthiness	Consumers' general perception of the company reputation-whether it is trustworthy or not	I think probably my general perception of the company. Is it trustworthy? Is that company all over the press are they well known trying to do good things or is it something that they just try to do for PR stand?
		NPO trustworthiness	The branding or reputation of the non-profit organisation	I will perceive to be a more worthwhile cause obviously subjectively depends on. Worthwhile as in which campaign helps most to the society, or to someone I care about and whether the donation will get to the people really in need and whether the company and charity are trustworthy.
		CRM partner expertise	The perceived competence of involved companies and NPOs in a CRM campaign	I think companies should show the progress of the activities though. Not just the companies, the non-profit organisations too. For example, how equipped they are, how effective the employees and volunteers are in delivering what the campaign is promising.

Table (3-4.3): Codebook: Themes, Definitions of themes and Examples of coding

	Theoretical dimensions	Themes	Definition	Example
CRM perceptions	Familiarity of CRM	Familiarity of social cause	How familiar the cause is to the consumers	Well known causes such as breast cancer research, save the children...lately in Syria...surely these get more attention and more buying.
		Familiarity of NPO	How familiar the NPO/charity involved is to the consumers	If I have experience with either the cause or the charity personally, like I have been to their charity events etc., or I have bought a product associated with their causes and I have seen the results, I will probably buy again. If it was a pleasant experience overall.
		Familiarity of CRM campaign	How familiar/aware the consumers of the campaign	(Have you ever bought any CRM products?) If I have, I don't remember. Can't recall any recently. That's the point. So important to advertise so people can remember what it is about and later can remind you buying if you see it in the supermarket.
	Cause fit	Product - cause fit	The degree of fit/relevance between the nature of company's product and the nature of the cause	You can't really say oh we are supporting cleaning water or whatever while your core business is contaminating it...that'd be sarcastic and weird
		Brand-NPO image fit	The perceived fit of company and NPO image	I used to work for MO Farah Foundation. They had a huge debate or whether to team up with NIKE so it could be one of the event sponsors. The argument was that NIKE had an image of exploiting weaker economies and MFF did not want to be associated with that It will be the same in this type of cause supporting activities. You've got to have a positive image from both parties to be successful.
	Participation effort	Physical endeavour required	The amount of effort required to support a social cause in CRM	I would definitely participate in hat knitting for Innocent if I could knit! You would feel more related to the cause and you would follow it closely. But it depends on what cause though. Not everything is worth my effort.
		Perceived time spent	The amount of time required to support a social cause in CRM	This (buying CRP) is a good way to support a cause. Quick and easy. You are buying the product anyway so it's a good gesture with no effort or time wasted.

Table (3-4.4): Codebook: Themes, Definitions of themes and Examples of coding

4.4.5 Reliability and validity

According to Krippendorff (1980, p.129), “a reliable procedure should yield the same results from the same set of phenomena regardless of the circumstances of application. To test validity, on the other hand, the results of a procedure must match with what is known to be “true” or assumed to be already valid. Therefore, “reliability assures that the analytical results represent something real, validity assures that the analytical results represent what they claim to represent”.

To evaluate the trustworthiness as well as the quality of the analysis and findings, reliability test were conducted before the codes and themes were finalized (Krippendorff, 1980; Stenbacka, 2001; Patton, 2001; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Seale, 1999). Two analysts, the researcher and a secondary coder, independently applied the data to the texts, using the same codebook (Guest et al, 2012). Both analysts conducted an iterative process of reading and coding the transcripts (e.g. Webb and Mohr, 1998; Guest et al, 2011; Krippendorff, 1980). The analysts compared coding results. The secondary coder was asked to correct the coded items and themes that the codes had been categorised into by the researcher whenever disagreement occurred. Adjustments to the coding were applied based on the correction by the secondary coder.

The reliability of the analysis is assured with a reasonable level of intercoder agreement (Webb and Mohr, 1998; Cohen, 1960; Krippendorff, 1980). Also in the case of this study where only two raters coded the data, suggested by researchers, Cohen’s kappa coefficient was used to measure the intercoder agreement in qualitative items (Grayson and Rust, 2001; Krippendorff, 1980; Hammond, 2006; Guest et al, 2012). The formula can be computed as:

$$\kappa = \frac{\text{Pr}(a) - \text{Pr}(e)}{1 - \text{Pr}(e)},$$

Where $\text{Pr}(a)$ is the *proportion of agreed on judgment* or proportion of *observed agreement* between coders. $\text{Pr}(e)$ is the *proportion of agreement one would expect by chance* or a *probability of chance agreement* (Grayson and Rust, 2001; Krippendorff,

2980). The observed agreement rate of Pr(a) for this analysis has achieved at 89.98% (with 1446 out of 1607 agreement in total), which is deemed as very high (Webb and Mohr, 1998). Pr(e) was calculated based on the number of agreements and disagreement on each of the themes identified. The probability of chance agreement is 26.2%. Therefore the Cohen's Kappa is 0.865, indicating a good strength of agreement (Landis and Koch, 1977).

Sim and Wright (2005) suggest for cases where reliability is especially important for analysis, a one-tailed t-test is not sufficient, although it is usually seen as appropriate for most studies. The current study's analysis will be used to develop later quantitative survey items, and therefore it is crucial to ensure high reliability. To do so, the null hypothesis value is set higher than zero at .50 and a two-tailed t-test with confidence level of 95% is to be conducted. (Sim and Wright, 2005). Accordingly, the interval is .823 to .897. It is evident that interval does not cross the value of .50, and therefore the concordance satisfies the elevated criteria and is statistically significant (Sim and Wright, 2005).

Validity is a central consideration in credibility of the results when conducting a conceptual or explanatory analysis including both inductive and deductive approaches (Guest et al, 2012). It can be enhanced through all stages of the research process. As discussed earlier in section 4.3.1 Interview Guide: Developing questions, validity of the current study has been enhanced at the research design stage. In the research analysis stage, Guest et al (2012) proposed several steps to enhance validity to ensure high credibility of analysis. First of all, it is important to explicitly note when a particular code or theme is applied to the data as well as when it is not applied to the data (Guest et al, 2012, p.87). This step has been discussed in detail within the codebook development section. Secondly, as suggested, external review from a researcher specialized in cause-related marketing area also was conducted to ensure the validity of the coding results.

4.5 Findings and Discussions

This section presents the results of content analysis as well as the discussion over the findings. It consists of the following parts. *Firstly*, the psychological distance dimensions, CRM perception factors and consumer pro-social characteristics factors will be cross-compared based on the results derived from cross-tabulation. The purpose of this part is to identify the most influential aspects in CRP buying. *Secondly*, in order to study each of the aspects in detail, the composition of the three sets of factors will be analysed and discussed separately. In addition, to analyse cross-cultural differences in susceptibilities to these factors, discussion is provided for both UK and China group. *Thirdly*, as mentioned earlier, since this study takes a thematic approach, this detailed section will be presenting the findings thematically, including theme definitions, relating to the existing literature to give qualitative evidence of it from dataset provided by frequency analysis to support the assertion that it is important. Lastly, a discussion on the effect of the consumer situations on participants' choice of cause-related products will be presented.

4.5.1 Results Overview

In the previous coding process, the data have been coded into categorical themes and later counted for frequencies in order to build up inferences. To help summarize the frequency counts, a contingency table (**Table. 3-5**) aiming at analysing the relative effects of each aspect from the conceptual framework, has been constructed including four psychological distance dimensions, six CRM perception factors and two consumer pro-social characteristics factors across two participant groups. This table will be used to give *general* overview of the results. The table contains 10 factors \times 2 groups dimensions. Every cell (1 factor \times 1 group) has a frequency count of codes larger than 5, indicating the Chi-square assumptions of minimum expected cell frequency at 80% of cells larger than 5, is achieved (Pallant, 2005).

Overall, the results in **Table (3-5)** show that CRP buying is strongly influenced by psychological distance factors as well as CRP buying antecedents, i.e. CRM perceptions and consumer pro-social characteristic factors. Psychological distance factors were mentioned extensively, indicating that when buying a CRP both

consumer groups are heavily influenced by factors that would make them feel distant from or close to the supported social cause.

A Chi-square test was used to explore the relationship between UK and Chinese participant groups, as well as frequency counts of factors that each participant indicated as important. The result of the Chi-square test shows there are significant differences between the two groups in the frequency counts of the seven aspects of influences on CRP buying, with $\chi^2=84.706$; $df=9$; $p<0.001$. This gives preliminary support for the proposition that susceptibilities to the psychological distance would vary across the two groups.

As stated before, one of the goals of conducting this study in the first place is exploring factors determining psychological distance in its each dimension in the context of CRM. Therefore, besides the general contingency table, four other tables describing the composition of each distance dimension (e.g. company response timing as one of Temporal Distance Dimension compositions) were also constructed separately for reviewing the effects of factors determining each dimension of psychological distance.

4.5.2 CRP buying antecedents

Results in **Table (3-5)** show that although having less count than psychological distance factors were coded (48.4%), participants addressed CRM perception factors (39.5%), such as cause fit, participation effort, CRM credibility and familiarity of CRM campaign would have an influence on their purchase of CRP. Comparatively, factors relating to consumer pro-social characteristics (altruism and emotional intensity), though still counted 12.1% of the total effect, play a considerably smaller role in CRP purchase decision. This indicates that CRM campaigns should possibly reply more on contextual factors that would bring consumers feelings closer to the causes and products, rather than purely emphasizing on evoking emotions and altruism that are essential in eliciting charitable giving behaviour (Huber et al., 2012; Hsee and Rottenstreich, 2004; Kahneman, Ritov, and Schkade, 1999; Loewenstein, 1996; Loewenstein and Small, 2007; Small, Loewenstein and Slovic, 2007).

			COUNTRY		Total
			UK	CHINA	
Psychological distance	UNCERTAINTY	Count	200	244	444
		Expected Count	201.6	242.4	444
		% of Total	7.10%	8.70%	15.80%
	PHYSICAL	Count	100	74	174
		Expected Count	79	95	174
		% of Total	3.60%	2.60%	6.20%
	TEMPORAL	Count	180	210	390
		Expected Count	177.1	212.9	390
		% of Total	6.40%	7.50%	13.90%
	SOCIAL	Count	138	214	352
		Expected Count	159.8	192.2	352
		% of Total	4.90%	7.60%	12.50%
CRM perception factors	Cause fit	Count	86	94	180
		Expected Count	81.7	98.3	180
		% of Total	3.10%	3.30%	6.40%
	Effort	Count	46	22	68
		Expected Count	30.9	37.1	68
		% of Total	1.60%	0.80%	2.40%
	Credibility	Count	140	298	438
		Expected Count	198.9	239.1	438
		% of Total	5.00%	10.60%	15.60%
	Familiarity	Count	188	236	424
		Expected Count	192.5	231.5	424
		% of Total	6.70%	8.40%	15.10%
Consumer characteristic factors	Emotional intensity	Count	102	76	178
		Expected Count	80.8	97.2	178
		% of Total	3.60%	2.70%	6.30%
	Altruism	Count	94	64	158
		Expected Count	71.7	86.3	158
		% of Total	3.30%	2.30%	5.60%
Total	Count	1274	1532	2806	
	Expected Count	1274	1532	2806	
	% of Total	45.40%	54.60%	100.00%	

Table (3-5): Cross-tabulation of Themes and Consumer groups and Chi-Square test

Among CRM perception factors, perceived credibility and familiarity of CRM campaign clearly are the dominant influencer in buying behaviour of CRPs, with $n=438$, 15.6% and $n=424$, 15.1% respectively. Consumers' perceived fitness between the CRM alliances also shows considerable frequency of counts ($n=180$, 6.4%). Although participation effort only accounts for 2.4% ($n=68$) of the total counts of influencers, it still deemed important as interviewees from both countries explicitly expressed the effect of the cost associated with CRP buying. Although CRP buying is seen a pro-social giving behaviour (e.g. Ross et al, 1992), CRM research typically neglected the physical and mental endeavour to help a social cause even when these endeavours are frequently requested in real life CRM campaigns (e.g. Hou et al, 2008, Olivola and Liu, 2009). The result provides preliminary evidence and corresponds with calls from some of the prior CRM studies (e.g. Hou et al, 2008, Olivola and Liu, 2009).

With regard to consumer pro-social characteristic factors, surprisingly inconsistent with previous literatures on pro-social behaviour, being altruistic ($n=158$, 5.6%) were not mentioned as many as descriptions about how intensely participants would feel seeing or hearing some sort of charitable cause (i.e. coded as Emotional Intensity, $n=178$, 6.3%). This gives preliminary evidence that evoking intense emotions through presenting social causes might be more important in encouraging CRP buying.

Regarding CRM perception factors, UK group of participants mentioned perceived effort to take part in CRM many more times than the Chinese group ($n_{uk}=46$, $n_{cn}=22$). Moreover, results indicate that Chinese consumers may be more concerned about how they find a CRM campaign credible and familiar ($n_{uk-cred}=140$, $n_{cn-cred}=298$; $n_{uk-fam}=188$, $n_{cn-fam}=236$).

In addition, UK participants mentioned emotional intensity and consumer value for being altruistic much more than their Chinese counterparts ($n_{uk-EI}=102$, $n_{cn-EI}=76$; $n_{uk-alt}=94$, $n_{cn-alt}=64$). This result gives an preliminary indication that the consumers from two different country backgrounds react to CRP buying differently. Compared to Chinese participants, UK participants may believe being altruistic is

something more important that drives them to contribute to social causes. The result on emotional intensity may also suggest that UK consumers are more likely to be evoked emotions, as well as they think being emotionally involved is much more important than Chinese consumers. This suggests for consumers from different backgrounds, CRM messages need to be designed accordingly.

4.5.3 Psychological distance

Overall, results (**Table 3-5**) revealed that within psychological distance factors belonging to uncertainty dimension revealed more counts (n=444, 15.8%) than the next two most frequently mentioned factors, which constitute temporal (n=390, 13.9%) and social distance dimension (n=352, 12.5%). This indicates a dominant role of how certain consumers feel about CRM in CRP purchase decision. It thus can be given a plausible explanation that consumers might have high doubt about some aspects of cause-related marketing. These aspects of scepticism have to be taken into consideration in order to encourage purchase. Physical distance factors were least mentioned among the four distance dimensions (n=174, 6.2%).

In this section each psychological distance dimension will be discussed in detail, including definition of each theme, examples of codes as well as the relating to the existing literature to give qualitative evidence of it from dataset provided by frequency analysis to support the assertion that it is important.

As discussed earlier, conceptual frameworks of psychological distance stipulate that there are four dimensions of psychological distance, including physical, temporal, social and uncertainty distance (Trope and Liberman, 2010). This analysis follows a combination of deduction and induction approach, which allows coding process follow both theoretical indications and interpretive findings from the dataset (Guest et al, 2012). Accordingly, under psychological distance, four theoretical themes relating to each distance dimension were decided.

4.5.3.1 Uncertainty dimension

			Country	
			UK	CHINA
Uncertainty	Possibility of desired outcome	Count	88	62
		Expected Count	67.6	82.4
		% of Total	19.80%	14.00%
	Company motivation	Count	112	182
		Expected Count	132.4	161.6
		% of Total	25.20%	41.00%
Total	Count	200	244	
	Expected Count	200	244	
	% of Total	45.00%	55.00%	

Table (3-6): Uncertainty distance cross-tabulation

This dimension mainly discusses the factors that would make consumers feel uncertain about outcomes in CRM. As evident from **Table (3-5)** and **Table (3-6)**, uncertainty factors are the most frequently remarked having impact on purchase of CRP (n=444). As looking at the compositions emerged from the theme, the research sees two main findings apparent. *Firstly*, consumers can be unsure about whether donation would be actually made thus sceptical about companies and NPOs involved in CRM campaigns, given the highly mentioned *company motivation in CRM* (n=294). Participants specifically emphasized the importance of cause-beneficial rather than profit-beneficial motivation for participating in a CRM campaign. This is consistent with the previous studies (e.g. Mohr and Webb, 1998). Example of statements from participants could be given:

“It’s difficult to know if the companies are doing cause-related marketing because they genuinely want to help or because it helps their brands. You kind of will always have doubt so I think it is a must that they don’t appear as a for-profit driven maximizing means. If they do, I would want to stay away from those brands, let alone the products.” (M, 64, China)

The Chi-square result of test shows there are significant differences between the UK and China groups in the frequency counts of the aspects of influences on CRP buying, with $\chi^2 = 16.98$; $df=1$; $p < 0.001$. It’s worth noting that the frequency counts for

company motivation by Chinese participants are significantly higher than the UK participants (n=182, n=112, respectively), indicating this special consideration should be taken into account when promoting products with a social cause. Concerns about motivation issues may be associated with the recent scandals of Red Cross China and similar charities being accused for exploiting donations. Participants from Chinese group highlighted the lack of trust in NPOs and induced doubts in CRM campaigns as a result.

Secondly, results suggest the significance of showing a potential in obtaining a desired outcome as a result of the CRM effort (n=150). Consumers explicitly expressed that for a CRM campaign to have an impact on their potential purchase; it would have to show a certain degree of estimated success rate of the promised outcome. This finding is consistent with several previous studies (e.g. Van den Brink, et al, 2001, Nan and Heo, 2007). The following statement illustrate this point in perspective:

“...I think customers don’t usually get told what will happen but it is very important. A company can say promise all they want to or say how much help someone will get through this donation. But what is the actual coming out of it? You kind of know which one will be successful and which one is definitely lying or not... yes possibilities of having a successful outcome can very much decide if I want to buy it or not.” (M, 34, UK)

“...Sometimes companies have press conference and show how much money they have generated through sales and how much they are donating to a charity. Or you see on TV they say how many lives they have saved or give an estimate in the advert. I think this is so important to inform the customers. We don’t know what happens once we buy a cause-related product. If they could minimize our doubts by saying ok this is what is going to happen then there is definitely more chance of people buying.” (M, 22, China)

The fact that participants repeatedly mentioned how effective and successful the result of a CRM campaign has show is hardly surprising, as it was said to give consumers more motivation to offer some extra help on top of something guaranteed to be working. Moreover, participants also suggested one could measure how successful a campaign is by telling if its marginal benefit surpass the marginal cost of it, rather than

how exposed the charitable causes are. This indicates consumers pay much attention to the actual economic outcome, i.e. successful cases based on actual donations, rather than the influence or awareness a CRM campaign generates.

4.5.3.2 Social distance

			Country	
			UK	CHINA
Social	in-group vs out-group	Count	35	87
		Expected Count	47.8	74.2
		% of Total	9.90%	24.70%
	self vs others	Count	86	115
		Expected Count	78.8	122.2
		% of Total	24.40%	32.70%
	Similarity in value	Count	17	12
		Expected Count	11.4	17.6
		% of Total	4.80%	3.40%
Total	Count	138	214	
	Expected Count	138	214	
	% of Total	39.20%	60.80%	

Table (3-7): Social distance cross-tabulation

Social distance dimension discusses consumers’ perceived social distance or closeness to a cause beneficiary and a company involved. From the result illustrated in **Table (3-7)**, participants mostly stressed how the *social distance towards cause beneficiaries* would affect their purchase choice. In particular, whether the consumers themselves are the beneficiaries was found to be the most important consideration among all the factors (self vs. others; n=201). As one participant describes:

“I would definitely buy it if I found the cause is relevant to me, such as a cause that would improve my life etc., then it would have been something that stuck on my mind.” (M, 64, China)

Similarly, in line with the previous studies (e.g. Broderick, et al, 2003; Ross et al, 1993), results show that it is also important for both groups of consumers that a cause

is relevant to their immediate social group, such as close family and friends (n=122), as it “feels closer” to them. Illustrating as noted below:

“In fact I think I would definitely get the cause product over just a normal one for someone who I’m emotionally close to. I would choose something relevant to my friends and my family we will be able to benefit from the cause rather than someone else such as African children.” (M, 24, UK)

Moreover, participants indicated that the degree to which they believe the brands have the similar pro-social value (n=29) would have an impact on their buying a CRP. Although significantly less frequently mentioned than other social distance factors, this factors still calls for attention as they represent new variables not previously accounted for. As participants described:

“If I had come across the company's campaigns then I could know they were probably keen on helping people in society like I do. It doesn't matter what company, how big or small it is, if I know they are in this, I will be happy to help too”. (M, 34, UK)

The result of the Chi-square test shows there are significant differences between the two groups in the frequency counts of the social distance’s influences on CRP buying ($\chi^2 = 11.33$; $df=2$; $p < 0.01$). From the cross tabulation, it is not difficult to observe that Chinese participants mentioned more than their UK counterparts on the importance of closer social members being the cause beneficiaries. Preliminary evidence has been given that cultural difference could exist in social distance’s effect on CRP buying in the context of CRM (Tajfel, 1982; Triandis, 1989).

4.5.3.3 Temporal distance

			Country	
			UK	CHINA
Temporal	Cause duration	Count	54	70
		Expected Count	57.2	66.8
		% of Total	13.80%	17.90%
	Company response	Count	74	110
		Expected Count	84.9	99.1
		% of Total	19.00%	28.20%
	Purchase timing	Count	22	12
		Expected Count	15.7	18.3
		% within Temporal	64.70%	35.30%
		% within Country	12.20%	5.70%
		% of Total	5.60%	3.10%
	Temporal relevance	Count	30	18
		Expected Count	22.2	25.8
		% of Total	7.70%	4.60%
	Total	Count	180	210
Expected Count		180	210	
% of Total		46.20%	53.80%	

Table (3-8): Temporal distance cross-tabulation

Temporal distance concerns the temporal factors that influence consumers' perceived distance to social causes. As suggested by previous studies (e.g. Tangari, et al, 2010), the findings in **Table (3-8)** have confirmed *company response timing* (n=184) as a great influence in consumers' CRP buying decisions. Participants typically stressed that they would feel good when they see the results of the purchases, which is company donate sooner after their consumption. For example,

“...You know some of the money you are actually donating by buying that product, how long it takes for you to actually make a difference.”(M, 22, UK)

In addition, *cause duration*, i.e. whether it is a current cause or an on-going cause, has also been mentioned frequently as an important factor in temporal distance (n=124). Unlike findings by most researchers (e.g. Ellen et al; 2000), participants did not

explicitly link *longer cause duration* with more intention to buy. They gave rather mixed preferences, however mostly directed to social distance factors (see the description below).

(Current cause and campaign awareness) “If its current definitely will buy because you know around that time you were kind of exposed to the media like the news was all over TV.” (F, 26, UK)

(On-going cause and in-group beneficiaries) “I’d still go for long-term cause such as the cancer because it affects more people that would be relevant to me. A current one usually relates to particular group of people and stuff that might not have anything to do with me.” (F, 52, China)

Moreover, the discussions unveiled that *temporal relevance* (n=48) of the CRM campaign could be a factor contributing to their feelings of a social cause and consequently affecting CRP buying. It was expressed that consumers would have a higher intention to participate in a CRM campaign when the social cause is promoted to raise awareness in public (e.g. cancer research awareness month). This is mainly due to the temporal relevance of the CRP would revive the information about the cause from memory and highlight the significance and importance of offering help. As noted in one conversation:

“During those special period where charities like Mind raise awareness for mental illness, I am sure people get more educated about the illness, and therefore may go ahead and support whatever cause related to that so it could be about buying a relevant product too.” (F, 26, China)

Another observation is that participants mentioned when to purchase (*purchase timing*, n=34) has some impact on their purchase decisions. For example, they indicated that on a holiday season, they would feel closer to the products that targeting domestic or children-related causes. This result can be partly attributed to the “holiday giving effect on donation”, that at special reference point, people have different emotions toward special targets (Wilson, Piazza and Nagle, 1990; Loftin, 2007; Jiobu and Knowles, 1974).

The result of the Chi-square test shows there are significant differences between the two groups in the frequency counts of the temporal distance's influences on CRP buying ($\chi^2 = 12.817$; $df=3$; $p < 0.05$). More specifically, Chinese consumers seem to tend to be more concerned with the duration of the cause being supported and the fast response by the companies. Compared to the UK consumers, they may be less affected by the timeline of the purchase, e.g. holiday effect.

4.5.3.4 Physical distance

Physical distance dimension discusses the perceived geographical distance between a consumer and CRM. According to the coding process, cause location proximity was identified as the single factor ($n_{uk}=100$, $n_{cn}=74$). Therefore, cross-tabulation is not included in the analysis for physical distance. Instead, it will be based on the frequency counts for the single factor. *Cause location proximity* discusses the effect of choice of geographic location where social causes claim to help. Although not as frequently mentioned as the previously mentioned psychological dimensions, it still has proven a critical factor in influencing consumers' CRP buying. Participants have specifically indicated the importance of the cause location, as well as their preferences in causes closer or distant to themselves. For example:

“I would also consider where is the donation going to is important, as in which part of the country the company donates to.” (F, 28, China)

This is in line with what previous studies show. Existing literatures have suggested geographical distance could affect people's mental representation of things in turn influence how they behave (William and Bargh, 2008; Fujita et al, 2006). People do look into their environment for clues for how they should feel, as a natural part of the situational appraisal process (Trope, 1986), and such physical-distance cues genuinely affect people's judgment and feelings, to moderate people's emotional experience (William and Bargh, 2008). Similarly, when a consumer has the intention to buy a product, whether the cause location is far or near could influence his or her choice too.

Interestingly, unlike findings from previous studies suggest, that consumers prefer causes that support local issues rather than international ones (e.g. Ross et al., 1992; Hou et al., 2008; Ellen et al., 2000), analysis shows that participants' have diverse preferences. The answers show no limitation on preference on either extreme. For example:

“ Well I don't really have a preference on the targeted areas. I suppose people normally would like causes around them, near where they live etc., but I don't see that's quite sensible because there could be bigger causes going on somewhere in other parts of the country, or even internationally! If they were more in need of help, why would you choose something really small, or something that you can easily get done in your area?”(M, 36, UK)

4.5.4 Product Level

Based on previous literatures on the effects of product types on helping behaviour such as pro-social giving (e.g. Payne, 1980; Pronin, et al., 2008; Hibbert and Horn, 1996; Strahilevitz, 1999; Strahilevitz and Myers, 1998), Chapter Two has proposed that various purchase levels could influence pro-social giving tied to a product. Therefore, this study also aims at gaining insight of preliminary evidence of the relationship between product level and CRP buying. Accordingly, at the beginning of each interview participants were asked to spend a few minutes thinking about specific buying occasions linked to purchase of various CRPs.

Variation was evident among participants' responses. Reported products linked with social causes chosen ranged from buying a bottle of shampoo from a supermarket to enjoying a whisky on a tasting event. The following excerpts from interviews demonstrate this:

“Well I do remember that once I was in the whisky tasting event. Some of the whisky brands were donating money to a charitable fund for nature protection. I thought that was a bit irrelevant but I bought one in the end...not so much that I really cared about the charitable donation...I mean, I was happy I could help. But it was more of this environment and

atmosphere at that time that made me buy it. I was enjoying whisky in that event with friends, and a lot of people bought it too.” (M, 34, UK)

“I’m sure I have bought something I saw when in the shops but it must have been an impulse and it definitely wasn’t something big, more of everyday stuff such as tooth paste or bottle of water etc. The Tesco I usually shop in is just around the corner of the street our flat is in, so I normally just go and get things I want. That’s the only think I remember doing.” (M, 24, UK)

“I am opting in one of those donation to charity type of programme with UNICF. So every month 5 pounds goes to the charity with my phone bill. I don’t think it’s too much and I’m willing to help. If they could think of something like this with a branded product, I would consider buying too...mobile phone bill? Yeah exactly, something like this will do.” (F, 30, China)

“Yes when I transit in an airport I usually have many hours in between flights so I get bored and go to the casinos. They sometimes have things like buy this many coins to donate a few percentage of the money. “ (M, 28, China)

It is evident that in the above examples, consumers chosen differently with four distinctive products. The first whisky bought could be categorised as a product under Hedonism consumption. The second and third are purchase products in the Maintenance and Accumulation consumption. The fourth one clearly relates to charitable giving with purchase of products (coins) in the Accomplishment consumption. This gives preliminary evidence that CRP purchase may be influenced by product level (Foxall, 2007).

4.5.5 Donation magnitude

Donation magnitude refers to the price or extra amount of money people are willing to pay for a product associated with a social cause. When buying a CRP, consumers usually are expected to pay a certain amount of money on top of the original price for the product for donation to the associated charity (Varadarajan and Menon, 1988). As expected, donation magnitude was mentioned frequently (n=130), indicating the

donation amount affects consumers' choice of products significantly. This finding is consistent with previous CRM studies (e.g. Strahilevitz, 1999; Strahilevitz and Myers, 1998; Subrahmanyam, 2004). For example,

“Well, price obviously still comes into it (choosing CRPs). Price as in that I pay maybe a small amount more for the cause-related products but not if it is significantly more then obviously I'd choose the cheaper object...because asking too much more would make people feel worse about the product and brand I suppose, at least for me.” (M, 22, UK)

Evidence emerged from the dataset shows that in general participants would consider buying a product linked with a cause if the price is equal or not much higher (i.e. low donation magnitude) than the original price of the product or an alternative product, as explanation from typical case:

“Because obviously you feel you are going to buy the products anyway what's the difference between you know paying two pounds for the normal one or two pounds ten whatever for the cause-related, even though there is small price difference. There is a better cause to it and you feel better buying it.” (F, 30, China)

Furthermore, participants also mentioned that the amount they would be willing to pay more to buy a CRP in order to support a social cause might be depending on how close or distant they feel about a cause. More specifically, if the cause is perceived as psychologically closer (i.e. someone in the social circle may be benefit from it), higher amount of donation from the CRP sales would be deemed “necessary” and they would buy a CRP associated with a larger donation magnitude. As participants described:

“(Education causes) I am not too bothered with those...so I probably wouldn't pay more or I may not buy at all because it is not what I'm bothered with...For the cancer research bottled water, I am almost certain I would buy a bulk just to show my support if I see some in the shop. (Why would you pay differently in this circumstance?) Because my aunt has it and it's something I can personally relate to.” (M, 25, UK)

In particular, although it also revealed that small donation linked with a CRP might be of reverse effect in this circumstance because it might be perceived as “cheap” and

“taking advantage” when consumers have strong feelings and connections with social cause. Rather, they would prefer a product with promises to donate large amount. An example can be shown as follows:

“I feel companies that use for instance the Sichuan earthquake as an excuse to do CRM but offer small donations are really cheap. When you feel really sorry about the situation and really want to help, you don’t go around buying a product that donate 1fen (equivalent as 0.1 pence) to such an urgent need. I would buy those that donate more, even if that means I have to pay more.” (M, 23, China)

These examples gives initial support for the discussions in Chapter Two that the level of donation magnitude’s effect on purchase intention of CRP might be determined by consumers’ perceived psychological distance towards social causes.

5. Conclusion

Chapter Three discussed philosophical stance as well as corresponding methodological approaches for this thesis. The research philosophy of this thesis is based on the postivistically-inclined pragmatism. Guided by this stance, in order to answer the proposed research questions, methodological approaches were discussed and designed. More specifically, this thesis takes a mixed-method approach, which consists of both qualitative and quantitative techniques to investigate consumer choice on CRPs. Furthermore, to tackle the objectives of this research separately, this chapter designed a two-step sequential way of research. This includes (1) a preliminary exploratory in-depth interview as Study One for explore the factors influencing CRP buying behaviour, especially the components of each dimension of psychological distance in the context of CRM; and (2) a dominant quantitative Study Two to further look at the influence of each distance dimension has on consumer buying of CRPs. Guided by the suggestions from qualitative researchers to choose a practical analysing strategy that would best serve the purposes of research, Study One adopted both inductive and deductive approaches of analysis. To be more specific, a thematic content analysis was conducted. The theme coding process followed an initial theoretical framework of psychological distance (four dimensions) and factors identified from the previous

studies on CRM and pro-social studies. As part of deductive approach, the analysis was also based on frequency counting of each theme to see the level of importance of themes and competitive factors.

The findings of Study One have demonstrated that purchase decisions on CRP could be strongly affected by psychological distance and a range of buying antecedents. Therefore, Study One has generally confirmed the viability of the proposed effect of psychological distance on cause-related product choice, as well as the proposed interpretation of psychological distance factors provided in the previous chapter. In summary, results show a dominant role of uncertainty factors in choice of CRP. As part of inquiry, different levels of product, donation magnitude and donation framing linked with CRP price have been confirmed to change people's purchases.

To summarize the components of four dimensions of psychological distance:

Physical distance factors include cause location proximity. *Social* distance was categorised into (1) self and others (2) in-group or out-group (3) similarity in value. Factors incorporated into *temporal* distance have been confirmed to be (1) cause duration (2) company response (3) purchase timing (4) temporal relevance. Uncertainty dimension factors include (1) company motivation (4) possibility of desired outcome.

CHAPTER FOUR

CAUSE-RELATED PRODUCT BUYING:

A QUANTATITVE APPROACH

1. Introduction

This thesis seeks to investigate consumers' perceived distance between social cause and self and explore its effect on cause-related product (CRP) buying. Chapter Two incorporated CRP buying influencers and discussed the relationship between four constructs of psychological distance and CRP buying behaviour. It developed hypotheses pertaining to the main effect of psychological distance and its key role in CRP buying with consumer individual differences, CRM-related buying factors, CRM structural factors and national cultural dimension. Built on these arguments, Study One (Chapter Three) was designed to validate the relevance of CRP buying antecedents, CRM structural factors and the four constructs of psychological distance in CRP buying, namely social, temporal, physical distance and uncertainty. The results of Study One shows that consumer CRP buying is strongly linked with psychological distance, and thereby provided initial support for the further studies of the predicted influences of these distance dimensions on CRP buying.

Upon the receipt of an initial confirmation of the relevance of the four key constructs of psychological distance to the CRP buying prediction, it is necessary to address each factor systematically. Therefore, Study Two will aim to further examine the role of psychological distance in CRP buying behaviour in a cross-cultural context. In addition, Study One also showed the significant difference in consumers' buying of CRP in maintenance, accumulation, hedonism and accomplishment levels with different donation magnitude. In particular, it suggested that buying CRP with different product level and donation magnitude are associated with consumers' psychological closeness towards social cause. Therefore, it indicates the necessity and potential in the next study for detailed examination between these factors regarding CRM structure and psychological distance components in CRP buying. The four product levels and effects of amount of donations will also be addressed systematically

in this study. Hence, the design of Study Two aims to answer the main Research Questions that have been raised in the beginning of the thesis: 1). *What is the impact of psychological distance on consumer intention to buy CRPs?* 2). *Are there any significant differences among consumers' CRP buying in different country contexts?*

This chapter is organized in the following manner. Firstly, it will briefly summarise the research hypotheses that are to be tested. Secondly, it will describe the selected research design and documents the data collection procedures that will be undertaken. Third, measurement validation for each variable will be conducted for later hypotheses testing. Lastly, data analysis strategy regarding mediation analysis employed to test hypotheses will be discussed.

2. Study Overview

Study Two includes five sets of hypotheses that are proposed to test relationships. *First*, hypotheses (H1.1-H1.6) are based on the CRP buying antecedents. Together they test the effect of consumers' CRM perception factors and consumer-related pro-social attributes on consumers' intention to buy CRP. *Second*, Study Two will seek to examine the psychological distance's role in CRP buying (H2-H8), with hypotheses of direct effect of psychological distance on CRP purchasing (H2.1-H2.4) and its mediating role on the relationships between CRP buying influencers and buying intention (H3-H8). *Third*, the study examines the CRP buying across four product levels (H9.1). Analysis further contains the impact of psychological distance on CRP purchase intention with different product level (H9.2). *Fourth*, the impact of various level of psychological distance will be examined on the amount of donation magnitude associated with CRP (H10). *Lastly*, it will test cross-cultural comparison on buying intention of CRP (H11, H12.1-12.2).

3. Research Design

3.1 Research Instrument

In order to test the integrated research model, the current study opts for a self-reporting questionnaire design that is deemed an effective tool to analyse cause-effect relationships between or among phenomena in socially complex situations (Cresswell, 1994). It is especially important in the current study as the object is merely to identify potential factors affecting CRP buying, but to measure the effect of each specific influencers and its effect on buying behaviour.

To date, the majority of pervious research on consumer responses to CRM initiatives has adopted an experimental design, evaluating the impact on consumer attitudes or purchase intentions of altering a key attribute (Gorton et al, 2013, p.1932). This thesis argues that measuring the impact of treatments for a limited number of independent variables, e.g. donation amount, is insufficient to screen the generality of the occurrence of CRP buying. It might lead to considering factors in isolation and consequently the lack of precision would fail to capture all variables of interest and the relative contribution of particular variables (Gorton et al, 2013). Importantly, although the subject of psychological distance has been traditionally favoured more scientific instruments, such as experiments, the use of experimentation at this stage would seem premature. Effective experimentation requires sufficient knowledge of the basic nature and extent of the variables as the method can manipulate and control variables by altering intensity, frequency and duration. Therefore, investigating the construct composition and measuring relative effects of the independent variables is a necessary step before designing an experiment (Beins, 2005, p.115). For this reason, a scenario-based questionnaire survey was selected in order to examine the construct composition and relative effects of the independent variables.

Questionnaire surveys have been widely used in exploring behaviours in CRM and pro-social studies. Specially, in CRM literature, questionnaires have been employed to examine the effect of CRM-related attributes on buying behaviour (e.g. Chang and Lee, 2011; Hajjat, 2003; Gorton et al, 2013; Hou et al, 2008). This instrument has also been used for measuring donation behaviour and the effect of donation amount and participation effort on donation (e.g. Olivola and Shafir, 2013; Landreth, 2002).

Consumer characteristic factors such as consumers' emotional state and altruistic value have also been measured using questionnaires and applied widely in pro-social studies (e.g. Strahilevita and Myer, 1998; Ajzen and Fishbein, 1977; Barone et al, 2000; Myer, 1991). Importantly, studies on psychological distance have used self-reported questionnaire to measure how close or distant participants feel towards an entity (Williams et al, 2012; Trope et al, 2012; Zhao and Xie, 2009; Maglio et al., 2012). Furthermore, In terms of practicality, an experiment would be less suitable as the conceptual model captures too many variables and hence too difficult to manipulate. Therefore for the objective of the current research conducting an experiment would harm the study's external validity, since it is not possible to adequately simulate the elements of all aspects. These considerations, along with the practical advantage of employing questionnaire with short time frame and cheaper and quicker administration contributed to the decision of the selection of the questionnaire as the research instrument for the purpose of the current study.

3.2 The Questionnaire Design and Measurements

The content of the self-administrated questionnaire includes 1) demographic questions including gender, age, income level and occupation; 2) questions relating to CRP buying antecedents (i.e. CRM perceptions and consumer pro-social characteristics); 3) scenario-based questions on consumers' psychological distance towards social causes; 4) scenario-based questions relating to CRP buying associated with different product level and donation magnitude; 5) questions regarding consumers' purchase intention and purchase behaviour of CRPs.

The variable measures consist of existing scales (in some cases with modification) from literatures on psychological distance, CRM and pro-social studies. Since limited numbers of studies have examined the concept of psychological distance in the context of CRM, this study also incorporates variables based upon extant literature and preliminary results from Study One. This follows researchers' suggestion that casual observation or interview should be conducted beforehand in order to determine whether the developed questions are appropriate (Sommer and Sommer, 1991). For example, the sub themes "closeness to self" and "closeness to in-group members" are

evidenced as important constructs for perceived social distance towards social causes, and therefore will be included as measurement.

The scales used to measure each variable in the study are discussed and reviewed in the section below. Besides questions about demographic and purchase behaviour, 7 points Likert-type scales were used throughout the questionnaire, e.g. ranging from “strongly disagree (1)” to “Strongly agree (7)”. It is widely considered that Likert-type scales are most useful for research on human behaviour and attitudes (Kerlinger, 1986). In particular, a well-refined attitude gradation can generate greater variance and increase data quality (Andrews, 1985). Compared to scales with fewer responses, seven answerable response options can improve scale reliability (Alwin and Krosnick, 1991; Lozanoa, Garcia-Cuetob and Munizb, 2008; Preston and Colman, 2000), whereas any further increase in the number of response options do not improve reliability. Rather, they can sometimes confuse respondents and decrease reliability consequently (Alwin and Krosnick, 1991; Preston and Colman, 2000).

3.2.1 Dependent variables

Purchase intention

The willingness to buy a CRP was measured following Hou et al (2008)’s scale, which had been modified based on Bower and Landreth (2001). This research follows the specific scale because it has been tested on participants from both Western and developing markets and is consistent with the objective of this research. The scale used a modification of five semantic differential items (see **Appendix 1**). It has also demonstrated high internal consistency and test-retest reliability (Hou et al, 2008; Brower and Landreth, 2001). For each item, response 1 represented the lowest level of willingness to buy a CRP, while response 7 represented the highest level. For instance, a sample item is “*I would be willing to purchase the product related to a cause.*”

3.2.2 Independent variables: CRP buying antecedents

CRP buying antecedents consist of CRM perceptions and factors relating to individual characteristics. CRM perception variables were employed according to the scales from

previous literatures on CRM (e.g. Gupta and Pirsch, 2007; Bhattacharya et al, 2004; Barone et al, 2007; Hou et al, 2008) and pro-social donation studies (e.g. Olivola and Shafir, 2013; Basil, 2007) (See **Appendix 1** for literature sources), as well as the Study One interview output.

CRM familiarity

As mentioned in Chapter Three, consumers expressed the importance of having general awareness of CRM entities such as engaging brand, NPOs and campaign content. Therefore, to measure CRM familiarity this thesis adapted from prior literature scales of brand familiarity (Macdonald and Sharp, 1996; Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005) and NPO familiarity (Fombrun and Shanley, 1990; Bendapudi et al., 1996) together with self-developed questions for CRM campaign familiarity. In total, CRM familiarity consists of nine items. Sample items include *“I would be more likely to buy cause-related products from well-known brands”*; *“I do not tend to buy a cause product associated a charity that I could not recall easily”*; and *“It is important for me to know the campaign prior to the purchase of a cause product, otherwise I will not buy it”*.

CRM credibility

CRM credibility scale measured consumers’ perceived trustworthiness and perceived expertise of CRM campaign alliances, i.e. both the NPO and company. Seven items were adapted from results previous studies on corporate and non-profit organisation credibility (Newell and Goldsmith, 2001; Ohanian, 1990; Burke, 2012; Goldsmith et al., 2000; Tapp, 1996). Questions were then later modified and reworded based on Study One to fit the CRM context. Within the seven items, four such as *“I prefer to choose cause-related products from trustworthy companies”* measured how trustworthy consumers perceive the company to be. Three items such as *“I tend to buy cause-related products supporting charities that always provide excellent service to people and society”* measured expertise.

Cause fit

Following the prior studies on CRM (Barone et al, 2007; Becker-Olsen et al, 2006; Gupta and Pirsch, 2007; Hamlin and Wilson, 2004; Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005), cause fit was manipulated by four sets statements of high and low cause-product nature and image fit pairs. Some researchers suggest keep the NPO and brands fictitious and unfamiliar to the participants so that the hypothetical nature could reduce variation in their previous experiences, and thus confounding of cause fit and experience-related variables (Nan and Heo, 2007, p.67). However, it became obvious from the interview that the concept of CRM and pairing brands with social causes is still unfamiliar to some of the participants. Considering experience can facilitate consumers' responses, this study thus developed measurement using real brands and social causes. The use of real life brands and social causes is also supported by various studies (e.g. Pacejus and Olsen, 2004; Becker-Olsen et al, 2006).

Following Beck-Olsen et al. (2006), prior to finalising the measurement, a first set of pretests was conducted with 20 participants to identify four equally well-liked and highly familiar brands that could be paired with a set of equally important and relevant social causes (Becker-Olsen et al, 2006, p.48). The participants were given a list of eight brands (Toyota, BP, L'Oreal, NIKE, Sky, Nestle, Apple, Disney) to rank liking and familiarity using three 7-point scales each (liking: 1=negative/7=positive; 1=unfavourable/7=favourable; and 1=bad/7=good, Conbach's $\alpha=.96$; brand familiarity: 1=unfamiliar/7=familiar; 1=did not recognise/7=recognised; and 1=had not heard of/7=had heard of, Cronbach's $\alpha=.95$). The results showed that Toyota, BP, L'Oreal and Nestle are equally well-liked brands ($M=6.32, 6.37, 6.15, 6.29$, $F<1$, $p>.48$), and equally familiar ($M_s=6.24, 6.26, 6.14, 6.30$, $F<1, p>.50$).

Following Pracejus and Olsen (2004), a second set of pretests was conducted to ensure that the brand/cause pairings were representative of the intended high or low fit manipulations. Similar to earlier investigations, another group of participants ($n=20$) were asked to rank the image fit and core nature fit between cause and brand product using a 7-point scale anchored by very low fit and very high fit. The high fit social causes were thought to be important and relevant to the brands' core products and fit with the brand's image. Fit varied as expected as expected. For L'Oreal lipstick,

“Breast cancer research” was high fit (M=6.3) and “Recruitment for disabled” was low fit (M=2.2), and there was a significant difference in perceived fit between the two cause fit (F= 45.81, p<.001). For Toyota hatchback, “Homeless children in need” (M=5.9) and “Prevention of cruelty to animals” (M=3.1) were high and low fit with a difference in the degree of fit (F=34.32, p<.001). For BP petrol, “Prevention of ocean pollution” (M=5.5) “Heart disease research” (M=2.9) were high and low fit with a significant degree of difference (F=37.23, p<.001). For Nestle biscuits, “Help fight starvation in Africa” was high (M=6.1) and “Saving woodland” was low fit (M=3.1), with F=41.67, p<.001.

In the questionnaire, respondents were asked to indicate the purchase intention given the cause fit condition using a 7-point scale. For example, *“L’Oreal lipstick bundled with ‘Breast Cancer Research’. L’Oreal lipstick bundled with ‘Recruitment for Disabled’. In this scenario, I believe the lipstick fits better with the cause ‘Breast Cancer Research’ than ‘Recruitment for Disabled’”*.

Participation effort

Participation effort is measured by three items developed and validated by Hou et al (2008). Sample item includes *“I feel better when I put more effort in helping charitable causes”* and *“The less effort for me to support a cause in exchange for the company making a donation, the more likely I would be to purchase the cause-related product”*.

Altruism

Altruism items are based on Schwartz’s (1992) scale of universalism. The consumer value-altruism measurement includes five items. Sample items include *“It is very important to me to help the people around me. I want to care for other people”* and *“I strongly believe that people should care for nature”*.

Emotional intensity

This study followed scales of emotional intensity from Fraj and Martinez (2006). In order to assess the level of emotion intensity, participants were asked to indicate on a 7 point scale how strongly agree or disagree they believe the statements were true. There are ten items in total, with three reverse worded items. Example item could be given as “*I am relaxed most of the time*” and “*I am easily disturbed*”.

3.2.3 Psychological distance

This section is designed to ask consumers to rank their perceived psychological distance towards a certain social cause based on scenarios, each pertaining to a distance dimension (e.g. supporting cancer research when a family member suffers from it). Psychological distance items were accessed following existing social psychology studies (e.g. Trope and Liberman, 2003, 2010; Liviatan, Trope and Liberman, 2008; Warner and Defleur, 1969; Clark, Mills and Corcoran, 1989; Williams et al, 2012; Zhao and Xie, 2009; Castaño et al, 2008; Thaler and Benartzi, 2004; Rogers and Bazerman, 2008), and modified accordingly to suit CRM context based on CRM (e.g. Ellen, et al, 2001; Grau and Folse, 2007; William and Bargh, 2008; Barone et al, 2007; Beckr-Olsen et al., 2006) and pro-social studies (e.g. Breman, 2008; Reed, Aquino and Levy, 2007; Baston et al, 1997; Bendapudi et al, 1996).

In total, thirteen items have been identified to measure the four dimension of psychological distance. In particular, each item stands for a scenario and follows the basic rule of psychological distance and followed previous literature on psychological distance (e.g. Maglio et al., 2013; Zhao and Xie, 2009) by asking participants to rate on a scale ranging from "1=Not at all close" to "7= Very close" how close they feel to each of the scenario. An example question for temporal distance is “*How closely do you feel to each cause campaign message? We (Company A) will give a portion of every purchase straight to the British Red Cross to help fund its heart disease prevention program (Immediate donation). Over one month, we (Company B) will raise money for the British Red Cross to help fund its heart disease prevention*

program (donation in one month). The scales for psychological distance are summarised below in **Table (4-1)**:

Social	Self relevance (1); in-group others (1); similarity (1)
Temporal	Cause timing (2); Company respond timing (2); Temporal relevance (1); Purchasing timing (1)
Physical	Cause proximity (2)
Uncertainty	Possibility of desired outcome (1); Perceived motivation (1)

Table (4-1): scales of psychological distance items

Notes: (n) stands for the number of items included for each factor, e.g. cause timing will have 2 items

3.2.4 Product level

To examine the influence of product level on CRP buying, the study employed scenario questions with a set of four hypothetical products associated with a social cause. The products, each representing *Maintenance (shampoo)*, *Accumulation (mobile contract)*, *Hedonism (SPA)*, and *Accomplishment (classic concert ticket)* were adapted from previous consumer behaviour studies (c.f. Foxall, 1997, 2007) and modified based on studies in a CRM context (e.g. Subrahmanyam, 2004). Respondents were asked to indicate how likely they would buy each of the four products in order to support a social cause (see **Appendix 4**).

3.2.5 Donation Magnitude

Following previous studies in CRM (e.g. Subrahmanyam, 2004; Strahilevitz, 1999; Human and Terblanche, 2012), donation magnitude amounts were determined as a small amount (5% of the sale price) and large amount (25% of the sale price). Based on scenarios, respondents were asked how likely they were going to buy a CRP with a price premium of either high or low amount of donation compared to an identical product without linked to a cause. A sample set of questions is listed below.

You decide to go for a spa treatment. You narrow your choice set to spa treatment centres A and B. Both centres seem identical in terms of the promised function and quality. Centre A however has a promotion, which promises to donate a portion of its sales to a charity. Please indicate below whether you are likely to go for the treatment in centre A or B for each of the scenarios and product messages given below.

Low amount condition:

SPA centre A voucher value: £21. We donate 5% of the sales to charity

SPA centre B voucher value: £20

High amount condition:

SPA centre A voucher value: £26.7. We donate 25% of the sales to charity.

SPA centre B voucher value: £20

3.2.6 Individual variables

Four additional variables relating to personal information were included in the analysis-gender, age, income and occupation. Gender was specified as male, female and others. Age variable was given ranges from under 18 to over 65. Occupation was classified into five categories. Gender, age and population questions did not have difference in the two sub-samples. Income levels were given the same numbers of ranges in both countries, however with actual annual salary adjusted to the real situation in each market. Participants were given options to not disclose their personal information, in which case they would have chosen “prefer not to say”.

3.2.7 Purchase Behaviour

In order to grasp a general idea of consumers’ purchase behaviour of CRP, the current study adapted two items Subrahmanyam’s (2004) study including “*Have you ever bought a CRM product?*” (provided with options Yes/No) and “*How often do you buy cause-related products?*” (provided with options “0-5 times”; “6-10 times”, “more than 10 times” per month).

3.3 Reliability and Validity Test

The first step of scale validation relied on the expert review before the final version of questionnaire (Hinkin, 1998; Nunnally, 1978). The questions were submitted to two independent judges who are experts in psychological distance and consumer situations. They were asked to assess the degree to which the developed scenarios reflected theoretical implications regarding distance dimensions and contingency categories. Scenario questions were corrected based on the feedback. Revised questions were then sent back to the experts for confirmatory approval. A final agreement of 89% was achieved after three repeats of this procedure. The approved scenarios were then submitted to a consumer judge to ensure the described situations were engaging and relevant.

Secondly, the questionnaire was primarily designed in English language based on relevant studies. It then translated into Chinese, considering the purpose of the research and a requirement for cross-cultural samples. To avoid misunderstanding and confusion of the questions, a group of independent reviewers were invited to review the finalised two language versions of questionnaire for ambiguous statements and error identification. The translated version of questionnaire was first reviewed and back-translated by 2 Chinese native speaking people prior the study to check if their understanding aligned with the meaning of original questions (Brislin, 1970; Chapman and Carter, 1979). Upon receiving the feedback, necessary corrections and adjustments were made to improve comprehension and clarity of the questions. Finally, 2 bilingual marketing researchers reviewed and validated the final version of the translation to ensure it satisfactory and appropriate for the distribution.

Another important aspect of scale validity is the potential threat of participants trying to show a favourable pro-social image of themselves (King and Bruner, 2000, p.79, Lenski and Leggett, 1960, Bagozzi, 1985; Nederhof, 1985; Paulhus, 1991; Peltier and Walsh, 1990). This is due to the fact that buying a CRP is considered as a pro-social gesture to those in need (Ross et al, 1992). In order to control the bias, researchers suggest that questionnaire items should be phrased in a way that does not contain cue subjects as to the expectations of the researcher that could create a demand effect (King and Bruner, 2000). The purpose is to incorporate measures that are neutral with

respect to social desirability and to ensure the construction of rational self-report instruments that elicits socially desirable responding (Richins, 1983). Neutral questions are a popular method among researchers for coping with such bias (e.g. Edwards, 1957; King and Bruner, 2000; Fisher, 1993). Accordingly, this study conducted review and revision of the pre-existing and modified measurements by an independent researcher. As previously noted, the questionnaire was distributed in an online format as well as a paper based format. Online survey thus allows anonymous responses, which limited social desirability bias (King and Bruner, 2000). With regard to paper based survey, respondents were all left alone completely while finishing the questionnaire without any assistance (Dohrenwend, Colombotos and Dohrenwend, 1968).

The next stage of scale validation included refining the developed scales and checking the scale reliabilities. Reliability evaluation for questionnaire is closely linked to scale validation to represent the homogeneity of the items (Streiner and Norman, 2008; DeVellis, 2012; Kline, 2005). A pilot study was conducted to serve the purpose of establishing reliability evaluation. *Pre-test* questionnaires were distributed to a convenience sample consisting of 60 residents studying and working in Durham University in the UK, 58 of which were accurately completed. Inter-item correlations and item-to-total correlations were assessed for every measurement to ensure the items were measuring something different from the scale as a whole. According to recommendations from researchers (Pallant, 2013), any item in the scale that failed to achieve a correlation of at least 0.3 was removed. Item-to-total correlation tells the internal consistency or average correlation of items, and it was examined by Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al., 2013). Researchers suggest that the value above .70 is considered acceptable (Pavot, Diener, Colvin, and Sandvik, 1991; Pallant, 2013). Further, items with low Pearson item-total correlations were eliminated from the scale if their removal increased Cronbach's alpha (Pallant, 2013). As shown in the table below, Cronbach's alpha coefficients are all above 0.70 as recommended by the scholars (Hinkin, 1998; Pallant, 2013), suggesting a good reliability in the scales. After the above procedures, the numbers of items for several scales were reduced. **Table (4-2)** is the detailed description of the reliability and reduction of each measurement.

Variable	No. Items	Cronbach's alpha
Social	2	.79
Physical	2	.82
Temporal	4	.87
Uncertainty	2	.85
Emotion	10	.89
Participation Effort	3	.79
Product level	4	.82
Cause fit	4	.84
CRM familiarity	7	.83
CRM credibility	6	.80
Altruism	4	.73
Purchase intention	5	.91
Donation Magnitude	8	.85

Table (4-2): Purified scales

3.4 Sample and data collection procedure

3.4.1 Sampling Strategy

A sampling strategy should be selected based on whether it would suit answering the research question in the scope of research design and objectives (Breakwell et al., 2006; Polkinghorne, 2005; Guest et al, 2013). To meet the objective of investigating behavioural differences in buying CRPs amongst Chinese and UK consumers, this study consequently chooses a cross-cultural sample. It is acknowledged that studies concerning the cross-cultural comparative investigation of consumer behaviour are still needed (Parameswaran and Yaprak, 1987), including areas of CRM and psychological distance (e.g. Wang, 2014; Lavack and Kropp, 2003). Therefore, this study aims to fill this knowledge gap by studying both UK and Chinese consumers.

The respondents for Study Two were recruited through convenience sampling. The choice of this technique of sampling is based on several important considerations.

Firstly, convenience sampling represents a method by which data are collected from whatever cases present themselves. This implies that researchers use what is available and easily accessible (Bryman, 2008; Basit, 2010). This allows recruiting participants from personal connections, with the consideration of the limited money and time as an individual researcher. Since convenience sampling is arguably the least expensive and least time consuming sampling technique (Lunsford and Lunsford, 1995; Malhotra and Birks, 2007), and given the time restraint, limited budget as well as the large size required for the final sample, this sampling technique is deemed the most appropriate for the current research. Secondly, although it is acknowledged that convenience sampling might not show clear generalizability of the population (Malhotra and Birks, 2007), studies use this method can still provide useful information if the final sample is reasonably representative of the population of interest (Proctor, 2005; Wilson, 2006). As aforementioned in the purchase behaviour measures, the survey included a screening question in the beginning asking participants to indicate if they have bought a CRP. Therefore, the choice of convenience sample consisting of CRP buyers reasonably representative of the target population.

Once the targeted population has been chosen, the sample size needs to be determined before distributing the questionnaire. The target of the study is defined as all CRP buyers residing in the UK and in China. Cochran's (1977) formula for sampling is commonly adopted by research investigating such large size of population. The sample size is calculated with a formula widely used in marketing research (Bell and Bryman, 2003; Burns and Bush, 2006, p.372), which is:

$$n = \frac{Z^2 \times pq}{e^2}$$

Where

n = sample size

Z= standard error associated with the chosen level of confidence (typically, 1.96)

p=estimated percentage in the population

q= 100-p

e=acceptable sample error

The typical approach in marketing research is to use the standard confidence interval of 95%, and therefore this level translates to a Z of 1.96 (Burns and Bush, p.377). Taking the p value of 0.5, the required sample size for the present study with 5% desired precision is calculated as $n=384$. The questionnaires were completed by 631 Chinese respondents and 923 UK respondents initially. After screening out the unsuitable responses, the usable sample was composed of 225 Chinese respondents and 220 UK respondents (in total 445). This gives a response rate of 35.6% for the China sample and 23.8% for the UK sample. Both response rates are appropriate and similar to response rates for online surveys (Gregoire, Laufer and Tripp, 2010). The number is larger than the computed sample size 384, therefore satisfying the minimum requirement. The total 445 sample is deemed a very good size according to Comfrey and Lee (1992) as they suggest a sample of 300-500 an appropriate size and stand for a good to very good standard for a social science study.

Table (4-3) provides the demographic profile of the respondents as well as their purchase behaviour of CRP. As seen in the table, the overall gender ratios of the total sample ($n=445$) are respectively 41.8 % (Male=186) and 58.2% (Female=259). The gender ratios for the UK sample are 41% (male) and 59% (female). For China sample the ratios are similar 42.7% (male) and 57.3% (female). The total sample consists of various age categories from over 18 to over 65. The majority of the respondents (87%) had bought CRP before, within which 80.9% indicated they had bought CRP less than 5 times a month, followed by 15.7% who had bought CRP at least 6-10 times a month, and 3.4% who had bought CRP more than 10 times a month. The frequency of the geographic data suggests a reasonably representative of the current CRP user patterns.

	CHINA		UK		TOTAL	
	NO.	%	NO.	%	NO.	%
GENDER						
Male	96	42.7	90	41	186	41.8
Female	129	57.3	130	59	259	58.2
Total	225	100	220	100	445	100
AGE						
<18	0	0	0	0	0	0
18-24	23	10.2	32	14.5	55	12.4
25-34	143	63.6	155	70.5	298	67
35-44	43	19.1	19	9	62	13.9
45-54	9	4	10	4.5	19	4.3
55-64	2	0.8	2	1	4	0.9
>65	3	1.3	2	1	5	1.1
Prefer not to state	2	0.8	0	0	2	0.4
Total	225	100	220	100	445	100
INCOME						
Under £10,000/Under30,000RMB	98	22	98	22	98	22
£10,001-£20,000/30,000-80,000RMB	87	19.6	87	19.6	87	19.6
£20,001-£30,000/80,001-150,000RMB	72	16.2	72	16.2	72	16.2
£30,001-£40,000/150,001-250,000RMB	51	11.5	51	11.5	51	11.5
£40,001-£50,000/250,001-300,000RMB	46	10.3	46	10.3	46	10.3
£50,001-£60,000/300,001-600,000RMB	28	6.3	28	6.3	28	6.3
More than 60,000/more than600,000RMB	31	7	31	7	31	7
Prefer not to state	32	7.2	32	7.2	32	7.2
Total	225	100	220	100	445	100
OCCUPATION						
Admin/Clerical	20	8.9	41	18.6	61	13.7
Manual	2	1	17	7.7	19	4.3
Professional	131	58.2	59	26.8	190	42.7
Full-time student	20	8.9	58	26.3	78	17.5
Self-employed	20	8.9	7	3.2	27	6.1
Not working (housewife/retired)	2	0.8	25	11.4	27	6.1
Unemployed	9	4	1	0.45	10	2.2
Other	21	9.3	12	5.5	33	7.4
Total	225	100	220	100	445	100
Experience						
Yes	177	78.7	210	95	387	87
No	48	21.3	10	5	58	13
Total	225	100	220	100	445	100
Frequency						
0-5 times/month	203	90.2	157	71.4	360	80.9
6-10 times/month	17	7.6	53	24.17	70	15.7
>10 times/month	5	2.2	10	4.5	15	3.4
Total	225	100	220	100	445	100

Table (4-3): Sample composition for Study Two

3.4.2 Questionnaire distribution

Two methods were used to distribute the questionnaire due to the cross-cultural samples. The primary method is online electronic survey, which was distributed via email and social media through a website link (surveyMonkey.com). The first reason for choosing electronic survey online is that the size of the population of interest is very large (Czaja and Blair, 2005). Electronic format can increase sample representativeness by broadening geographical range. Secondly, online surveys are widely used in consumer studies (Stanton, 1998) and can provide high response rate in a limited time frame (Cobanoglu, Warde and Moreo, 2001). Thirdly, this study targets respondents in two geographically distant countries. The use of electronic format of questionnaire can minimise costs (Czaja and Blair, 2005). A technical advantage for using electronic format is that it allows customising the respondents' previous answers and makes answers to the questions compulsory, and therefore minimises missing data.

Besides web-based survey, some respondents were randomly chosen and distributed a paper-based questionnaire. The respondents across age and occupational groups were approached by the researcher rather than merely students. This was to minimise the limitation from convenience sampling in order to generalise the samples among the general population as much as possible. Researchers argue that more than one method of collecting survey data is acceptable and usually leads to a higher response rate (Cobanoglu et al., 2001). Therefore, the adoption of different modes in this study is deemed appropriate. In both the online and paper-based survey, the respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire after being informed about the purpose and duration (30-45 minutes) of the study. All the respondents of the survey were ensured complete anonymity and that they could end their participation whenever they liked.

4. Measurement Validation

Data must be further examined to ensure they conform to the assumptions upon which the test procedures are based (Westberg, 2004, p.142). Therefore in the current study, prior to commencing tests for the hypotheses, a normality test had been undertaken to make sure the data obtained were normally distributed (Pallant, 2013). Normality tests show the data fit a normal distribution. Factor analysis is the necessary next step to identify underlying factor structure and test the construct validity of the scales. In this research, both types of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted to validate the measurement of the constructs. EFA was employed for two reasons. First, the relationship between the variables have not been determined before in the cross-national samples, the use of factor analysis can help test the proposed conceptual framework. Second, EFA can be used to reduce the large number of items included in the questionnaire for further statistical tests. For this research, principle component analysis (PCA) was used for EFA test. This is due to the consideration that PCA provides a more simple approach and it is deemed better in providing an empirical summary of the data than other methods because it is used for identifying groups of variables into a more manageable size while keeping as much of the original data as possible (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007; Field, 2009).

Next, the items were subjected to PCA using SPSS version 20. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. Following previous researchers' suggestion (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013; Pallant, 2013), factor analysis only is thought appropriate if there is strong strength of the interrelations among the items. Based on the correlation coefficients (greater than .30), it shows that factor analysis is deemed appropriate for the dataset. To further detect factorability of the data, the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity were examined for the independent variables of the study. Results for Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin measure (KMO=.862, exceeding .60) and Bartlett's Test (statistically significant at 1%, $p < 0.001$) support the factorability of the data (Field, 2009; Tabachnick and Field, 2013). In the PCA of independent and dependent variables, factors with Eigen values greater than 1 were retained for further investigation. Additionally, a cut-off loading of .60 was used to retain only the solid factors (Pallant, 2013). The result of PCA revealed seven factors. Overall, the seven

components explained a total of 75.18% of the variance, higher than the recommended proportion of 60% (Hinkin, 1998). All factor loadings were considerably above .40 and are therefore considered significant (Pallant, 2013). A scree test confirmed that no more than seven factors should be retained (Costello and Osborne, 2005). **Table (4-4)** shows that the factor loading for the independent and dependent variables that have confirmed the factor structure.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was next conducted to quantitatively assess the quality of the independent and dependent variables. It thereby can provide additional evidence of construct validity. Following researchers' recommendations such as Brown (2006), CFA followed the process of specification, estimation, modification and re-estimation. The objective was to validate each of the seven constructs in keeping with standard practices of unidimensionality (Gorton, et al, 2013; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). The model fit was assessed by the General Fit Index (GFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Incremental Fit Index (IFI), Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and the Standardised Root-Mean-Square Residual (SRMR) (Hair et al, 2013; Hu and Bentler, 1999). Using the maximum likelihood method by AMOS version 20, CFA was conducted to establish the reliability and discriminant validity of the independent and dependent variable scales. Next a multi-group CFA was performed to test for invariance in the measurement model across the two countries (China and UK). This was undertaken to confirm whether adjoining cases into a single measurement model was empirically appropriate (Gorton et al, 2013). The result of CFA included the dependent variable and all six independent variables that were proposed to predict CRP buying. The results indicated that the model fitted the data reasonably well (M_{China} : $\chi^2/\text{df}=1.681$; GFI=0.922; AGFI=0.902; CFI=0.956; SRMR=0.047; RMSEA=0.039; M_{UK} : $\chi^2/\text{df}=1.271$; GFI=0.902; AGFI=0.866; CFI=0.964; SRMR=0.035; RMSEA=0.031). Furthermore, the measurement instruments were found to be cross-nationally invariant prior to hypothesis testing. As can be seen in **Table (4-6)**, there are no significant differences in each of the measures between the two group datasets. Therefore the initial measurement model is deemed appropriate for analysis.

Four sets of tests were conducted to evaluate the reliability and validity of each variable scale, internal consistency reliability, item reliability, convergent validity and

discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2013). Cronbach's alpha (α) and composite reliability (CR) need to be greater than .70 (Hair et al, 2013). As reported in **Table (4-4)** CR and α for each of the CRP buying antecedent scale are larger than .70, indicating good internal consistency. For item reliability, an individual item needs to exhibit significant standardized loadings above .70 (Hair et al., 2013). As can be seen in the table below, all loading values are greater than .70. For convergent validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) of a construct need to be over .50 (Hair et al. 2013). As shown in the table, the results show that the AVE values are all above this threshold, and therefore indicating their convergent validity. With regards to the discriminant validity, Hair et al. (2013) suggest that both maximum shared variance (MSV) and the average shared vairance (ASV) should be less than the value of the AVE in order for the discriminant validity to be established. As shown in **Table (4-5)** discriminant validity was established since all the AVE values of the constructs are higher than the MSV and ASV values.

Constructs/items	AVE	CR	α	Loading
Credibility	.57	.84	.80	
CERD1				.76
CERD2				.74
CERD3				.74
CERD4				.79
Familiarity	.70	.86	.86	
FAM1				.89
FAM2				.85
FAM3				.88
FAM4				.72
FAM5				.82
FAM6				.81
Cause fit	.63	.87	.84	
FIT1				.77
FIT2				.76
FIT3				.76
FIT4				.87
Participation effort	.68	.84	.83	
EFFT1				.83
EFFT2				.82

Constructs/items		AVE	CR	α	Loading
Altruism		.57	.79	.78	
ALT1	It is very important to me to help the people around me. I want to care for other people.				.76
ALT2	I strongly believe that people should care for nature. Looking after the environment is important to me.				.71
ALT3	I like to devote myself to society.				.79
Emotional Intensity		.63	.85	.83	
ET1	I get upset easily				.85
ET2	I get stressed out easily				.82
ET3	I get irritated easily				.82
ET4	I change mood a lot				.78
ET5	I often feel blue				.74
ET6	I am easily disturbed				.74
ET7	I rarely get irritated (reversed)				.78
Purchase Intention		.74	.92	.91	
PI1	It is likely that I will participate in a cause campaign by purchasing a cause-related product.				.86
PI2	I would be willing to purchase a product associated with a charitable cause.				.85
PI3	I would consider purchasing from a firm that donates to a cause, in order to help it.				.83
PI4	I would be willing to pay a higher price for a cause-related product				.90
PI5	I would be willing to influence others to purchase a cause-related product				.87

Table (4-4): Scale items and convergent validity

Construct	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
FIT	0.872	0.626	0.267	0.105
EI	0.847	0.626	0.102	0.039
CRED	0.836	0.569	0.301	0.134
EFFT	0.843	0.682	0.269	0.138
ALT	0.785	0.568	0.301	0.119
FAM	0.855	0.699	0.257	0.108
PI	0.922	0.736	0.418	0.112

Table (4-5): Discriminant validity for independent variables

			China		UK		z-score
			Estimate	P	Estimate	P	
ET6	<---	Emotion	1.242	0.000	1.201	0.000	-0.243
ET5	<---	Emotion	1.103	0.000	1.268	0.000	0.771
ET4	<---	Emotion	1.452	0.000	1.434	0.000	0.072
ET3	<---	Emotion	1.068	0.000	1.405	0.000	1.506
ET2	<---	Emotion	1.428	0.000	1.447	0.000	0.081
CERD3	<---	CRED	1.193	0.000	1.107	0.000	0.561
CERD2	<---	CRED	1.071	0.000	1.437	0.000	1.78*
CERD1	<---	CRED	1.196	0.000	1.496	0.000	1.347
EFFT1	<---	EFFORT	0.925	0.000	0.323	0.362	1.377
ALT2	<---	Altruism	0.870	0.000	1.050	0.000	1.014
ALT1	<---	Altruism	0.809	0.000	1.099	0.000	1.702*
FIT3	<---	Fit	1.433	0.000	1.093	0.000	1.435
FIT2	<---	Fit	1.372	0.000	1.026	0.000	1.535
FIT1	<---	Fit	1.322	0.000	0.996	0.000	1.451
ET1	<---	Emotion	1.233	0.000	1.096	0.000	0.653
FAM5	<---	FAM	1.247	0.000	1.199	0.000	0.205
FAM2	<---	FAM	0.515	0.000	0.668	0.000	0.926
FAM1	<---	FAM	1.315	0.000	1.055	0.000	1.105

Table (4-6): Group difference in CFA

Notes: *** p-value < 0.01; ** p-value < 0.05; * p-value < 0.10

5. Data analysis strategy

This section discusses the analysis procedure for testing proposed mediating role of psychological distance in influencing buying intention of CRP and intention antecedent variables including consumers' CRM perception and consumer characteristic variables. Mediator variable "accounts for the relation between the predictor and the outcome (Baron and Kenny, 1986, cited in Preacher and Hayes, 2004, p.1176). In this thesis, mediation analysis investigates whether psychological distance changes in regards to buying antecedent variables, in turn, affecting purchase intention.

The purpose of mediation test is to seek a more accurate explanation of the causal effect the predictor has on the outcome – focus on mechanisms that make causal chain possible (Hayes and Preacher, 2013). It can enable researchers to move beyond answering if positive CRM and consumer-related attributes, higher emotional and motivational attributes leads to more willingness to buy CRP. With mediation analysis researchers might instead answer how such variables are related to purchase intention in the context of CRM.

5.1 The Mediation Model

A causal relationship proposed in the figure below represents the effect of some proposed cause (X) on some outcome (Y). **Figure (4-1)** represents when one variable mediates this relationship.

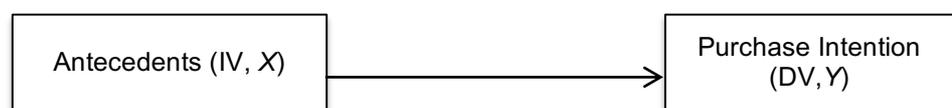


Figure (4-1): Direct relationship between predictor X and outcome Y

The relationship between the predictor X and outcome Y refers to the *total effect* of X on Y.

This thesis proposes that intention antecedents and purchase intention of CRP is operated via the third variable, i.e. consumers' psychological distance (or closeness) to

the social cause. In other words, intention antecedents (e.g. cause fit) has an effect on purchase intention of CRPs because it is influencing psychological distance to the social cause, and psychological distance, in turn, affects intention (Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes, 2007). These propositions propose that psychological distance is related to both of the predictor and outcome variable, and therefore explains the antecedents-intention relationship in a *mediating* way (Hayes and Preacher, 2010). The indirect pathway, from intention antecedents to psychological distance to purchase intention, is proposed to help explain the process through which intention antecedents exert their effects on purchase intention.

The relationship proposed is illustrated in **Figure (4-2)** below, the intervening or mediator variable M , i.e. psychological distance is located causally between the attitudinal antecedents and purchase intention, such that a change or difference in attitudinal antecedents causes changes or differences in psychological distance to the charitable cause, which in turn cause changes or differences in consumers' purchase intention of CRP.

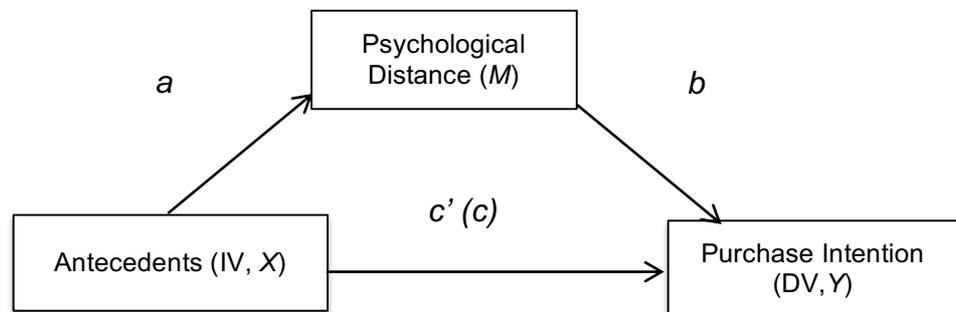


Figure (4-2): Conceptual model of single mediator on attitude-purchase intention relation

The hypothesis testing follows the recommended route (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Hayes and Preacher, 2010). First step involves raw correlations among the three variables in question and ensures that there is significant correlation of the a-path and b-path (Rucker, Preacher, Tormala and Petty, 2011). In this case, Pearson Correlation test was firstly used as a general measure of the proposed relationship between attitudinal antecedent components, psychological distance and the reported purchase

intention of CRP, as the test can determine both the direction and strength of the proposed relationship (Pallant, 2013).

Secondly, a multiple regression where the mediator is the outcome and the independent variable is the predictor in the regression; and third step is to compute a simultaneous inclusion multiple regression where the independent variable and the mediator are the predictors and the dependent variable is the outcome in the regression. Because the model of observed variables involves only a single intermediary variable, the coefficients in this model typically are estimated using a set of multiple regressions or simultaneously using a structural equation modelling program (Hayes and Preacher, 2010, p.628). The mathematical structural equation models are listed below:

$$M = i_1 + aX + e_M \quad (1)$$

$$Y = i_2 + c'X + bM + e_Y \quad (2)$$

Where i_1 and i_2 are regression intercepts, e_x and e_y are errors in the estimation of M and Y, respectively. a and b are estimated regression weights or path coefficients, given to the antecedent variables in the model in the estimation of the consequents, derived using ordinary least squares (OLS) as suggested by previous literatures (Hayes and Preacher, 2010). The discrepancies between Y and Y' and M and M' (the error in estimation, manifested in a sample as residuals) meet the standard assumptions of regression (i.e. homoscedasticity, normality, and independence).

Following Hayes and Preacher (2010), the statistical effect of attitudinal antecedents on purchase intention can be partitioned into *direct* and *indirect* components. The *indirect* effect through intervening mediator psychological distance is quantified as the result of *a-path* and *b-path* and is interpreted as the amount that purchase intention is expected to change as attitudinal antecedents change by one unit as a result of buying antecedents' effect on psychological distance which, in turn, affects purchase intention. The indirect effect of X on Y through M is the product of a and b (indirect effect=ab). It means that "two cases that differ by one unit on X are estimated to differ

by ab units on Y as a result of the effect of X on M which, in turn, affects Y ” (Hayes, 2013, p.92).

The *direct* effect of buying antecedents on purchase intention is how much a unit change in attitudes affect purchase intention *independent of* its effect on psychological distance. The *direct* effect is quantified as *c'-path*. The total effect of buying antecedents on purchase intention, estimated with c ($c=ab+c'$) in the model shown in Equation 3.

$$Y = i_3 + cX + e_y \quad (3)$$

According to scholars (Hayes and Preacher, 2010; Rucker et al, 2011), a *full* mediation effect realises when c' -path becomes insignificant when the X-Y relation involves M. There will be a *partial* effect of mediation from M if the c' coefficient becomes smaller than c coefficient, i.e. less impact of X-Y, and c' -path remains significant (Preacher and Hayes, 2008; Hayes, 2013). Following this rationale, direct and indirect effects in the above mediator models have been conducted using *bootstrapping* technique (Bollen and Stine, 1990; MacKinnon et al., 2002; Preacher and Hayes, 2004, 2008; Shrout and Bolger, 2002).

5.2 Inference of Indirect Effect

Apart from knowing if there exists an indirect effect from X-M-Y, it is important to further validate the relationship and interpret the indirect effect size. “The indirect effect quantifies how much two cases that differ by a unit on X are estimated to differ on Y as a result of X 's influence on M , which in turn influences Y . The indirect effect is relevant as to whether X 's effect on Y can be said to be transmitted through the mechanism represented by the X-M-Y causal chain of events” (Hayes, 2013, p.102).

The analysis in this chapter will be following Hayes (2013)'s approaches to statistical inference for the indirect effect that have been proposed. They are the most widely used in the past and recently and therefore worth emphasizing (Preacher and Hayes,

2008; Hayes, 2013; MacKinnon et al, 2002; MacKinnon, 2008; Preacher and Selig, 2012).

Bootstrap Confidence Intervals

Following the recommendation of Preacher and Hayes (2008), mediation (examined via significance of the indirect effect $a_j \times b_j$) was determined by using bootstrapped confidence intervals rather than the Sobel (1982) test. The bootstrap method is preferred over the Sobel test because the former does not require the assumption of a normal distribution, and simulations have shown that bootstrapping methods have higher power while still performing well regarding Type I error rates (MacKinnon et al., 2002, 2004). The SPSS macro script of Preacher and Hayes (2008) was used to conduct multiple mediation analyses by calculating 95% bias-corrected and accelerated bootstrap confidence intervals for the indirect effect involving 5,000 repetitions.

Hayes' (2013) PROCESS FOR SPSS macro was used to conduct the tests. PROCESS has been widely used as a statistic analysing tool for mediation effects (e.g. Hayes and Preacher, 2010), and therefore is deemed appropriate for this analysis.

5.3 Mediation Model with control variables

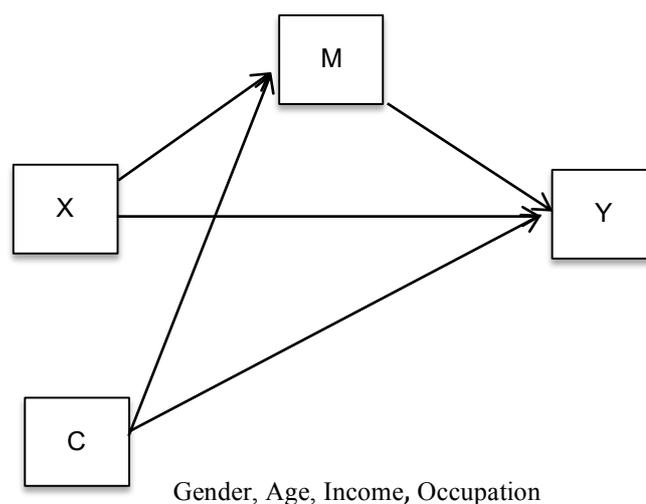


Figure (4-3): A conceptual diagram of a simple mediation model with statistical controls

(Source: Hayes, 2013, p.172-178)

This study focuses on finding the mechanism underlying how each antecedents influence CRM buying behaviour. Therefore it is important to eliminate the potential sources of confounding or epiphenomenal association. The above model as shown in **Figure (4-3)** is the extension of the simple mediation model with control variables for this study, which are *gender, age, income, occupation*, respectively.

Mathematically, to remove C's influence on the quantification of the putative causal associations in a mediation model, scholars suggest one should include C as a predictor in the models of M and Y. Additionally “by adding C to the models of M and Y will also remove C as an epiphenomenal or confounding threat to a casual claim about the association between X and M and C and Y as well as between M and Y” (Hayes, 2013, p.174). Therefore in this study, there are four control variables to be added in the analysis.

The models thus can be mathematically represented as follows:

$$M = i_1 + aX + \sum_{i=1}^q f_i C_i + e_M \quad (1)$$

$$Y = i_2 + c'X + bM + \sum_{i=1}^q g_i C_i + e_Y \quad (2)$$

As can be seen from the equations, the only difference in the models to the ones is the inclusion of the q covariates. After adding such covariates, the resulting estimates for a, b, and c' can be “purified” of the influence of the covariates on their value absent the inclusion of C in the model (Hayes, 2013, p.175). They are being statistically controlled in the estimation of the other effects in the model. Therefore it is clear that the indirect, direct and total effect still remain as *ab, c'* and *c (c'+ab)*. The total effect of c in a model Y without M is:

$$Y = i_3 + cX + \sum_{i=1}^q h_i C_i + e_Y \quad (3)$$

As indicated in the earlier section, the effects on purchase intention that are controlled in the following mediation analysis will be from demographic variables including gender, age, income, and occupation. The test of mediation consists of two parts.

Firstly, the relationships between buying antecedents including CRM perception factors and consumer pro-social characteristic attributes with psychological distance will be examined. Secondly, it will tests each construct of psychological distance influences relation between buying antecedents and CRP purchase intention.

6. Conclusion

This chapter discussed the methodology adopted for Study Two. More specifically, the Study Two will use a self-reported and scenario-based questionnaire to further systematically examine the role of psychological distance in CRP buying in cross-cultural contexts. The current chapter also discussed the manner in which the instrument of the study was used to collect the data. Participants of the study including sampling strategy and the distribution process were also discussed. This chapter presented the scales for dependent and independent variables and variables regarding psychological distance, donation magnitude and produce level based on existing literature and results from the exploratory Study One. The final sample consists of 225 Chinese respondents and 220 UK respondents, respectively. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to quantitatively assess the quality of the scale of independent variables by testing the underlying factor structure and construct validity of their components. The factor structure was confirmed and the convergent and discriminant validity were also established. Results show a good fit of model was achieved for hypotheses testing in the next section. Lastly the data analysis strategy for testing psychological distance's mediating role in the model was discussed. Hayes' (2013) PROCESS FOR SPSS macro with bootstrap method has been chosen to conduct the tests.

CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

1. Introduction

Chapter Four discussed methodology and research design for Study Two. As a self-report questionnaire survey was adopted as the method for data collection as it can be seen as the examination of individual's verbal behaviour. Building upon the findings from the exploratory Study One and results from a pilot study, variable scales were purified and validated for question development. The final questionnaire was completed by UK and Chinese consumers via online and paper-based distribution. A convenience sample of 445 respondents was obtained. This chapter documents the data analysis of each hypothesis proposed in Chapter Two as well as provides discussion of the findings.

The analysis and discussion will consist of five main sections. The analysis *first* includes tests (H1.1-1.6) of the association between CRM perception factors, consumer characteristic factors and CRP purchase intention. *Second* it reports test of the association between psychological distance and purchase intention. Hypothesis testing for H2.1-2.4 will be included. Psychological distance's mediating role in influencing buying factors and purchase intention of CRP will also be included (H3-H8). The *third* part focuses on psychological distance's impact on CRP buying with different CRM structures. It tests consumers' buying of CRP with product level (H9.1). Analysis further contains the impact of psychological distance on CRP purchase intention with different product level (H9.2). *In addition*, the impact of various level of psychological distance will be examined on the amount of donation magnitude associated with CRP (H10). *Lastly*, testing for cross-cultural comparison on buying intention of CRP will be presented (H11, H12.1-12.2). The structure of this chapter follows the order of the study hypotheses. Statistical methods used and its rationale, results of the analysis will be presented in the section that relates to each study hypothesis. Brief discussion will also be given at the end of result. General discussion will be provided in the later chapter.

2. Hypotheses testing

2.1. Hypothesis 1

H1.1: Perceived cause fit will increase consumers' intention to buy CRPs.

H1.2: Perceived CRM credibility will increase consumers' intention to buy CRPs.

H1.3: Familiarity of CRM will increase consumers' intention to buy CRPs.

H1.4: Perceived participation effort will positively influence consumers' purchase intention of CRPs.

H1.5: Altruistic consumers will be more likely to purchase a CRP.

H1.6: Consumers who are have higher emotional reactions towards social causes will be more likely to purchase a CRP.

Analysis procedure

Hypotheses 1.1-1.6 state that the CRM perception variables (H1.1-H1.4) and consumer pro-social characteristic variables (H1.5, H1.6) would be positively related to their purchase intention of CRP. To access the ability of each variable predicting purchase intention, hierarchical multiple regression was used, after controlling for the influences of demographic variables (age, sex, job, income). Preliminary tests results was undertaken to ensure there was no violation of the assumption of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity.

Variable	Step 1	Step 2
sex	.036	-.001
age	-.077	-.041
income	.086	.054
job	0.14**	.092
CRMA		.12**
EFF		-.04 (n.s.)
FIT		.17**
CRED		.33***
ALT		.15***
EI		.05 (n.s.)
R ²	0.3	0.2
ΔR ²	0.3	0.17
ΔF	3.01	14.27
sig. ΔF	0.011	0

Table (5-1): Hierarchical multiple regression coefficient of CRP buying antecedents for purchase intention. Notes: $n = 455$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$.

Results and discussion

The regression coefficients and model evaluation for the six independent variables and purchase intention are shown in **Table (5-1)**. The four demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 3% of the variance in purchase intention of CRPs. After enter the CRP buying antecedents at Step 2 the total variance explained by the model as a whole was $R^2=20\%$, $F(11,433)=9.4$, $p<.001$. The six antecedents explained an additional $\Delta R^2=17\%$ of the variance in purchase intention, with $\Delta F(6,433)=14.27$, $p<.001$. In the final model, emotional intensity and participation effort were found statistically insignificant ($\beta_{EFF} = -.04$, $p>.05$; $\beta_{EI} = .05$, $p>.05$). All other three predictors were statistically significant, with perceived credibility makes the strongest unique contribution in predicting the purchase intention of CRPs ($\beta_{CRED} = .33$, $p<.001$; $\beta_{FIT} = .17$, $p<.01$; $\beta_{ALT} = .15$, $p<.001$; $\beta_{CRMA} = .12$, $p<.01$). Therefore, H1.1, H1.2, H1.3, H1.5 are supported. H1.4 and H1.6 are rejected.

These results generally support the proposed relationship between CRP buying factors and CRP buying intention in the conceptual framework. The positive effect of perceived CRM credibility, cause fit, CRM familiarity, and altruistic motive on CRP buying is consistent with the findings in prior literature on CRM and pro-social helping behaviour (e.g. Yoon et al, 2006; Lafferty, 2007; Walker and Kent, 2013; Barone et al, 2000; La Ferle et al, 2011). Unlike some studies on CRM (e.g. Hou et al, 2008; Ellen et al, 2000) and charitable giving (e.g. Olivola and Shafir, 2013), asking consumer to exert effort for a social cause may not contribute to CRM sales according to the study result. Previous research often assumes consumers' stronger emotional state will lead to their pro-social giving behaviour (e.g. Sturmer et al, 2005; Sargeant, 1999; Eisenberg and Miller, 1987). In this study, the results show otherwise - people who tend to have stronger emotional reaction to social causes are no more likely to engage in helping by purchasing a CRP than others. One possible explanation to this is that although considered as a helping gesture, CRP buying might rely less on emotion eliciting stimuli than donation due to its commercial nature.

Amongst the three significant influential CRM-related buying factors, perceived CRM credibility was found most strongly predict the purchase intention of CRPs. This implies that consumers care most about the brand and NPO's reputation of capability

and trustworthiness in CRM. However, although the results show that buying factors have a positive and strong relation with purchase intention, the strength of the relationships is deemed as only medium, according to Cohen (1988)'s criteria. This echoes the argument that the buying antecedents-purchase intention relation might be influenced by other factors in some format, and provides foundation for the later hypothesis tests.

2.2 Hypothesis 2

H2.1: Consumers' perceived physical proximity towards social causes will increase their willingness to buy CRPs.

H2.2: Consumers' perceived temporal closeness towards social causes will increase their willingness to buy CRPs.

H2.3: Consumers' perceived social closeness towards social causes will increase their willingness to buy CRPs.

H2.4: Consumers' perceived certainty towards social causes will increase their willingness to buy CRPs.

Analysis procedure

H2.1-2.4 include tests of the association between psychological distance and purchase intention. Together they propose that psychological distance will have a significant influence on buying CRP. Similar to the technique used in the previous tests, hierarchical multiple regression was used, after controlling for the influences of demographic variables (age, sex, job, income). Preliminary tests results was undertaken to ensure there was no violation of the assumption of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and multicollinearity.

Results and discussion

The regression coefficients and model evaluation for the six independent variables and purchase intention are shown in **Table (5-2)**. The four demographic variables were entered at Step 1, explaining 3% of the variance in purchase intention of CRPs. After enter the four psychological distance variables at Step 2 the total variance explained by the model as a whole was $R^2=31\%$, $F(8,436)=6.723$, $p<.001$. The six antecedents explained an additional $\Delta R^2=30\%$ of the variance in purchase intention, with $\Delta F(4,436) = 11.50$, $p<.001$. In the final model, all four distance dimension variables were found to be statistically significant in predicting purchase intention. More specifically, temporal distance makes the strongest unique contribution in predicting the purchase intention of CRPs ($\beta_{\text{TEMPORAL}} = .34$, $p<.001$; $\beta_{\text{CERTAINTY}} = .24$, $p<.001$; $\beta_{\text{SOCIAL}} = .15$, $p<.05$; $\beta_{\text{PHYSICAL}} = .12$, $p<.01$). Based on the above results, H2.1-2.4 were strongly supported.

Variable	Step 1	Step 2
sex	.030	.026
age	-.059	-.042
income	.065	.066
job	.09*	.071
Temporal		.34***
Social		.15*
Certainty		.24***
Physical		.12**
R^2		.31
ΔR^2		.02
ΔF		11.5
sig. ΔF		.000

Table (5-2): Hierarchical multiple regression coefficient of psychological distance for purchase intention. Notes: $n = 455$. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$.

The result thus validates the four dimensions of psychological distance and illustrates that consumers' buying decision of CRP is far beyond CRM perceptions and consumer pro-social characteristics factors as previous studies show. To elaborate, if consumers feel closer to a social cause that associates with CRP, there is higher likelihood for them to buy the product. In particular, amongst the psychological distance towards social causes, consumers' psychological distance towards temporal attributes of CRM is proven to be relatively more influential than towards other attributes, followed by uncertainty, social distance, and physical distance. This suggests that difference in

terms of whether cause timing is emergent or long-term, or whether company responses speed is fast, concern them the most. In other words, promoting a CRP highlighting emergent needs and rapid corporate responses to those needs will be most beneficial for companies and brands that conduct a CRM campaign.

Feeling certain about the outcome in CRM is the second most influential among the four dimensions in generating purchases of CRP. In other words, companies and brands must focus on emphasizing the possibility of a genuine and effective outcome of CRM campaign. The results indicate considerations on company motivation to participate in CRM. As expected from previous studies (e.g. Barone et al, 2000; Strahilevitz, 2003), the certainty that a NPO and company alliance is highly important for people to support the social cause by buying a related product. Consistent with Study One's result, this finding is hardly surprising as people normally question if their donation and help would actually reach those in need. Altogether, these two results correspond to the conclusion from Study One that suggests consumers are most sensitive to temporal and uncertainty attributes of a CRM campaign when buying CRPs.

Social and physical distances are respectively in the lower level of importance in predicting purchase behaviour. Not surprisingly, social distance, which is conceptualised in the research for CRM as a mean to support either close others (in-group members, or self) as opposed to distant others (out-group members, or others), also has an importance place in influencing purchase intention. These show that consumers concern about the economic cost (i.e. whether paying for the cause is worth it), as well as the personal benefit (i.e. whether they are, or the close groups are the direct beneficiaries). This is consistent with the previous literature on pro-social behaviour that suggests social closeness promotes higher helping behaviour (e.g. Bennett and Gabriel, 2000; Sturmer et al., 2005; Henderson, Huang and Chang, 2012; Olivola and Liu, 2009; Kennedy, Olivola, and Pronin, 2009). Additionally, social distance can be seen as quite personal. One plausible explanation might lie in the nature of CRM. Concerns about society and social causes are more stable and rooting attitudes that promote pro-social behaviours such as CRP buying. Whereas temporal and uncertainty distance could generate stronger and more immediate responses on CRPs.

The fact that physical attributes are less important in buying CRP than temporal and uncertainty attitudes demonstrates what CRM can present to consumers time-wise, and how much trust it can earn from consumers are more important than attributes such as how far a social cause is placed (physical distance). That is, as long as a social need is perceived as more urgent and company responds in a timely fashion, and if consumers are certain about the alliance partners, they will not be as concerned the physical distance of where the social cause is supported. One possible explanation could be that for individual consumers local causes do not necessarily evoke more psychological closeness than the geographically distant ones such as an international cause. For example, fighting poverty in Africa could look more important and feel closer when compared to the same cause in local area in the UK. Physical distance although still highly important, is the least critical amongst other psychological distance dimensions.

2.3 Hypothesis 3

H3: Consumers' perceived 1. social distance, 2. temporal distance, 3. physical distance, and 4. uncertainty towards a CRM mediates the effects of CRM familiarity on CRP buying intention.

Analytical Procedure

H3 proposes that Perceived CRM Familiarity (PCF) can elicit consumers' feeling of social, temporal, physical closeness and certainty towards a social cause, which in turn influence willingness to buy a CRP. The tests of current H3 and the later H4-H8 consist of two parts. Firstly, the relationships between buying factors including consumer CRM perception and pro-social characteristic attributes with psychological distance will be examined. Secondly, it will tests each construct of psychological distance influences relation between buying factors and CRP purchase intention.

As discussed in Chapter Four (5. Data analysis strategy), In order to test these hypotheses, this research follows recommendation by Preacher and Hayes (2004, 2008) and uses a series of ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions and the bootstrapping procedure to compute direct and indirect effects. The indirect effect

reflects the amount by which the total effect of independent variable (in this case PCF) is decreased when the mediator (psychological distance) is included in the analysis. Effects from the four of the geographic variables were controlled (age, gender, occupation and income).

PROCESS SPSS application developed by Hayes (2013) was used. The significance of the indirect effect, based on the 95% confidence interval (CI) derived from 5,000 bootstrap resamples, is indicated when the CI values do not cross zero. This application enables the estimation of the indirect effect of PCF on purchase intention through psychological distance towards social causes, conditioned on consumers' demographic attributions, using a bootstrapping procedure that address potential concerns with nonnormality of the distribution of the indirect effect. In the following mediation tests, unstandardized coefficient (B) and standard error (SE) is used for each regression equation to indicate the predicted change in the dependent variable (DV), given a one-unit change in the independent variable while controlling for the other variables in the equation.

IV=PCF	DV=Purchase Intention			
	1-ME	2-DV		3-DV
ME=	Path a:	Path b:	Path c':	Path c:
Temporal	(IV to M)	(M to DV)	(IV to DV)	(IV to DV)
<i>Controls</i>	β	β	β	β
Gender	0.0757	0.1677	0.202	0.202
Age	-0.1824	-0.2262	-0.309	-0.309
Income	-0.011	0.098	0.093	0.093
Occupation	0.0402	0.0807	0.0989	0.0989
<i>R-sq</i>	0.0902	0.1008	0.0387	0.0387
<i>Model F</i>	8.7037***	8.1864***	3.5353**	3.5353**
<i>Effect</i>				
Direct	.2529***	.4537***	.1245(n.s.)	
Total				.2392**
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.1147	0.0316	0.0627	0.1882
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.1147	0.0283	4.052	0.0001

Table (5-3.1): OLS and Bootstrap results for temporal distance's effect on Familiarity and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

	IV=PCF			
	DV=Purchase Intention			
	1-ME	2-DV		3-DV
ME=Social	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β	β	β
Gender	0.2631	0.1578		0.202
Age	0.1917	-0.3412		-0.309
Income	-0.0306	0.0982		0.093
Occupation	-0.04	0.1056		0.0989
R-sq	0.0134	0.048		0.0387
Model F	1.1891	3.6787***		3.5353***
Effect				
Direct	.0791	.1680**	.2260**	
Total				.2392***
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.0133	0.0114	-0.0004	0.0465
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.0133	0.0103	1.2856	0.1986

Table (5-3.2): OLS and Bootstrap results for social distance's effect on Familiarity and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

	IV=PCF			
	DV=Purchase Intention			
	1-ME	2-DV		3-DV
ME=Physical	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β	β	β
Gender	0.2569	0.1377		0.202
Age	0.0828	-0.3297		-0.309
Income	-0.023	0.0988		0.093
Occupation	-0.0015	0.0993		0.0989
R-sq	0.0732	0.0512		0.0387
Model F	6.9345***	3.9407***		3.5353**
Effect				
Direct	.1907***	.2502*	.1915*	
Total				.2392**
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.0477	0.0268	-0.004	0.1103
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.0477	0.0219	2.1823	0.0591

Table (5-3.3): OLS and Bootstrap results for physical distance's effect on Familiarity and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

IV=PCF	DV=Purchase Intention			
	1-ME	2-DV		3-DV
ME=Uncertainty	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β	β	β
Gender	-0.2265	0.2906		0.202
Age	-0.0144	-0.3033		-0.309
Income	-.1326*	0.1448		0.093
Occupation	0.0152	0.0929		0.0989
R-sq	0.0398	0.0733		0.0387
Model F	3.6363**	5.7745***		3.5353**
Effect				
Direct	.1331***	.3908***	.1872*	
Total				.2392**
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.052	0.0221	-0.0174	0.1048
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.052	0.0194	2.6856	0.0072

Table (5-3.4): OLS and Bootstrap results for uncertainty's effect on Familiarity and purchase intention. (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

Results and discussion

Table (5-3.1-4) show that the results from the regression analysis indicate PCF is positively and significantly related to perceived temporal, physical and uncertainty distance ($a=.2529$, $p<.001$; $a=.1907$, $p<.001$; $a=.1331$, $p<.001$). PCF was not found to predict social closeness towards social causes in CRM campaigns ($a=.0791$, $p>.05$).

H3.1-3.4 requires that four dimensions of psychological distance mediate the relationship between PCF and purchase intention. It can be seen from **Table (5-3.1)** that bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect of PCF on purchase intention through temporal distance shows that the lower limit of the bootstrap confidence interval (LOWCI) is listed as .0627 and the upper limit (UPPCI) is listed as .1882, meaning this indirect effect is statistically different from zero ($B=.1147$, $SE=.0316$). Further, PCF no longer predicted purchase intention when included temporal distance's effect ($c'=.1245$, $p>.05$). This means there is a full indirect effect of temporal distance in the PCF and purchase intention relation.

The mediating effect of physical distance was found insignificant on PCF (see **Table 5-3.3**), because the 95% confidence interval (CI) around the estimate includes zero

($B=.0477$, $SE=.0268$, 95% bootstrap $CI=-.0040$ to $.1103$). **Table (5-3.4)** shows that the mediating effect of uncertainty on the relation of PCF and purchase intention was also unidentified ($B=.0520$, $SE=.0221$, 95% bootstrap $CI=-.0174$ to $.1048$). **Table (5-3.2)** illustrates that the Bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect of PCF on purchase intention through social distance included zero ($-.0004$ to $.0465$), therefore indirect effect from PCF on purchase intention through social distance is not significant. Hence H3.1, H3.3, H3.4 are rejected. H3.2 is supported.

These results indicate that perceived CRM familiarity (PCF) affect purchase intention of CRP only through perceived temporal distance. Temporal closeness produced a significant mediation effect and reduced the effect of PCF to purchase intention. Results show that those who reported higher awareness of CRM campaigns experiencing closer psychological distance towards temporal causes ($a=.2529$), and those who were experiencing less temporal distance reported a greater intention to purchase CRPs even account for PCF ($b=.4537$). The indirect effect, $B=.1147$, meaning that two consumers who differ by one unit in their reported being familiar with a CRM campaign are estimated to differ by $.1147$ units in their reported intention to purchase CRPs as a result of the tendency for those having higher CRM familiarity to have temporal closeness towards social causes ($a=.2529$), which in turn translate into greater purchase intention of CRPs ($b=.4537$).

In other words, being familiar with a social cause would increase the feeling of urgency in terms of cause timing (e.g. feeling more urgent for help) and company responses (e.g. favouring a faster company respond to donation). In particular, among the perceived distance dimensions, this perceived temporal urgency is found to be the only factor that determines the impact of PCF on CRP purchase. Therefore, to be appealing, a relatively well-known CRM campaigns would benefit the most to have content that emphasise temporal features of the social cause.

2.4 Hypothesis 4

H4: Consumers' 1. social distance 2. perceived uncertainty towards the cause mediates the effects of perceived credibility of the cause-related campaign on consumers' CRP purchase intention.

Analytical procedure

Hypotheses 4.1-4.2 propose mediating effect of social distance and certainty dimension of psychological distance on the relationship between perceived credibility and purchase intention. The analysis was based on the OLS regressions and bootstrapping procedure as previously discussed in 2.3 (Hayes, 2013).

Results and discussion

Results in **Table (5-4.1-2)** show that perceived credibility of CRM campaign being positively associated with social closeness ($a=.1560$, $p<.001$) and perceived certainty ($a=.1735$, $p<.05$). It indicates that when consumers perceive a CRM campaign and its partnership as more credible, they will feel more socially closer to the cause recipients and certain about the campaign outcome.

IV=CRED	DV=Purchase Intention			
	1-ME	2-DV	3-DV	
ME=Social	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
<i>Controls</i>	β	β		β
Gender	0.2009	-0.0358		-0.0199
Age	0.1946	-0.3091		-0.2937
Income	-0.0207	0.1211		0.1195
Occupation	0.0427	0.0917		0.0883
<i>R-sq</i>	0.0395	0.1429		0.1409
<i>Model F</i>	3.6068**	12.1739***		14.4028***
<i>Effect</i>				
Direct	.1560***	0.0792	.5092***	
Total				.5216***
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.0124	0.014	-0.0093	0.0485
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.0124	0.013	0.9517	0.3412

Table (5-4.1): OLS and Bootstrap results for social distance's effect on credibility and purchase intention. (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

	DV=Purchase Intention			
	1-ME	2-DV	3-DV	
ME=Uncertainty	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
<i>Controls</i>	β	β	β	
Gender	-0.2037	0.0538	-0.0199	
Age	-0.035	-0.281	-0.2937	
Income	-0.1022	0.1564	0.1195	
Occupation	0.0203	0.081	0.0883	
<i>R-sq</i>	0.0203	0.1712	0.1409	
<i>Model F</i>	1.8237*	15.0754***	14.4028***	
<i>Effect</i>				
Direct	.1735*	.3617***	.4950***	
Total			.5216***	
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.0266	0.0163	0.0005	0.0668
Sobel	Effect	se	Z	p
	0.0266	0.0143	1.8643	0.0023

Table (5-4.2): OLS and Bootstrap results for uncertainty's effect on credibility and purchase intention. (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

A simple mediation analysis conducted using OLS path analysis and bootstrap result confirmed the mediation of certainty on the relationships between purchase intention and perceived credibility. It can be seen from **Table (5-4.2)** that the indirect effects through perceived certainty was significant, as zero was not included in the 95% CI (CI = .0005 to .0668, B = .0266, SE = .0163). Therefore there was a clear effect of perceived credibility on purchase intention of a CRP; evidence shows that this resulted from an increased sense of certainty towards a social cause. Therefore H4.2 was supported. It is also worth noticing that although the mediating effect existed, the effect of the perceived credibility on purchase intention did not drop significantly ($c' = .4950$, $p < .001$; $c = .5216$, $p < .001$).

Results in **Table (5-4.1)** show that the total effect of perceived credibility on purchase intention was significantly positive (.5216, $p < .001$). The direct effect of perceived credibility remains significant ($c' = .5092$, $p < .001$) including social distance in the relationship. Bootstrap confidence interval includes zero (-.0093 to .0485), providing evidence of insignificant mediation effect (B = .0124, SE = .0141). Accordingly, H4.1 was rejected. In summary, the above analysis indicates that the observed positive

effect of CRM credibility on willingness to pay for a CRP is through perceived certainty towards CRM campaign.

2.5 Hypothesis 5

H5: Consumers' 1. social distance, 2. temporal distance, and 3. perceived uncertainty towards the cause mediates the effects of perceived cause fit on consumers' CRP purchase intention.

Analytical procedure

The analysis took the same procedure as the previous tests and the indirect effect of psychological distance and relation between psychological distance and perceived fit were tested using PROCESS SPSS by Hayes (2013) based on a series on OLS regressions and the bootstrapping procedure from 5,000 samples (Preacher and Hayes, 2008).

Results and discussion

From the results shown in **Table (5-5.1-3)**, it can be concluded that the proposed relationship between cause fit and psychological distance dimensions is statistically significant ($p < .001$), with higher cause fit predicting closer temporal closeness ($a = .3105$, $p < .001$), social closeness ($a = .1707$, $p < .001$), and perceived certainty ($a = .1329$, $p < .001$).

Results from mediation analysis in **Table (5-5.2)** show higher cause fit predicts strongly more willingness to buy CRPs ($c' = .3091$, $p < .001$; $c = .3317$, $p < .001$), taking social distance's effect into consideration. Same Bootstrap method was used to further analyse if there was an indirect effect. The confidence interval ranges from $-.0017$ to $.0668$, which included zero. Therefore there was no indirect effect from cause fit to purchase intention through social distance ($ab = .0225$). To conclude, the hypothesis proposing mediating role of social distance between cause fit and purchase intention can be rejected (H5.1).

It can be seen from **Table (5-5.1)** that temporal closeness positively predicted purchase intention while controlling for cause fit ($b=.4237$, $p<.001$). The direct effect of cause fit on purchase intention of $c'=.2001$ was still significant ($p<.05$), though dropped significantly ($c=.3317$, $p<.001$). The indirect effect of cause fit on purchase intention through temporal closeness was significant, because the 95% confidence interval (CI) around the estimate excludes zero ($B=.1315$, $SE=.0343$, 95% bootstrap $CI=.0737$ to $.2110$). These results indicate that high cause fit affect purchase intention through its effect on perceived temporal closeness. Similar to this analysis, it was found from **Table (5-5.3)** that perceived certainty was significantly associated with purchase intention controlling cause fit ($b=.3756$, $p<.001$). The indirect effects of perceived cause fit on purchase intention through perceived certainty was significant ($B=.0499$, $SE=.0203$, 95% bootstrap $CI=.0185$ to $.1006$), although the effect of perceived cause fit remained a significant predictor ($c'=.2818$, $p<.001$). Therefore, H5.2-3 can be supported.

IV=FIT	DV=Purchase Intention			
	1-ME	2-DV		3-DV
ME=Temporal	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
<i>Controls</i>	β	β		β
Gender	0.0994	0.1684		0.2105
Age	-0.1412	1.1684		-0.2579
Income	0.0315	2.1684		0.1301
Occupation	0.0348	3.1684		0.0911
<i>R-sq</i>	0.118	4.1684		0.0555
<i>Model F</i>	11.7423***	5.1684*		5.1586***
<i>Effect</i>				
Direct	.3105***	.4237***	.2001*	
Total				.3317***
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.1315	0.0343	0.0737	0.211
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.1315	0.0319	4.1268	0

Table (5-5.1): OLS and Bootstrap results for temporal distance's effect on cause fit and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

IV=Fit	DV=Purchase Intention			
	1-ME	2-DV		3-DV
ME=Social	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β		β
Gender	0.2435	0.1784		0.2105
Age	0.2281	-0.288		-0.2579
Income	-0.0234	0.1332		0.1301
Occupation	-0.047	0.0973		0.0911
R-sq	0.0374	0.0611		0.0555
Model F	3.4087**	4.7495***		5.1586***
Effect				
Direct	.1707***	0.1321	.3091***	
Total				.3317***
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.0225	0.017	-0.0017	0.0668
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.0225	0.0156	1.4441	0.1487

Table (5-5.2): OLS and Bootstrap results for social distance's effect on cause fit and purchase intention. (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

IV=Fit	DV=Purchase Intention			
	1-ME	2-DV		3-DV
ME=Uncertainty	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β		β
Gender	-0.2028	0.2867		0.2105
Age	-0.0025	-0.2569		-0.2579
Income	-0.1078	0.1706		0.1301
Occupation	0.0146	0.0853		0.0911
R-sq	0.0367	0.0876		0.0555
Model F	3.3495**	7.0052***		5.1586***
Effect				
Direct	.1329***	.3756***	.2818***	
Total				.3317***
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.0499	0.0203	0.0185	0.1006
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.0499	0.0194	2.5672	0.0023

Table (5-5.3): OLS and Bootstrap results for uncertainty's effect on cause fit and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

2.6 Hypothesis 6

H6: Consumers' 1. social distance, 2.. temporal distance, 3. physical distance, and 4. perceived uncertainty towards the cause mediates the effects of participation effort in the cause-related campaign on consumers' CRP purchase intention.

Analytical procedure

The analysis will be the same with 2.3 and the indirect effect of psychological distance and relation between psychological distance and perceived participation effort will be tested using OLS regressions and bootstrapping in PROCESS SPSS by Hayes (2013).

IV=Effort	DV=Purchase Intention		
	1-ME	2-DV	3-DV
ME=Temporal	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β	β
Gender	0.28	0.2175	0.3562
Age	-0.2329	-0.2457	-0.3611
Income	0.0404	0.1313	0.1513
Occupation	0.0501	0.0874	0.1123
R-sq	0.0369	0.0953	0.0169
Model F	3.3647**	7.6877***	1.5087
Effect			
Direct	.1921**	.4953***	-.0263
Total			.0689
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI
Bootstrap	0.0952	0.0365	0.035
	Effect	se	Z
Sobel	0.0952	0.0332	2.8638
			p
			0.0012

Table (5-6.1): OLS and Bootstrap results for temporal distance's effect on participation effort and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

IV=Effort	DV=Purchase Intention			
	1-ME	2-DV	3-DV	
ME=Social	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β	β	
Gender	0.3646	0.2886		0.3562
Age	0.1801	-0.3945		-0.3611
Income	-0.0239	0.1558		0.1513
Occupation	-0.0407	0.1198		0.1123
R-sq	0.0239	0.0281		0.0169
Model F	2.1503*	2.1082		1.5087
Effect				
Direct	.1684**	.1854*	.0377	
Total				.0689
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.0312	0.0211	-0.0028	0.0904
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.0312	0.0184	1.6992	0.0893

Table (5-6.2): OLS and Bootstrap results for social distance's effect on participation effort and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

IV=Effort	DV=Purchase Intention			
	1-ME	2-DV	3-DV	
ME=Physical	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β	β	
Gender	0.4076	0.2279		0.3562
Age	0.0443	-0.375		-0.3611
Income	0.0165	0.1461		0.1513
Occupation	0.0063	0.1103		0.1123
R-sq	0.0239	0.0377		0.0169
Model F	2.1503*	2.8620**		1.5087
Effect				
Direct	.1352**	.3147**	0.0664	
Total				0.0689
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.0425	0.0237	-0.0077	0.1048
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.0425	0.0209	1.0309	0.1623

Table (5-6.3): OLS and Bootstrap results for physical distance's effect on participation effort and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

	DV=Purchase Intention			
	1-ME	2-DV	3-DV	
ME=Uncertainty	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β	β	β
Gender	-0.1539	0.4229		0.3562
Age	-0.0449	-0.3416		-0.3611
Income	-0.0969	0.1933		0.1513
Occupation	0.024	0.1019		0.1123
R-sq	0.0098	0.0608		0.0169
Model F	0.8705	4.7219***		1.5087
Effect				
Direct	0.0004	.4333***	0.0687	
Total				0.0689
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.0002	0.0242	-0.0472	0.0507
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.0002	0.0222	0.0072	0.9943

Table (5-6.4): OLS and Bootstrap results for uncertainty's effect on participation effort and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

Results and discussions

According to the results from above **Table (5-6.1-4)**, participation effort is shown to be positively related to temporal closeness ($a=.1921$, $p<.01$), social closeness ($a=.1684$, $p<.001$), physical closeness ($a=.1352$, $p<.001$). It was found to have insignificant relation with perceived certainty of CRM ($a=.0004$, $p>.05$). Therefore, it can be concluded that consumers' perceived participation effort will bring them feeling closer on temporal, social and physical cues of CRM, not on certainty.

Results in **Table (5-6.1)** shows that the direct effect of participation effort on purchase intention with mediator temporal distance controlled ($b=.4953$, $p<.001$) became $c^2=-.0263$ ($p>.05$). However, a bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect ($B=.0952$) based on 5,000 bootstrap samples was entirely above zero (.035 to .1803), providing evidence that temporal distance plays a partial mediating role in the relationship of effort and purchase intention. Interestingly, the indirect effect of participation effort on purchase intention changes to negative when considering temporal closeness although the effect is considerably small. From **Table (5-6.2-4)**, it was clear that other three dimensions of psychological distance did not show

mediating effects on participation effort and purchase intention relation ($B_{\text{social}}=.0312$, $SE=.0211$, 95% bootstrap CI=-.0028 to .0904; $B_{\text{physical}}=.0425$, $SE=.0237$, 95% bootstrap CI=-.0077 to .1048; $B_{\text{certainty}}=.0002$, $SE=.0242$, 95% bootstrap CI=-.0472 to .0507). Therefore H6.2 was supported and H6.1,6.3-4 were rejected indicating the effect of participation effort on purchase intention is through temporal closeness.

2.7 Hypothesis 7

H7: Consumers' perceived 1. social distance, 2. temporal distance, 3. physical distance, 4. Perceived uncertainty towards the cause mediates the effects of altruism on consumers' CRP purchase intention.

Analytical Procedure

H7.1-4 suggest that consumers' altruism will affect their purchase intention of CRP indirectly through their feelings of closeness towards the social causes. As the previous tests, it predicts a positive relationship between the four dimensions of psychological distance and consumers' altruistic motivation in performing pro-socially. The more altruistic a consumer is, the socially, temporally and physically closer they will feel to the social causes. More altruistic consumers will be psychologically closer with regard to the certainty of CRM campaigns. To test these relationships, OLS regressions will be conducted. Similar to the previous hypothesis testing, the analysis followed Preacher and Hayes's (2008) suggestion and used OLS regressions and bootstrap procedure to examine the mediating role of the four psychological distances. PROCESS SPSS was used to perform the two analysis procedure altogether (Hayes, 2013).

IV=Altruism	DV=Purchase Intention			
	1-ME	2-DV		3-DV
ME=Temporal	Path a : (IV to M)	Path b : (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c : (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β		β
Gender	0.2383	0.2858		0.3822
Age	-0.2088	-0.2163		-0.3008
Income	0.0649	0.147		0.1733
Occupation	0.0455	0.0736		0.092
R-sq	0.0675	0.1383		0.0877
Model F	6.3577***	11.7144***		8.4357***
Effect				
Direct	.3687***	.4045***	.5876***	
Total				.7368***
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.1491	0.053	0.0629	0.2745
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.1491	0.0421	3.5445	0.0004

Table (5-7.1): OLS and Bootstrap results for temporal distance's effect on altruism and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

IV=Altruism	DV=Purchase Intention			
	1-ME	2-DV		3-DV
ME=Social	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β		β
Gender	0.3209	0.3411		0.3822
Age	0.1922	-0.3254		-0.3008
Income	-0.0047	0.1739		0.1733
Occupation	-0.0415	0.0973		0.092
R-sq	0.0246	0.093		0.0877
Model F	2.21112*	7.4835***		8.4357***
Effect				
Direct	.2170**	.128	.7090***	
Total				.7368***
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.0278	0.0229	-0.0024	0.0928
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.0278	0.0207	1.3436	0.1791

Table (5-7.2): OLS and Bootstrap results for social distance's effect on altruism and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

	IV=Altruism		DV=Purchase Intention		
	1-ME		2-DV		3-DV
ME=Physical	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)	
Controls	β		β		β
Gender	0.3764		0.2993	0.3822	
Age	0.0589		-0.3137	-0.3008	
Income	0.0332		0.166	0.1733	
Occupation	0.0039		0.0911	0.092	
R-sq	0.0388		0.0911	0.0877	
Model F	3.5470**		7.9049***	8.4357***	
Effect					
Direct	.2315***	.2202*	.6858***		
Total				.7368***	
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI	
Bootstrap	0.051	0.0319	-0.0062	0.1347	
	Effect	se	Z	p	
Sobel	0.051	0.0272	1.8723	0.0612	

Table (5-7.3): OLS and Bootstrap results for physical distance's effect on altruism and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

	IV=Altruism		DV=Purchase Intention		
	1-ME		2-DV		3-DV
ME=Uncertainty	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)	
Controls	β		β		β
Gender	-0.1448		0.4373	0.3822	
Age	-0.0332		-0.2881	-0.3008	
Income	-0.0939		0.209	0.1733	
Occupation	0.0198		0.0845	0.092	
R-sq	0.0203		0.1211	0.0877	
Model F	1.82		10.0570***	8.4357***	
Effect					
Direct	.1368*	.3803***	.6847***		
Total				.7368***	
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI	
Bootstrap	0.052	0.0325	-0.002	0.1305	
	Effect	se	Z	p	
Sobel	0.052	0.0278	1.8715	0.0613	

Table (5-7.4): OLS and Bootstrap results for uncertainty's effect on altruism and purchase intention. (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

Results and discussions

OLS Results in **Table (5-7.1-4)** show that altruism positively predicted perceived temporal closeness ($a=.3687$, $p<.001$), social closeness ($a=.2170$, $p<.01$), physical closeness ($a=.2315$, $p<.01$), and certainty ($a=.1368$, $p<.05$). Altruistic consumers appeared to be more highly associated with temporally close causes compared to socially and physically close and certain ones. More specifically, altruism significantly predicts an expected change .3687 in temporal distance per a change in one unit in altruism ($p<.01$).

As shown in **Table (5-7.1)**, the OLS results for testing mediating effect indicated that altruism's effect on purchase intention, i.e. path c' remained significant ($c'=.5876$, $p<.001$) when taking into consideration of temporal distance's effect ($b=.4045$, $p<.001$). A bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect ($B=.1491$, $SE=.0530$) based on 5,000 bootstrap samples was entirely above zero ($CI=.0629$ to $.2745$). Similar analysis was taken out for social distance, physical distance and certainty dimension. It is shown in **Table (5-7.2)** that consumers' perceived social closeness did not predict purchase intention of CRPs controlling altruism's effect in presence ($b=.1280$, $p>0.5$). The total effect of altruism on purchase intention is .7368 ($p<.001$) and the direct effect remains significant ($c'=.709$, $p<.001$) after controlling social closeness. Bootstrapping results also indicated the indirect effect of altruism on purchase intention through social closeness was not significant ($B=.0278$, $SE=.0229$, 95% Bootstrap $CI=-.0024$ to $.0928$). The results as seen in **Table (5-7.3)** also indicated that consumer altruism predicts their CRP purchase without influencing their perceived physical ($B=.0510$, $SE=.0319$, 95% Bootstrap $CI=-.0062$ to $.1347$) and uncertainty distance as seen in **Table (5-7.4)** ($B=.0520$, $SE=.0325$, 95% Bootstrap $CI=-.0020$ to $.1305$). Therefore, it can be concluded that consumer altruism influence their buying of CRPs decisions through psychological distance, typically perceived temporal distance towards social cause, although the mediating effect is only partial as the direct effect of altruism still remains significant ($c'=.5876$, $p<.001$). H7.2 thus was supported. H7.1, H7.3, H7.4 were rejected.

2.8 Hypothesis 8

H8: Consumers' 1. social distance, 2. temporal distance, 3. physical distance, and 4. perceived uncertainty towards the cause mediates the effects of emotional intensity on consumers' CRP purchase intention.

Analytical Procedure

H8.1-4 suggest consumers' emotional intensity will influence their psychological distance towards social causes and in turn influence their purchase intention of products associated with the causes. OLS regressions were conducted to examine the relationship between consumer emotional intensity and their social, temporal, physical and certainty closeness towards a social cause. Bootstrapping procedure followed to test the mediating effect of the four distance dimensions.

IV=Emotion	DV=Purchase Intention		
	1-ME	2-DV	3-DV
ME=Temporal	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β	β
Gender	0.2158	0.2216	0.3279
Age	-0.2487	-0.2263	-0.3488
Income	0.0559	0.1315	0.159
Occupation	0.0573	0.0857	0.1139
R-sq	0.0136	0.0955	0.0161
Model F	1.2074	7.7076***	1.4379
Effect			
Direct	-0.0054	.4925***	0.0122
Total			0.0095
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI
Bootstrap	-0.0026	0.0093	-0.022
	Effect	se	Z
Sobel	0.0026	0.0087	-0.3045
			p
			0.7607

Table (5-8.1): OLS and Bootstrap results for temporal distance's effect on emotional intensity and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

IV=Emotion		DV=Purchase Intention		
	1-ME	2-DV	3-DV	
ME=Social	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β		β
Gender	0.2972	0.2718		0.3279
Age	0.2041	-0.3873		-0.3488
Income	-0.0058	0.1601		0.159
Occupation	-0.0363	.1208*		.1139*
R-sq	0.0087	0.0279		0.0161
Model F	0.7692	2.0919		1.4379
Effect				
Direct	0.0195	.1886*	0.0059	
Total				0.0095
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.0037	0.004	-0.0017	0.0154
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.0037	0.0039	0.9348	0.3499

Table (5-8.2): OLS and Bootstrap results for social distance's effect on emotional intensity and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

IV=Emotion		DV=Purchase Intention		
	1-ME	2-DV	3-DV	
ME=Physical	Path a: (IV to M)	Path b: (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c: (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β		β
Gender	0.3558	0.2149		0.3279
Age	0.0558	-0.3665		-0.3488
Income	0.0301	0.1495		0.159
Occupation	0.0102	0.1107		0.1139
R-sq	0.0073	0.0377		0.0161
Model F	0.6416	2.8580**		1.4379
Effect				
Direct	0.0106	.3174**	0.0062	
Total				0.0095
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.0034	0.0049	-0.0048	0.0153
	Effect	se	Z	p
Sobel	0.0034	0.0048	0.7017	0.4828

Table (5-8.3): OLS and Bootstrap results for physical distance's effect on emotional intensity and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

	IV=Emotion		DV=Purchase Intention	
	1-ME	2-DV	3-DV	
ME=Uncertainty	Path a : (IV to M)	Path b : (M to DV)	Path c': (IV to DV)	Path c : (IV to DV)
Controls	β	β		β
Gender	-0.1645	0.3992		0.3279
Age	-0.0095	-0.3447		-0.3488
Income	-0.0927	0.1992		0.159
Occupation	0.0222	0.1043		0.1139
R-sq	0.0152	0.0598		0.0161
Model F	1.3524	4.6392***		1.4379
Effect				
Direct	0.0226	.4334***	-0.0003	
Total				0.0095
Indirect	Effect	SE	LOWCI	UPPCI
Bootstrap	0.0098	0.0073	-0.0026	0.0268
Sobel	Effect	se	Z	p
	0.0098	0.0069	1.4302	0.1527

Table (5-8.4): OLS and Bootstrap results for uncertainty's effect on emotional intensity and purchase intention (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$; and *** $p < .001$)

Results and Discussion

The results of the OLS analysis in the above tables indicate emotional intensity negatively and insignificantly associated with temporal closeness ($a=-.0054$, $p>.05$), social closeness ($a=.0195$, $p>.05$), physical closeness ($a=.0106$, $p>.05$), and perceived certainty ($a=.0226$, $p>.05$).

The baseline model was insignificant ($c=.0095$, $p>.05$) which shows that emotional intensity is not significantly related to purchase intention of CRPs. As can be seen from **Table (5-8.1-4)**, 5,000 bootstrap samples were again used to get a bias-corrected bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect of emotional intensity on purchase intention through the four dimensions of psychological distance. Results in **Table (5-8.1)** show that the confidence interval through temporal closeness ranged from $-.0220$ to $.0142$, which included zero. Therefore the H8 can be rejected that emotional intensity does not have indirect effect on purchase intention through temporal distance ($B=.0026$, $SE=.0093$). Results show similar results that indirect effect from emotional intensity on purchase intention did not exist through social closeness as seen **Table (5-8.2)** ($B=.0037$, $SE=.0040$, Bootstrap CI= $-.0017$ to $.0154$), physical closeness as

seen **Table (5-8.3)** (B=.0034, SE=.0049, Bootstrap CI=-.0048 to .0153), and certainty as seen **Table (5-8.4)** (B=.0098, SE=.0073, Bootstrap CI=-.0026 to .0268).

2.9 Hypothesis 9

H9.1: CRP buying will differ across the four product levels: maintenance, accumulation, hedonic and accomplishment products.

Analysis Procedure

The four different levels was each analysed separately using a one-way repeated measures ANOVA. This test allowed a comparison of purchase intention means across four product levels and testing of the overall significance of the differences in purchase intention across four levels. Because the analysis had multiple paired comparisons, post hoc testes using Bonferroni confidence interval adjustment was used to minimise the possibility of Type I error (Field, 2009).

Results and Discussion

The means and standard deviations of one-way repeated measure ANOVA to compare consumers' purchase intention of cause-related products across four product levels are presented in **Table (5-9.1)**.

	Mean	Std. Deviation
LEVEL1 MAINTAIN	4.39	1.927
LEVEL2 ACCUMULATE	5.00	1.815
LEVEL3 HEDONIC	4.69	1.887
LEVEL4 ACCOMPLISH	4.86	1.900

Table (5-9.1): Mean purchase intention across product levels

The result shows Wilks' Lambda=.89, $F(3,442) = 18.435$, $p < .0005$, multivariate partial eta squared=.111. Therefore it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant effect for product level, indicating a difference in consumers' willingness to pay for maintenance, accumulation, hedonic and accomplish products that are claiming to support a social cause. H9.1 is thus supported.

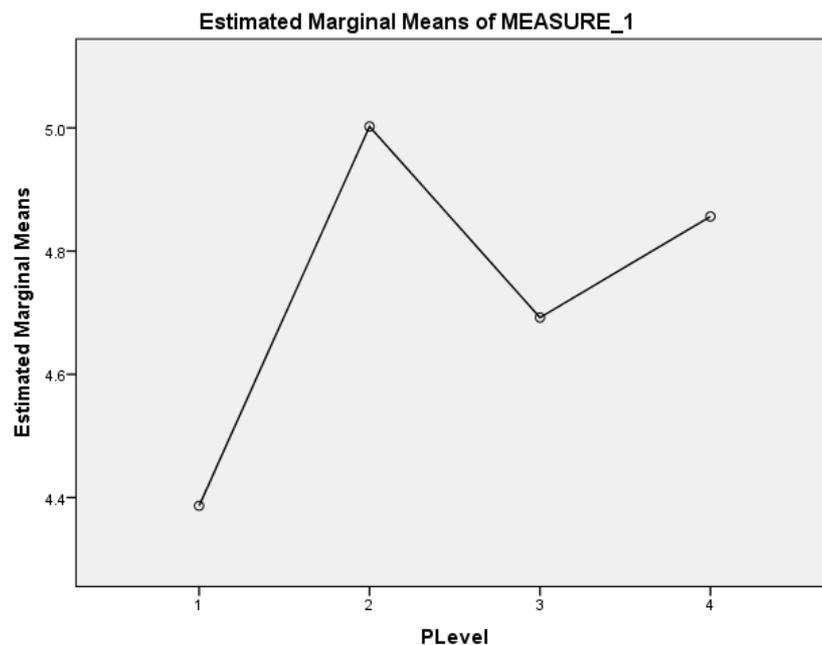


Figure (5-1): Mean purchase intention across four product levels

Notes: PLevel 1=Maintenance; 2=Accumulation; 3=Hedonism; 4=Accomplishment

It can be seen from **Figure (5-1)** that among the four levels of products, consumers mostly go for accumulation ones such as a mobile contract that are promoted in a CRM campaign to support social causes. It is followed by accomplishment (e.g. classic concert tickets) and hedonic (e.g. SPA voucher). Unlike previous studies that only suggest difference between hedonic and routine products, the results of this analysis show that accumulation products can also be effective in designing CRM campaigns. In fact, compared to products that have high symbolic and functional value (accomplishment) and hedonic feature (hedonism), products that require donation in every episode of payment seem the most likely to sell bundled with a social cause and CRM campaign. This might be because it is easier for consumers to opt into a donation-like programme that is already widely practised in charitable giving. For example, UNICEF urges consumers to text to donate £3 every month for caring for Syrian children. This, however, has not been tested in CRM context.

Moreover, it is interesting to note that, although previous research stating that maintenance products (e.g. shampoo) are most likely to prompt people to buy a CRP (e.g. Chang and Lee, 2008), this study shows that they are with the least chance to appeal to consumers. A plausible explanation for this may have been the fact that maintenance or routine purchases are low involved and thus mostly habitual. Therefore, promotional practice such as CRM might have less impact on a change in habitual purchases.

***H9.2:** Consumers' purchase intention of CRPs will vary across product levels based on psychological distance towards the social causes.*

Analysis procedure

H9.2 aims to examine if there is a change in purchase intention of CRP over different levels of psychological closeness towards the social causes. It compares the four interventions of product levels (maintenance, accumulation, hedonic and accomplishment) in terms of their effects on purchase intention. In another word, it aims to test whether the change in purchase intention under four product levels conditions will be different for various degrees of psychological distance towards social causes.

To test this hypothesis, the dataset was divided into three groups based on the level of psychological closeness of consumers towards social causes, which were identified as low (11-25), medium (26-50), and high (51-63) closeness. A mixed between-within subjects ANOVA was conducted for the testing. Purchase intentions on four different product levels were the dependent variables and the three different groups of psychological distance as the independent variable.

	PsyG2	Mean	Std. Deviation
Maintenance	1.00	4.14	1.864
	2.00	4.29	1.934
	3.00	5.07	1.773
	Total	4.39	1.927
Accumulation	1.00	4.14	2.116
	2.00	4.95	1.821
	3.00	5.49	1.665
	Total	5.00	1.815
Hedonic	1.00	4.57	2.070
	2.00	4.59	1.883
	3.00	5.44	1.751
	Total	4.69	1.887
Accomplishment	1.00	4.29	2.215
	2.00	4.80	1.893
	3.00	5.29	1.882
	Total	4.86	1.900

Table (5-9.2): Purchase intention for high, medium and low psychological closeness across four product levels

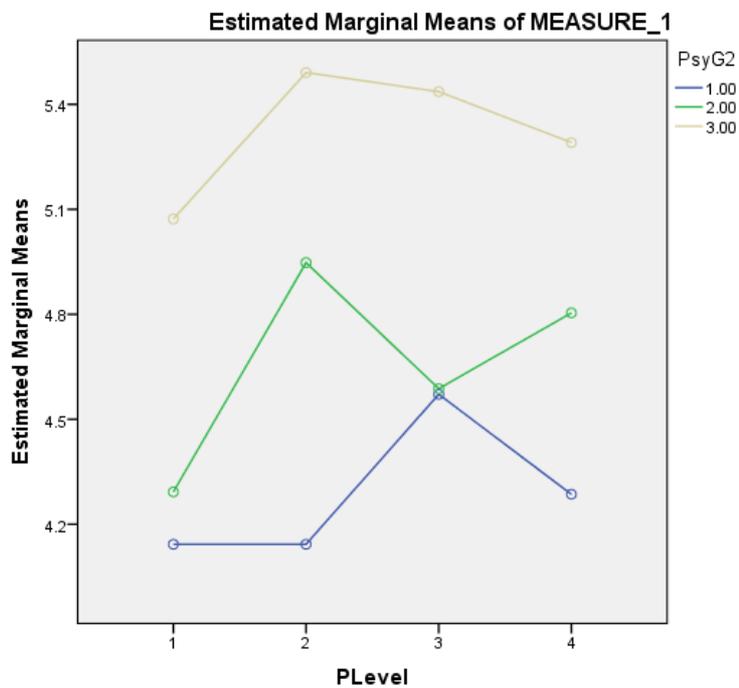


Figure (5-3): Mean purchase intention across product levels and psychological distance
Notes: PsyD 1=low; 2=medium; 3=high; PLevel 1= Maintenance; 2=Accumulation; 3=Hedonic; 4=Accomplishment

Results and Discussion

The Sig. value for Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices is bigger than .001 (.015), therefore it has not violated the assumption of homogeneity of variances. The Sig. value for the interaction between the product level and psychological distance is not significant (Wilks' Lambda =.99, $F(2, 442) = .740$, $p = .617$, partial eta squared = .005). The main effect of product level was significant ($p < .0005$). The main effect comparing the three levels of psychological closeness was significant, $F(2, 442) = 5.044$, $p = .007$, suggesting significant difference in the influence of psychological closeness in purchase intention on different levels of products (**Table. 5-9.2**). Therefore H9.2 is supported. Furthermore, **Figure (5-3)** clearly illustrates the different degree of purchase intention of CRPs across product levels when consumers are psychologically close or distant from a supported cause. More specifically, for consumers who feel closest to social causes, their willingness to buy an associated product on all four product levels is considerably higher than the consumers who are relatively neutral and low in psychological closeness towards social causes. Breaking down to individual product level, accumulation products are the most efficient for consumers who have high and medium psychological closeness towards the social causes, but least effective for the consumers who perceive social causes are distant to themselves. Interestingly, for these consumers, hedonic products are the most effective way to stimulate their intention to support a CRM campaign.

2. 10 Hypothesis 10

H10: Consumers' purchase intention of CRP will vary on high and low donation magnitude items depending on the psychological distance towards cause.

Analysis procedure

H10 aims to examine if there is a change in purchase intention of CRPs over different levels of psychological closeness towards the social causes. It compares the two interventions (high and low donation) in terms of their effects on purchase intention. In another word, it aims to test whether the change in purchase intention under two

donation magnitudes conditions will be different for various degrees of psychological distance towards social causes.

To test this hypothesis, the dataset was again divided into three groups based on the level of psychological closeness of consumers towards social causes as H9.2 did. The dataset was divided into three groups based on the level of psychological closeness of consumers towards social causes, which were identified as low (11-25), medium (26-50), and high (51-63) closeness. A mixed between-within subjects of ANOVA was conducted for the testing. Purchase intentions on high and low donation magnitude conditions were the dependent variables and the three different groups of psychological distance as the independent variable.

	PsyG2	Mean	Std. Deviation
LowPriIntTotal	11-25	16.00	7.895
	26-54	12.53	6.029
	55-63	10.40	5.999
	Total	12.32	6.099
HighPriIntTotal	11-25	14.57	7.656
	26-54	14.31	5.996
	55-63	16.29	6.718
	Total	14.56	6.135

Table (5-10): Purchase intention for high, medium and low psychological closeness across two levels of donation magnitudes

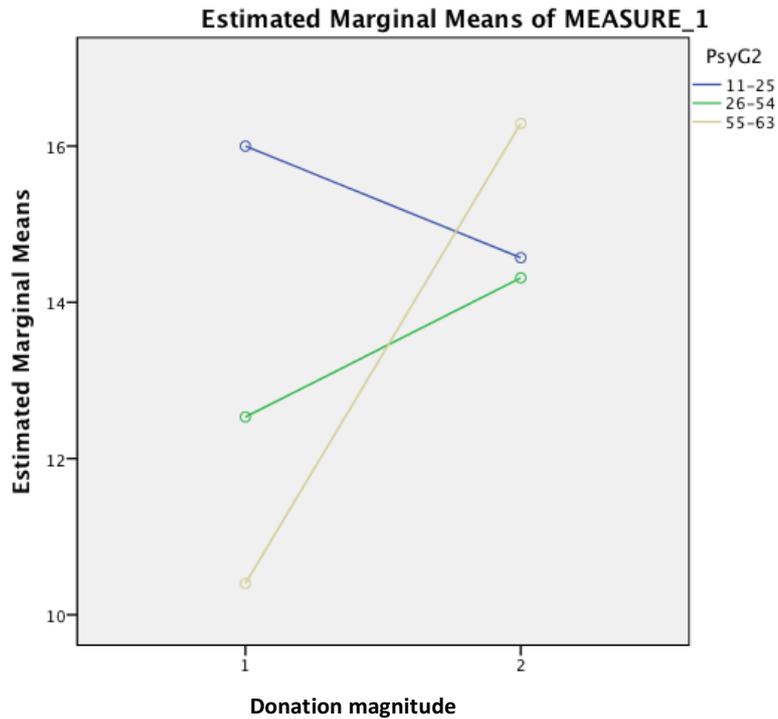


Figure (5-4): Mean purchase intention across product donation magnitudes and psychological distance
 Notes: PsyD 11-25=low; 26-54=medium; 55-63=high; 1= low donation magnitude; 2=high donation magnitude

Results and Discussion

The Sig. value for Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices is bigger than .001 (.709). Therefore it has not violated the assumption of homogeneity of variances. The Sig. value for the interaction between the donation magnitude and psychological distance is significant (Wilks' Lambda =.98, $F(2, 442) = 2.013$, $p=.005$, partial eta squared=.157). The main effect of donation magnitude was significant (Wilks' Lambda =1.0, $F(2, 442) = 3.837$, $p=.022$, partial eta squared=.017). The main effect comparing the three levels of psychological closeness was significant, $F(2, 442) = 6.644$, $p=.000$, suggesting significant difference in the influence of psychological closeness in purchase intention on different levels of donation magnitude (**Table. 5-10**). Therefore H10 is supported.

As illustrated by **Figure (5-4)**, purchase intention of CRPs with high and low donation magnitude varies greatly across the three levels of psychological closeness towards social causes. When consumers feel distant rather than close to a social cause, they are

more likely to purchase a CRP with a low donation level. However, a CRP associated with low donation is not as appealing to consumers who feel close to the supported cause. Whereas for a CRP associated with higher level of donation, consumers who feel neutrally or distant towards a social cause were found to have similar degree of willingness to buy the products. It was found that for those who are psychologically much closer to the social cause tend to buy CRPs associated with high donation magnitude. These findings extend the previous literature that suggests CRM should reply on harmless and tiny commitment of donation through with low donation magnitudes (Chang and Lee, 2008) and show that low donation magnitude is more suitable when consumers' perceived distance towards a cause is distant rather than close. Importantly, this finding suggests that marketers can manipulate consumers' feeling of close and distant towards a social cause to pair with desired amount of donation requested. For example, with social causes that may evoke consumers' feeling of closeness to themselves, linking larger donation amount would benefit sales, and linking small donation amount may, however, harm CRP sales. On contrary, pairing a social cause consumers find distant to them might increase their willingness to buy an associated CRP.

2.11 Hypothesis 11

H11: Psychological distance will have different influence in CRP buying for the UK and Chinese consumers.

Analysis procedure

To test H11, the effects of four distance dimensions on purchase intention for each of the sample were examined. This test was conducted in order to compare which dimension of psychological distance relates most to consumers' willingness to buy CRPs in the UK and China. Statistically this test was conducted using Pearson correlation separately for the UK and China samples, with purchase intention being the dependent variables and four distance dimensions being the independent variables.

Correlations					
	PI_Total	SD_total	TD_total	PD_total	UD_total
PI_Total	1	.240**	.312**	.221**	.327**
SD_total		1	.336**	.346**	.303**
TD_total			1	.519**	.443**
PD_total				1	.344**
UD_total					1

Table (5-11.1): Pearson correlation coefficient for psychological distance on purchase intention (UK)
 Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations					
	PI_Total	SD_total	TD_total	PD_total	UD_total
PI_Total	1	-0.038	.273**	0.083	.332**
SD_total		1	.202**	.203**	.073
TD_total			1	.558**	.526**
PD_total				1	.311**
UD_total					1

Table (5-11.2): Pearson correlation coefficient for psychological distance on purchase intention (China)
 Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Results and Discussion

Comparing the results illustrated in **Table (5-11.1)** and **Table (5-11.2)**, it is noted that perceived temporal closeness and certainty towards social cause relate most to CRP buying in both samples. It was found that perceived certainty is the most effective influencer on Chinese and UK consumers' purchase of CRPs ($r_{CHINA}=.332$, $p<.01$; $r_{UK}=.327$, $p<.01$). Both markets seem to be concerned about issues as whether the motivation of CRM campaign is perceived as cause-beneficial. Moreover, their buying of CRP is also decided by their perception of the possibility of having a desired outcome from the CRM campaign. For example, if the consumers believe the campaign could have positive impact on helping the supported cause, they might buy more CRPs accordingly. Therefore, brands operating in both countries that are involving in CRM need to ensure the messages communicating with consumers

include information that may reduce consumers' feeling of uncertainty, e.g. detailed description of company effort showing a cause-beneficial motivation and a successful campaign result from the past indicating a higher possibility to have a desired campaign outcome.

In addition, the results indicate that the effect of temporal closeness on Chinese consumers' buying is slightly higher than the UK consumers ($r_{\text{CHINA}}=.273$, $p<.01$; $r_{\text{UK}}=.312$, $p<.01$). The urgency of the social causes in need and the quick response companies donate to help these causes appear to be relatively more important factors to Chinese and UK consumers in CRM campaigns. Brands in both countries would benefit from highlighting relevant temporal information in the CRM campaign, e.g. advertisements and content design in the packing, etc.

Surprisingly how socially close to a cause is does not seem to influence China market's consumers' buying of CRP ($r_{\text{CHINA}}=-.038$, $p>.05$). Perceived social closeness, however, has significant impact on UK consumers' willingness to buy a CRP ($r_{\text{UK}}=.240$, $p<.01$). This result indicates that the cause recipients are less likely to have an impact on Chinese consumers' buying CRP than UK consumers. In the UK, marketers may want to emphasize the relationship between the campaign audience and those who are supported in the CRM campaign. Consumers are likely to support those who they can relate to more (e.g. family member) than those who are out of their social circle (e.g. a stranger).

Besides insignificant effect of social closeness, it was also found that for Chinese consumers perceived physical closeness did not impact their purchase intention of CRPs ($r_{\text{CHINA}}=.083$, $p>.05$). For UK consumers, it has a significant effect on CRP buying ($r_{\text{UK}}=.221$, $p<.01$). This indicates that UK consumers favour CRM campaigns that support a cause in geographically closer areas. One thing marketers could do is to pair CRPs with social causes or NPOs that have more presence in the local or regional residential area. In contrast, Chinese consumers seem not to be affected by such information.

In summary, it could be concluded that H11 is supported according to the above discussion. Importantly, four distance dimensions are found to have significant

influence on UK consumers' buying of CRP, whereas only perceived temporal closeness and certainty towards CRM campaigns are the influential factors within psychological distance dimensions on Chinese consumers' buying of CRPs.

2.12 Hypothesis 12

H12: CRP buying will differ between Chinese and UK consumers, such that 1. CRP buying antecedents will have different influence, and 2. buying of products with high and low donation magnitude will differ in two groups.

Analysis procedure

In order to estimate this hypothesis, Pearson correlation tests were conducted to provide the measure of the strength of relationships between purchase intention and each CRM perception factors and consumer pro-social characteristic factors for both China and UK samples. More specifically, a Pearson correlation test was firstly employed to provide a general measure of relationships, as this allowed determining both the direction and strength of the proposed relationship (Pallant, 2013). This analysis allowed discriminating between the impacts of each type of CRP buying factors and provided valuable knowledge about their relative effectiveness in terms of purchase decisions.

	Correlations						
	PI_To tal	CRED_T otal	FIT_To tal	ALT_To tal	PE_To tal	EI_To tal	FAM_To tal
PI_Total	1	.352**	.258**	.343**	.144*	0.076	.248**
CRED_T otal		1	.412**	.434**	0.104	-0.05	.248**
FIT_Tota l			1	.312**	0.011	0.065	.162*
ALT_Tot al				1	0.076	0.035	0.094
PE_Total					1	0.024	.133*
EI_Total						1	-0.004
FAM_To tal							1

Table (5-12.1): Results of Pearson correlation coefficients for the CRM perceptions and consumer characteristic variables (UK). Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

	Correlations						
	PI_To tal	FAM_To tal	CRED_T otal	FIT_To tal	ALT_To tal	PE_To tal	EI_To tal
PI_Total	1	.197**	.372**	.241**	.253**	-0.059	0.019
FAM_Tot al		1	.299**	.255**	.294**	.211*	0.032
CRED_T otal			1	.467**	.474**	.153*	0.065
FIT_Tota l				1	.371**	0.121	0.009
ALT_Tot al					1	.144*	0.099
PE_Total						1	0.018
EI_Total							1

Table (5-12.2): Results of Pearson correlation coefficients for the CRM perceptions and consumer characteristic variables (**China**). Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Results and discussion

The coefficients for both Pearson correlation tests are individually presented in the above tables. With regard to the respective effects of the six variables of buying antecedents for both samples, all six components have significantly positive correlation with the purchase intention of CRPs expect for emotional intensity ($r_{UK}=.076$, $p>.05$; $r_{China}=-.019$, $p>0.5$). Results in **Table (5-12.1)** indicate that among the four, perceived credibility of CRM most strongly predicts UK consumers' purchase intention of CRP ($r=.352$, $p<.01$), followed by altruism ($r=.343$, $p<.01$), CRM familiarity ($r=.248$, $p<.01$), perceived cause fit ($r=.258$, $p<.01$), and participation effort ($r=.144$, $p<.05$). For Chinese consumers, results in **Table (5-12.2)** show that perceived credibility also is the most important predictor of CRP buying ($r=.372$, $p<.01$), followed by altruism ($r=.253$, $p<.01$), perceived cause fit ($r=.241$, $p<.01$), CRM familiarity ($r=.197$, $p<.01$). Unlike British consumers who show more willingness to buy a CRP if they are asked to put more participation effort, Chinese consumers' CRP buying decisions are not affected by requested participation effort ($r=-.059$, $p>.05$). According to the results of correlation analysis, H12.1 is supported in relation to each component of CRM and consumer attributes of buying CRP for both countries.

H12.2 Analysis procedure

In order to test the H12.2, a mixed between-within ANOVA was used with purchase intention of cause-related products at low (5%) and high (25%) donation magnitude conditions as dependent variables and country as independent variable.

	UK/CHINA	Mean	Std. Deviation
LowPriIntTotal	UK	12.51	5.604
	CHINA	12.14	6.555
	Total	12.32	6.099
HighPriIntTotal	UK	15.00	5.490
	CHINA	14.13	6.691
	Total	14.56	6.135

Table (5-12.3): Purchase intention for two countries across two levels of donation magnitudes

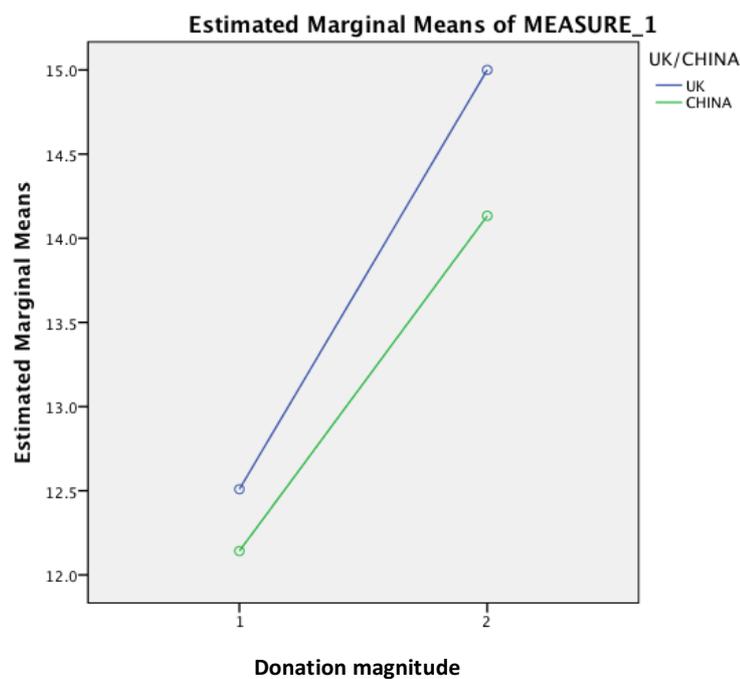


Figure (5-5): Mean purchase intention across donation magnitude and countries

Results and Discussion

The Sig. value for Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices is bigger than .001 (.003), therefore it has not violated the assumption of homogeneity of variances. The interaction between country and donation level is not significant, Wilk's Lambda=.999, $F(3, 441) = .231$, $p = .631$, partial eta squared=.001. There was a substantial main effect for donation level, Wilks' Lambda=.960, $F(3, 441) = 18.613$,

$p=.000$, partial eta squared $=.040$. The main effect comparing the two countries of consumers' purchase intention of CRPs was significant, $F(1, 443) = 5.736$, $p=.017$, partial eta squared $=.013$, suggesting difference in the buying intention across the two different levels of prices in the UK and China. Therefore the hypothesis is supported.

Figure (5-5) further illustrates the difference in terms of purchase intention for high and low CRPs in different country context. Clearly the UK consumers are keener on supporting CRM campaigns by buying related products regardless of the influence of the donation amount than their Chinese counterparts. At a low donation magnitude point, the difference in purchase intention is much less than for a product at a high donation magnitude point, meaning when the CRPs are highly priced, more intention consumers in the UK will have compared to consumers in China.

3. Conclusion

This chapter statistically tests the hypotheses proposed in Chapter Two. For each test, analysis procedure, results and relevant discussion have been given. The table below summarises the result of support or rejection for each hypothesis.

Hypothesis		Result
CRP buying Antecedents		
<i>H1.1</i>	Cause fit → purchase intention	Supported
<i>H1.2</i>	CRM credibility → purchase intention	Supported
<i>H1.3</i>	CRM familiarity → purchase intention	Supported
<i>H1.4</i>	Participation effort → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H1.5</i>	Altruism → purchase intention	Supported
<i>H1.6</i>	Emotional Intensity → purchase intention	Rejected
Psychological Distance (PD)		
<i>H2.1</i>	Physical distance → purchase intention	Supported
<i>H2.2</i>	Temporal distance → purchase intention	Supported
<i>H2.3</i>	Social distance → purchase intention	Supported
<i>H2.4</i>	Uncertainty → purchase intention	Supported
PD's mediating role in CRP buying		
<i>H3.1</i>	CRM familiarity → social distance → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H3.2</i>	CRM familiarity → temporal distance → purchase intention	Supported (full)
<i>H3.3</i>	CRM familiarity → physical distance → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H3.4</i>	CRM familiarity → Uncertainty → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H4.1</i>	CRM credibility → social distance → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H4.2</i>	CRM credibility → uncertainty → purchase intention	Supported (partial)
<i>H5.1</i>	Cause fit → social distance → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H5.2</i>	Cause fit → temporal distance → purchase intention	Supported (partial)
<i>H5.3</i>	Cause fit → uncertainty → purchase intention	Supported (partial)
<i>H6.1</i>	Participation effort → social distance → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H6.2</i>	Participation effort → temporal distance → purchase intention	Supported (partial)
<i>H6.3</i>	Participation effort → physical distance → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H6.4</i>	Participation effort → uncertainty → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H7.1</i>	Altruism → social distance → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H7.2</i>	Altruism → temporal distance → purchase intention	Supported (partial)
<i>H7.3</i>	Altruism → physical distance → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H7.4</i>	Altruism → uncertainty → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H8.1</i>	Emotional Intensity → social distance → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H8.2</i>	Emotional Intensity → temporal distance → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H8.3</i>	Emotional Intensity → physical distance → purchase intention	Rejected
<i>H8.4</i>	Emotional Intensity → uncertainty → purchase intention	Rejected

Table (5-13.1): Results of hypothesis testing

Hypothesis		Result
PD and CRM structure: product level and donation magnitude		
H9.1	Product level → purchase intention	Supported
H9.2	Psychological distance → product level	Supported
H10	Psychological distance → donation magnitude	Supported
Cross-cultural difference		
H11	Psychological distance → intention across countries	Supported
H12.1	Buying antecedents → intention across countries	Supported
H12.2	Culture → intention with donation magnitudes	Supported

Table (5-13.2): Results of hypotheses testing

CHAPTER SIX

GENERAL DISCUSSION

1. Introduction

Consumer buying of Cause-related products (CRPs) is seen as a combination of economic buying behaviour and pro-social giving behaviour (e.g. Ross et al., 1992; Chang, 2008). In this respect, CRPs are not only charitable products but also commercial products that provide consumers with acquisition value (Ross et al., 1992). This thesis thus sets out to examine the multidimensional nature of CRPs; and the cognitive process that precede consumer purchase decisions of CRPs. In particular, the research questions raised are *What is the impact of psychological distance on consumer intention to buy CRPs?* ,and *Are there any differences among consumers' CRP buying among in different country contexts?*

Three major research gaps were identified from the CRM literature review: *first*, a large body of CRM studies exclusively investigate how CRP buying antecedents such as perceived fit between brand and cause influence CRM campaign effectiveness. Consumer perceived relationship between the social cause and themselves is overlooked although it is suggested an important influencer in CRP buying (Grau and Folse, 2007; Hajjat, 2003); *second*, despite some studies pointed out the pro-social dimension in CRM (e.g. Chang, 2008), CRP buying is not limited in this dimension only. Given the nature of CRP as a combination of commercial and charitable giving product, CRP buying is not seen entirely an altruistic behaviour and the motivation to buy a CRP is combined with acquiring utilitarian benefit from the product and social benefits from participation. For this reason, CRP buying is not only affected by the perceived social distance, but also by consumers' perceived distance of cause across time and context; *third*, empirical studies in CRP buying from emerging markets were marginal despite of the extensive practices of the strategy (Cialdini et al., 1999; Money and Colton, 2000; Wang, 2014; La Ferle et al., 2013; Lavack and Kropp, 2003). Importantly, perceptions of psychological distance between self and cause may vary widely in different cultural contexts, which may lead to the possible existence of

cross-cultural differences in CRP buying (Liberman, et al., 2007). Therefore, cross-cultural comparative research is needed to understand the influence of cultural background on psychological distance and CRP buying, which is important for the success of multinational companies that wish to conduct campaigns across different markets. In addressing these research gaps, this thesis analyses how psychological distance influence consumers' perception of relationships between oneself and social causes to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the CRP buying behaviour.

This final chapter reviews the work undertaken and evaluate the degree to which the conceptual and empirical narrative presented succeeds in addressing the specified research objectives, together with the extent to which psychological distance explains CRP buying as an economic and pro-social behaviour. To this end, the rest of the chapter is structured in the following manner. *First*, it will include a theoretical contribution to the understanding of the psychology of consumer behaviour towards CRPs, achieved through systematic application of psychological distance constructs. *Second*, psychological distance has previously only been employed in research of social psychology and partially in consumer studies (e.g. single or two dimensions of the construct, Kim, Li and Zhang, 2008). This chapter discusses a theoretical contribution to the extension of psychological distance concepts into the combination of social charitable and commercial products via its application of all four dimensions to consumer buying of CRPs. In particular, within the two sections of discussion on the theoretical contributions, cultural differences of CRP buying and psychological distance's application will also be included. *Third*, practical contributions for the marketers that wish to employ CRPs, particularly in the emerging markets will be discussed. *Fourth*, research limitation of this thesis and future research direction will be pointed out. *Last* section concludes the discussion by providing an overall summative evaluation of the work.

2. Theoretical Contributions to CRM Research

2.1 Psychological distance in CRP buying

The primary objective of the research is to gain a deeper understanding of buying behaviour towards CRPs. As noted from the outset, existing work in this area has been dominated by consumer pro-social characteristics, considerations regarding cause-company link and consumer perception of such, with little attention being paid to how consumers actually select social causes and CRPs from alternatives and the psychology of that buying process. In particular, research on how consumers perceive the relation between the “self” and CRM has been marginal (Xue et al., 2015; Olivola and Liu, 2009). What work has been forthcoming in respect of the impact of consumer-CRM relation on CRP buying predominantly revolves around the consumers’ personal relevance to the social cause and pro-social nature of helping a social cause by discussing consumers’ perceived social distance towards CRM beneficiaries (e.g. Grau and Folse, 2007; Hajjat, 2003).

While recognising the value of these approaches, however, this thesis sought to offer a more complimentary perspective of CRP buying via applying the theory of psychological distance, which is the perceived distance between consumer and social causes (Kim et al., 2008). It serves as a key construct of how consumers process the presented information, i.e. CRM cues that is relevant to them (Trope and Liberman, 2010) by facilitating the identification of self in CRM cues, which highlight the salience of cause benefits (Shang et al., 2008). Second, when evaluating a CRP and processing cues relating to a social cause, people rarely would make purchase decisions depending on their present situation “here and now” (Lewin, 1951). This is because a social cause is usually out of consumers’ direct experience and can be moved away to a socially, temporally, physically or probabilistically distant state (e.g. the supported area is far away in another country rather than in their home city); they have to rely on subjective experience (e.g. finding links from self to the cause beneficiaries) in order to make sense of the CRM campaign content (e.g. the outcome of the campaign). Since the value of outcome changes as a function of such subjective experience (e.g. Trope and Liberman, 2003), it is thus crucial to investigate its influence in CRP buying. Moreover, as noted before, all four constructs of

psychological distance are highly relevant to CRP buying (see Chapter Two 2.2.3). Therefore, this thesis fills the research gaps by offering a theoretical ground to the psychology of the multidimensional nature of buying CRPs - gaining acquisition value of the commercial products and offering help to worthy causes and people in need (Xue et al., 2014; Guerreiro, Rita and Trihuritod, 2015). More specifically, it addresses the importance of self-cause relation in CRP buying. Through the inclusion of all four dimension of consumer perceived distance towards CRM, and its interaction with CRP buying antecedents and various CRM structural factors, a more comprehensive understanding of the psychology of CRP buying thus has been achieved.

The findings of the empirical studies imply that consumers buying behaviour of CRPs is significantly influenced by consumers' psychological distance towards CRM. In other words, consumers' perceived closeness to social causes increases CRP buying intention by incorporating the cause into self-concept. One knowledge gap in the CRM literature is that CRP buying behaviour has only been treated as a general pro-social helping behaviour (e.g. Ross et al., 1992). Hence much of the prior research built upon helping and donation literature and proposed perceived social relevance to the cause (e.g. Hajjat, 2003). However, as aforementioned, the nature of CRP purchase also involves commercial product purchase. Therefore, the buying will naturally be affected by economic considerations such as a trade off between buying now and realising a cause outcome later or an uncertainty in the potential (e.g. Pronin et al., 2008). This thesis shows that all four dimensions of perceived distance between consumer and CRM are important drivers in purchasing CRPs in various contexts.

In this study, aspects of time and uncertainty associated with buying were found to be especially salient in the CRM context. As the premises of economic behaviours involving trading off cost and gaining value would anticipate, consumers' purchase intention in CRM campaign is discounted by the length between them paying for the product and the implementation of the donation to NPOs. More specifically, difference in terms of whether the campaign supports an urgent or long-term cause, or whether companies response fast enough concern the consumers most. Urgent social needs convey a sense of closeness that prompts more CRP buying to be made. Other findings are consistent with the previous studies that consumers will buy more CRPs when they perceive the companies respond quicker and sooner for the cause to get supported

(Ellen et al., 2000; Skitka, 1999). The temporal effect also is proven to be the strongest influence on willingness to buy CRP among the four distance constructs within the consumer-CRM relation. Moreover, the results show that consumers are well aware of the risks associated with buying CRP, and such uncertainty perceived (e.g. probability of having a genuine donation and desired campaign outcome) is negatively related to the likelihood of a CRP purchase being made.

Consumers' perceived social and physical distance towards social causes supported by firms, although still highly relevant, are less critical in influencing purchases of CRPs in this study. Consistent with prior research presenting social closeness as a key determinant in promoting higher chance of pro-social actions such as helping (e.g. Clark et al., 1989; Triandis, 1989; Breman, 2011; Hender et al., 2012), the findings show that consumers' buying of CRPs is related to their perceived interpersonal distance towards cause beneficiaries. Whether the consumers themselves, or those socially significant others (e.g. in-group members) are the more direct beneficiaries clearly determines how likely they will support the social cause by buying a CRP. The less critical role of social distance than temporal and certainty may be because social feelings associated with another tend to be more stable and rooting attitudes that promotes pro-social behaviours, and thus less likely to change (Ajzen, 2010). Whereas temporal cues and certainty could generate more immediate and greater emotional responses from the consumers.

This results also shows that the shorter distance existing between consumers and the supported social cause areas or people the more likely a CRP purchase will be made, although the least strong predictor amongst the four distance dimensions. It is obvious from the findings that as long as consumers received relevant information regarding cause timing and company response method while they purchase the CRP, and if they are certain about CRM, they will not be as concerned with the supported location. The findings in the current thesis echo the idea that fundamental differences exist among different dimensions (Lynch and Zauberman, 2007). That is, physical (or spatial) dimension is more primary than others (Zhang and Wang, 2009; Bar-Anan et al., 2007). Space is more tangible and directly experienced, and therefore physical distance serves as a basis for people to metaphorically understand distance along other less tangible and directly experienced dimensions (Zhang and Wang, 2009, p.498). It

may be reasonable to assume that because it is more directly experienced, the consumers may be less sensitive to the change in the physical distance, and hence not necessarily evoke closer feelings towards a local cause than a geographically more distance one such as an international cause.

A further contribution has been made relating to psychological distance's mediating role in consumers' CRP buying. Call for further research had been made from previous CRM literature in regard to how positive perceptions of CRM and pro-social value and emotion affect consumer buying of CRP (e.g. Chang, 2008). This research enabled to reveal the underlying psychological process of CRP buying by looking at the effect of pre-buying beliefs, altruism and emotions on consumers' perceived closeness to social cause.

It is shown that consumer perception of CRM and their pro-social characteristics can result in a sense of perceived closeness to social cause, which in turn increase the tendency to buy a CRP. Among the four distance dimensions, temporal distance and uncertainty respectively show a full or partial mediating effect on the impact of CRM perception and pro-social characteristics on purchase intention. To elaborate, consumers' perception of CRM including perceived familiarity, credibility and cause fit induce perceived temporal urgency and more certainty towards CRM campaign, and therefore a tendency to buy more CRPs. In addition, consumers' feeling of urgency towards helping a social cause (i.e. temporal closeness) also partially mediates the effect of perceived amount of participation effort and consumers' altruistic motive on CRP buying. This means those who tend to make more effort to participate in CRM campaign and the altruistic motives consumers have tend to induce a sense of urgency in helping others consequently resulting in higher intention to buy.

Perhaps the most discussed psychological factor, closer social distance consumers perceive towards with others people or intergroup members has long been established as a key antecedent in helping behaviours such as CRP buying (Hajjat, 2003; Bennet and Gabriel, 2000; Sturmer and Snyder, 2005; Henderson et al., 2012; Clark, Mills and Corcoran, 1989, Brown and Gaetner, 2001). Interestingly, though, it played no role in influencing consumer perception and characteristics' effect on buying CRP. Similarly

consumer perception of CRM and pro-social characteristics do not convey to a sense of physical closeness towards the cause and further buying a CRP.

2.2 Psychological distance in different CRM structural conditions

A third contribution this research made to the existing CRM studies is that this thesis also investigated the effect different product levels and donation magnitude on CRP buying behaviour. Together, these aspects further validate the robustness of the investigated relationships between CRP buying factors, psychological distance and purchase intention under different conditions.

2.2.1. Product level

The product category examined in the existing CRM research (i.e. utilitarian and hedonic products) is overly general (Chang, 2008) due to the fact that utilitarian and symbolic value of CRPs and its effect on CRP purchases were examined separately (Strahilevitz, 1999; Strahilevitz and Myer, 1998; Subrahmanyam, 2004). This thesis extends the product categorisation to four product levels, i.e. accomplishment, hedonism, accumulation and maintenance with each incorporating interaction of utilitarian and symbolic benefits of product (Foxall, 2002). Results show CRP buying differs across product levels. More CRPs are likely to be bought with an accumulative nature (e.g. mobile contract) than products in with other consumption levels (followed by accomplishment, hedonic and maintenance). Interestingly, contradicting to prior research that state CRM effort are likely to be made when CRM is associated with a low price, low utilitarian product (e.g. Chang and Lee, 2008), this research shows that routine purchases are with the least chance to be appealing to consumers. A plausible explanation for this may have been the fact that maintenance or routine purchases are low involved and thus mostly habitual (Foxall, 2002; Zaichkowsky, 1985). Therefore, promotional practice such as CRM might have less impact on a change in habitual purchases.

Furthermore, the results show how close consumers perceive themselves to the social cause will make significant differences on consumers' intention to buy CRPs in four

product levels. As one would expect, consumers who perceived closeness towards social cause tend to buy more products on all four levels than those who perceived more distant towards social cause. Accumulation products are more likely to be purchased than other three levels when consumers feel close to the social cause, however, least in psychological distant situation. Under the psychological distant situation, consumers are most likely to purchase hedonic products. This shows that when consumers feel strongly about and very closely to a social cause, they are more willing to commit to a repeated contribution. Purchasing a CRP with hedonic features is most likely to happen when a social cause is perceived as far away. This may be because psychologically closer causes can induce even more guilt associated with pleasure-oriented purchases (e.g. Strahilevitz and Myers, 1998). For example, consumers may compare a socially closer others' suffering with the pleasure they get from the product. Linking a distant cause with hedonic product is thus easier for consumers to justify the purchase.

2.2.2 Donation magnitude

Much of the prior CRM research examining donation magnitude suggests large donation associated with buying CRP is not as easily accepted as a small donation amount (e.g. Arora and Henderson, 2007; Strahilevitz, 1999, Subrahmanyam, 2004, Chang and Lee, 2008). In these studies CRM elements are often the only manipulated elements (e.g. product type and price trade-off amount) to examine the effectiveness of different pricing strategy. An area prior research has overlooked is that in CRM how consumers are willing to contribute or sacrifice their economic interest for charitable motive is largely down to how consumers perceive and feel about a social cause. With such emotional stimuli derived from perceived closeness to the social cause, CRP with relative substantial donation magnitude would not be entirely undesirable as prior research suggests. Through inclusion of psychological distance, the current research further examines the impact of consumer-cause relationship in CRP buying with the various levels of donation magnitude.

The findings suggest psychological distance towards social cause has significant effect on CRP purchase on different level of donation amount. As one would expect for a pro-social behaviour, psychological closeness to a social cause prompts more

willingness to choose a CRP that requests larger donation. In contrast to donation literature, feeling very close to a social cause in fact will not encourage the consumers to buy a CRP designed with a tiny commitment of donation, whereas finding a social cause distant has a much higher chance for consumers to buy a low donation level CRP. Perhaps those who are emotionally evoked would feel low level of donation does not show enough effort or support they would like to make and hence instead they might choose another means such as donation (Strahilevitz, 1999).

2.3 Framework for CRP buying antecedents

Built upon the perspective of CRP buying as economic and pro-social combined purchase behaviour, this thesis verified two sets of pre-buying antecedents, which included variables purchase regarding consumer perceptions towards CRM and consumer pro-social characteristics constructing helping behaviour. This validation is deemed important as it addresses a call in CRM research where there was no empirically tested valid framework for simultaneous effects from consumer perception of CRM campaign attributes and donor personal attributes (Grau et al., 2007; Arora and Henderson, 2007; Haruvy and Leszczyc, 2009; Lichtenstein, Drumwright and Braig, 2004; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004; Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012). Both sets of factors were found to have significant influence on CRP buying, with exception of emotion intensity. This research not only validates previous work in the pro-social helping area by showing that the relationship found in a donation context generalises to other pro-social purchase contexts such as CRM, but also shows that consumer predisposition variables such as perceived cause fit should be considered together with individual consumer differences to alter the effectiveness of CRM (Chang, 2008; Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012).

The findings suggest that consumers' pre-buying perceptions of CRM (perceived CRM familiarity, cause fit and CRM credibility) strongly affect their intention to buy CRPs. Unlike pro-social donation literature suggesting that sacrificing effort and time to support a social cause would make the helping behaviour more appealing to consumers (e.g. Olivola et al., 2012), the results found in the current research show such correlation does not exist in CRP buying context. Altruism remains a significant

predictor in CRP buying behaviour, demonstrating the gap in the prior CRM research and the necessity of inclusion of consumers' pro-social characteristics in examining buying behaviour in CRM context. In contrast to the prior pro-social literature that state emotional consumers (e.g. easily demonstrating empathy any sympathy towards other) are more likely to donate, this study found that emotional intensity is insignificant to CRP purchases. One possible explanation to this is that although considered as a helping gesture, CRP buying might rely less on emotion eliciting stimuli than donation due to its commercial nature.

2.4 Contribution to cross-cultural CRM research

This research enriches the understanding of CRP buying in a cross-cultural context. It fills the research gap in terms of limited conceptual and empirical work on consumer CRP buying in emerging markets. By looking at both Western and Asian markets and employing a cross-cultural comparison, this thesis contributes a deeper understanding to CRM research from different country contexts.

To elaborate, the contributions are twofold. Firstly, the thesis provides cross-cultural empirical evidence for consumer buying behaviour in CRM in developed and emerging markets using data from China and UK. Although flourishing research on CRM has been done in the developed context such as in the US and the UK, CRM research in emerging markets is still limited with only a few exceptions (e.g. Lavack and Kropp, 2003; La Ferle, Kurber and Edwards, 2013). Previous research has called for a more closely investigation on national and cultural factors influencing consumer behaviour toward CRM programmes (Benett and Sargeant, 2005; Endacott, 2003). This is important because cultural orientation has been widely reported as one of the most important factor influencing pro-social and ethical decision-makings and behaviour (Rawwas, 2001; Rawwas et al., 2005 in Singh, Sanchez and Bosque, 2008). Moreover, prior research documented national variations in pro-social behaviour due to historical patterns of behaviour (Babakus et al., 1994) and different pro-social and ethical concepts, norms and value (Rawwas et al., 2005 in Singh et al., 2008). Thus, generalisation of CRM initiatives across cultural and national contexts would be seriously ineffective (Cialdini et al., 1999; Money and Colton, 2000). The substantial

evidence fills these research gaps by showing the existence of cross-cultural differences in consumer perception and behaviour towards CRM. It is revealed that consumers from both countries concern credibility issues in CRM the most when they make CRP purchase decisions. The results demonstrate that participation effort requested by companies in order to help social cause is not favourable for Chinese consumers as opposed to UK consumers who will be more likely to purchase a CRP if it requires them to make effort and time to get actively involved. Furthermore, it is found that overall UK consumers tend to have higher intention of buying CRPs regardless of the donation amount made to social causes. For products with a low donation magnitude made to the social cause, the difference in purchase intention is much less than for a product with a high donation magnitude, meaning when the CRPs are highly priced with donation, less intention consumers in China will have compared to consumers in the UK.

Secondly, this thesis shows that consumers' CRP buying behaviour across two countries is affected by the social cause cue that is portrayed in a distant or close manner. Both countries' consumers are significantly influenced by uncertainty and temporal factors relating to CRM campaign. It indicates that their avoidance of purchase is easily generated by the sense of doubt in company motivation and possibility to obtain desired outcome from supporting the cause. Moreover, urgency of the social causes in need and the quick response companies donate to help appear to be relatively more important factors in CRP buying in the two countries. Another important finding is that Chinese consumers are not affected by their perceived social and physical distance towards a social cause beneficiary. Whereas in the UK market, consumers show a clear tendency to buy when the cause is socially and physically closer to them social and physical stimuli of CRM have important influence on consumers' CRP purchasing. Of course, such tendency may be due to the fact that the concept of CRM is still less popular in China than in the UK. Researchers also suggest that Chinese consumers might also have a weaker sense of citizen responsibility and the whole society might have a low expectation for individuals to give to social causes (Yang and Ge, 2010; Wang, 2014).

3. Theoretical contribution to Psychological Distance theory

A second aspect of the intended contributions of the thesis concern the extension of the theoretical framework adopted; namely psychological distance in consumer research. More specifically, the current research is the first to explore psychological distance in the context of CRM, which is combined with social charitable and commercial dimensions (e.g. Ross et al., 1992). Previous studies regarding psychological distance have tested distance either in pro-social actions (Kennedy et al., 2009; McGraw et al., 2009; Pronin, Olivola and Kennedy, 2008; Henderson et al., 2012) or commercial behaviour (e.g. Kim et al, 2008; Loewenstein and Prelec, 1992; Zauberman and Lynch, 2005; Castaño et al., 2008). The current research examines the combined contexts and thus further manifest the legitimacy of the psychological distance theory for the application to a previously under-explored area, namely CRM, and thus contributes to the scarce research of the theory in consumer studies (Kim, Zhang and Lee, 2008).

As aforementioned, all four dimensions in psychological distance are highly relevant in influencing consumers' decision-making when buying CRPs given that it is a charitable giving behaviour and economic buying behaviour combined (Ross et al., 1992). This thesis is the first to establish and provide more contextualised constructs of consumers' multidimensional perceived distance towards social causes and thus has provided the future research a valuable framework in examining the effect of consumer-cause relations in CRP buying. The defined constructs of uncertainty, for instance, include the newly discovered possibility of having a desired CRM campaign outcome.

Furthermore, the current research is the first to offer valuable empirical work on the notion of psychological distance using in a cross-cultural context rather than in a single culture (Magolio et al., 2012; Trope and Liberman, 2010). The thesis contextualises the cultural difference on psychological distance in CRM. The psychological processes that define consumer responses to CRM are dependent on how people perceive themselves in the cause-self relations (Vaidyanathan et al., 2013). On the other hand, the normative imperative in the self-construal varies between individualist and collectivist societies (Markus and Kityama, 1991; Triandis, 1989;

Triandis et al., 1988; Jenett et al., 2002; Chang and Lee, 2011). How people in different cultural settings see themselves as close to other entities of the society (socially, physically, temporally and with uncertainty) can have a significant influence on their reaction to products that link to social causes (Russell and Russell, 2011; Kim and Johnson, 2013).

More specifically, this thesis has demonstrated that culture has significant effect on how people perceive others, an event in a distant future, remote place and with a degree of uncertainty, which further leads to different buying behaviour. In different cultural contexts, consumers may elicit more or less psychological distance on the same social cause. It was found that for a CRM campaign, Chinese consumers would concern more about company motivation and the possibility of having a desired outcome. In another word, uncertainty towards the cause will have more impact on their CRP buying than the UK consumers'. Their buying intention of CRPs consequently is more affected by the considerations of these aspects. The higher uncertainty about CRM and social causes may be due to the fact that Chinese consumers have experienced wide media coverage on several nation-wide scandals on charitable donation. It is said that Chinese consumers' confidence in charities and NPOs has dropped significantly after being exposed to news that senior management in charities (e.g. Red Cross) make public donations for personal uses (Cone, 2015). In contrast, consumers in the UK concern more about temporal aspects of a social cause than their Chinese counterparts. They tend to buy more CRPs because they perceive the social need in a cause and company response to it more urgent than Chinese consumers.

In addition, this thesis implies that for a person who is considered to be an "outsider" and for a cause that is geographically distant, CRP buyers from interdependent culture may elicit more psychological distance towards him or her than consumers from an independent culture. As aforementioned, Chinese consumers from the current dataset seemed to be unaffected by others that are socially closer or in a closer location to them while these two aspects remain significant in driving UK consumers' intention to buy CRPs. This is particularly interesting as it contradicts with the common belief in national cultural orientation (Triandis, 1995). A collective society such as China is thought to be fundamentally connected and related through relationships (Laufer et al.,

2010; Oyserman and Lee, 2008), and therefore typically the more connected relationships with others would make consumers very sensitive to the demands of their social context and more responsive to others' needs (Bochner, 1994). However, this thesis demonstrates that equating collectivism with concerns for individuals considered as an "outsider" is not necessarily always the case. Pro-social behaviour can be seen as normative in-group solidarity and the boundaries may sometimes be more firmly drawn between in-group and out-group members (Durkheim, 1964; Iyengar et al., 1999). In this sense, it may create a less attention on others in need in the Chinese society (e.g. Iyengar et al., 1999), and hence the irrelevance in perceived social and physical distance towards the cause.

4. Practical Contributions to CRM Strategies

This thesis contributes to the understanding of underlying construct in consumer purchase decision-making in CRM by identifying specific and practical ways in which marketing managers can predict and encourage purchase behaviour. The practical contributions can be illustrated as follows.

Variables about consumer perception of CRM including perceived credibility, cause fit and familiarity of CRM, together with consumer altruistic motivation were found to have significant influence on purchase intention in CRM. Therefore, marketers are advised to pay special attention to keep a decent trustworthy reputation for the cause-brand alliance as well as to show their expertise and efficiency in supporting causes. Positive influence from cause fit and familiarity of CRM shows that consumers favour high fit brand-cause relationship rather than low fit, despite different findings from previous literature (e.g. Lafferty, 2007). Familiarity of CRM campaign is also a key determinant in CRP buying, which indicates consumers tend to buy CRPs when they have heard of the campaigns before, either from mass media or through friend recommendations. Therefore, brands should consider marketing communication programmes for raising awareness among consumers. This could include social media as a means to spread the positive words about helping a social cause. Moreover, consumers' pro-social characteristics should not be neglected in promoting a CRM

campaign. Brands could frame campaign messages that highlight such pro-social traits for helping others to motivate consumers' CRP buying decisions.

More importantly, in relation to the abovementioned considerations that predominantly revolve around CRM cues regarding cause-brand alliance, marketing managers are advised to focus promotional effort on designing communication messages around consumer-social cause relations. The results from the empirical studies have demonstrated the overwhelming importance of reducing consumers' perceived psychological distance towards CRM when buying a CRP. This can be done in four main ways.

In designing the CRM messages, brands *first* can use consumers themselves as a reference to highlight the significance of a social issue. For example, using words like "you" can bring them to feel closer regarding the social cause. Similarly, a relation between consumer and their significant others could be drawn in the communication messages (e.g. highlighting an in-group member "your close friend"). *Second*, information relating to cause timing, i.e. the urgency to support the social cause and temporal length of the CRM campaign should be indicated throughout the communication programmes. Companies should be aware that consumers prefer more timely donations rather than a delayed contribution to help a social cause when the campaign finishes like many of the CRM programmes are implemented. Therefore, setting a timescale for the accumulated donation to be made for a social cause might be deemed preferable. For example, brands can make weekly or monthly donations to the nominated cause depending on the CRP product sales. *Third*, generally speaking consumers prefer a CRP that supports a social cause that would have an impact on the people and community nearer to where they are. Therefore, companies can benefit from stating such information or diminish the mention of the physical distance if the cause chosen is located far away. *Last but not least*, the results of this thesis suggest emphasis on the high possibility of reaching a positive impact on the cause beneficiary will significantly increase the effectiveness of the CRM promotion. By showing prior success stories derived from the same CRM programmes might reduce the consumers' uncertainty about donation and thus increase sales. Importantly, companies need to be explicitly clear about their intended motivation for conducting the campaigns. Any ill-

willed or perceived intention to exploit social cause in order to make profit would result in uncertainty and doubt.

Illustrated in the earlier sections, some of these four effects of psychological distance on CRP buying are stronger than others. To elaborate, temporal cues and certainty could generate more immediate and greater emotional responses from the consumers. Thus they are deemed the most important underlying constructs. Intertemporal and donation outcome-related information in CRM is the crucial aspects for the brands to focus on. The shorter distance existing between consumers and the supported social cause areas or people, the more likely a CRP purchase will be made, although the least strong predictor amongst the four distance dimensions. It is obvious from the findings that as long as consumers received relevant information regarding cause timing and company response method while they purchase the CRP, and if they are certain about CRM, they will not be as concerned with the supported location.

Another contribution to managerial knowledge about CRM is that positive consumer perception towards CRM (cause fit, credibility, familiarity) and their altruistic characteristics can create a sense of closeness in time and certainty about the campaign outcome. For instance, if a consumer is familiar with a social cause, it might increase his or her feeling of urgency to offer help and favouring a faster company respond to a donation. To be appealing, a relatively well-known CRM campaign would benefit the most to have contents that emphasize the temporal features of the social cause.

Importantly, this thesis provides new insights on what kind of products may be more suitable to pair with different social causes. Specifically, brands should shift focus from linking low price, low utilitarian products typically in the routine purchases to the products that are acquired with an accumulative nature (e.g. mobile contract) and accomplishment product (e.g. classic concert tickets). Consumers show higher intention to pay extra to support a CRP for the instalments. This is particularly highly likely when consumers feel very close to the social cause. Therefore, with the accumulative products, brands may want to pair a social cause that is perceived as close to consumers (e.g. supporting a close one; proximal location; high chance to have a positive outcome and with timely donation). In contrast, where social causes

are framed as psychologically distant, consumers are most likely to purchase hedonic products (e.g. SPA treatment).

Moreover, the results show that low donation magnitude and tiny commitment of donation associated with CRP buying might not always be the most effective way to promote CRM as suggested by some of the prior research (e.g. Chang and Lee, 2008). They will work well when the social cause is supported to benefit a stranger, remote community, a long-term CRM plan and with a relatively new cause-brand alliance. Marketers should consider tying relatively larger amount of donation per sale to the product price when the social cause chosen is perceived as close.

This research also provides useful implications for multinational corporations that operate CRM in global markets. Although some similarities exist in the developed and emerging markets' consumers' choice on CRPs, it is unwise to generalise CRM campaign designs across the board. One important finding is that participation effort associated with CRM is not favourable for Chinese consumers as opposed to British. Marketers are encouraged to associate products with causes that require participation effort from the consumers in the UK.

Furthermore, this research emphasizes the importance of focusing on the consumer-social cause relation in CRP buying in both developed and emerging markets. Both types of markets are influenced mostly by uncertainty factors in CRM. That is, consumers' buying intention of CRPs is clearly determined by considerations of whether the motivation of CRM campaign is perceived as cause-beneficial, and the perception of the possibility of having a desired outcome from the CRM campaign. In other words, if the consumers believe the campaign can have positive impact on helping the supported cause, they may buy more CRPs accordingly. Companies are advised that Chinese consumers' avoidance of purchase is more easily generated by the sense of doubt in CRM motivation and reputation than the UK consumers. Therefore, particularly in China, companies need to make certain that they communicate the genuine intention of helping social causes and choose a social cause associated with a renowned NPO, e.g. detailed description of company effort showing a cause-beneficial motivation and a successful campaign result from the past indicating a higher possibility to have a desired campaign outcome.

In addition to the previous point, the urgency of the social causes in need and the quick response companies donate to help these causes appear to be important factors to Chinese and UK consumers in CRM campaigns. Brands in both countries would benefit from highlighting relevant temporal information in the CRM campaign, e.g. advertisements and content design in the packing, etc. The perceived social closeness together with proximity of cause location, however, would not have large impact on Chinese consumers when they choose a CRP. In contrast, in the UK market, consumers show a clear tendency to buy when the cause is socially and physically closer to them. This result indicates that the cause recipients are less likely to have an impact on Chinese consumers' buying CRP than UK consumers. In the UK, marketers may want to focus on presenting social causes with the emphasis on consumers' relation with their social surroundings. For example, consumers are likely to support those who they can relate to more (e.g. family member) than those who are out of their social circle (e.g. a stranger). Marketing communication cues that have more egoistic and altruistic appeals that highlight benefit for close others may work better in the UK (Chang and Lee, 2008). Moreover, UK consumers favour CRM campaigns that support a cause in geographically closer areas. One thing marketers could do is to pair CRPs with social causes or NPOs that have more presence in the local or regional residential area. In contrast, Chinese consumers seem not to be affected by such information.

5. Research Limitations and Future Research

Despite the apparent theoretical and practical contributions yielded, the discussion of the findings must include the limitations of the research at hand and provide relating guidance for further research direction. First, on a methodological level there are some limitations to the research. Although adopting survey questionnaire has the benefit of the ability to gain access to a larger sample size and have results that are more representative, this research used a self-report method, which means personal bias might be present in the respondents' answers (Ray, 1997; Fisher, 1993; Arnold and Feldman, 1981). Future research can consider real life experiments to minimize this limitation. In addition, due to the scope and time limitation of the current research, only one representative country for each type of the markets is used, i.e. UK and China

respectively. Although significant findings and implications have been given using the two dataset, further quantitative investigations of CRP buying in more spatially diversified contexts can be account as avenues for future research. Moreover, the empirical study adopted a convenience sampling strategy. A more diversified sampling strategy can be adopted for future research. For this thesis, however, convenience sampling is deemed the most efficient and least expensive way of collecting data within a limited time frame. Efforts have also been made to improve the diversity of the two samples in current research. For instance, Chinese respondents were approached with snowballing technique via social network sites and were chosen across various age groups.

Second, a potential direction for future studies is regarding cultural difference. The main focus of the thesis is to understand the differences between developed and emerging markets, and therefore rather than looking at a detailed level of cultural difference, this research has focused on CRP buying on a country-level. Since the country-level difference is clearly evidenced in the current research, the next step may be to extend psychological distance in a group-level and individual-level in great detail.

Third, the scope of CRM programme and CRPs included in the current research represents the most common form, i.e. firms donate monetary contributions to NPO or social cause in link with economic transactions, i.e. the CRP sales. One of the main objectives of this thesis is to examine the effect of consumers' perceived distance between himself/herself and the social cause on their CRP choice. Given psychological distance is a new concept to be applied in CRM, and therefore needs to be explored and measured, a simpler form of CRM that explicitly shows the economic and pro-social giving dimensions was deemed more suitable for this particular research. In order to make the relationship salient in enquiry, the scope of CRPs is thus designed as a commercial product associated with giving to a certain social cause or a certain NPO. Built upon the contextualized application of psychological distance the current research has provided, a reasonable further step is to apply the theory of psychological distance in consumers' buying decisions on extended forms of CRPs tied with non-monetary contributions (e.g. employee volunteering) and multiple social causes (e.g. consumers choosing one cause out of three options to donate).

Lastly, the thesis has answered the research questions by demonstrating the effect of all four distance dimensions on CRP buying decisions and found that uncertainty and temporal distance dimensions are the most influential in driving consumers' intention to buy CRPs in both markets investigated. The next reasonable step for future research would be to look at their spontaneous effect on CRP buying behaviour.

6. Conclusion

To summarise, CRM has become a commonly used marketing strategy for firms to reach social and economic goals. Despite the popularity of this strategy, consumers' responses to CRM initiatives can somewhat be indifferent. Prior research has called to bring self-cause relations into focus to highlight the pro-social benefit of buying CRP (e.g. Liu et al., 2008). Built on donation and pro-social behaviour literature, these studies have mainly focused on social distance between the consumer and the cause beneficiaries. Given the recognition that CRP buying is beyond helping and that it is a combination of economic and pro-social behaviour, perceived cause-self relation could be multidimensional, and each could have different impact on consumers' decision to buy CRPs. Moreover, psychological distance to social causes may be perceived differently in different cultural context, and thus influence CRP buying in different country contexts. To date, marginal empirical studies have been done in emerging market's CRP buying.

With these apparent gaps in knowledge in mind, this thesis has systematically studied how psychological distance influence CRP buying behavior in two different countries. Psychological distance is highly relevant in consumers' choice of CRP because consumers do not tend to have direct experience with the supported social issues, and therefore have to go beyond their immediate experience and mentally traverse to process information about the social cause. This thesis has presented that how close consumers perceive themselves to the social cause socially, temporally, physically and with a degree of uncertainty significantly influence their willingness to buy a CRP. Among these, temporal and uncertainty factors have the most influential impact. Moreover, the perceived closeness' positive influence on CRP buying could be enhanced by consumers' favourable pre-buying perceptions towards CRM and their pro-social characteristics. Furthermore, this research also provides valuable insights

that products with an accumulative nature and a relatively large donation magnitude should be tied with psychologically closer social cause. Importantly, this thesis shows the significant differences among consumers' CRP buying in developed and emerging markets. Overall, UK consumers tend to purchase more CRPs. When the products are linked with high donation amount to social causes, the difference is more significant. Unlike UK consumers, Chinese consumers are not affected by their perceived social and physical distance towards social causes. Moreover, Chinese consumers are not in favour of providing extra effort in participating a CRM campaign other than buying a CRP whereas UK consumers may be willing to actively involve in devoting time and effort in CRM campaigns.

This research has provided empirical evidence of CRP buying behaviour influenced by how consumers processing CRM cues regarding social causes perceived closer and more distant to themselves. Theoretical and practical contributions have been illustrated on the basis of the application and validation of psychological distance in the CRM context and opens doors for future research in both areas.

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APPENDIX 1. Literature sources for questionnaire items

Construct/Items	Source
Purchase intention	
It is likely that I will participate in a cause campaign by purchasing a cause-related product.	Bower and Landreth 2001; Hou et al's 2008
I would be willing to purchase a product associated with a charitable cause.	
I would consider purchasing from a firm, which donates to a cause, in order to help it.	
I would be willing to pay a higher price for a cause-related product	
I would be willing to influence others to purchase a cause-related product	
Purchase Behaviour	
Have you ever bought a cause product?	Subrahmanyam's (2004)
How often do you buy cause-related products?	
CRM Familiarity	
I would be more likely to buy a cause-related product that has been advertised extensively	Macdonald and Sharp, 1996; Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005; Fombrun and Shanley, 1990; Bendapudi et al., 1996
When I choose a cause-related product, I always go for the one that supports a well-known charity.	
I would be more likely to buy cause-related products from a well-known brand.	
I buy cause-related products from certain brands because they evoke many familiar experiences	
I would be more confident buying well-known cause-related products because they are more likely to help people in need.	
I do not tend to buy a cause-related product associated with a charity that I cannot recall easily.	
Perceived Credibility	
I tend to buy cause-related products supporting charities that always provide excellent service to people and society.	Newell and Goldsmith, 2001; Ohanian, 1990; Burke, 2011; Goldsmith et al., 2000; Tapp, 1996
I usually buy a cause-related product associated with a trustworthy charity.	
I prefer to choose cause-related products from trustworthy companies.	
I am willing to buy cause-related products from companies with reputations for being trustworthy.	
Cause fit	
Toyota hatchback bundled with "Homeless Children in Need"	Gupta and Pirsch, 2007; Barone et al, 2007; Becker-Olsen et al, 2006; Hamlin and Wilson, 2006; Nan and Heo, 2007; Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005
BP petrol bundled with "Prevention of Ocean Pollution"	
L'Oreal lipstick bundled with "Breast Cancer Research"	
Cadbury biscuits bundled with "Help Fight Starvation in Africa"	

Altruism	
It is very important to me to help the people around me. I want to care for other people.	Schwartz, 1992
I strongly believe that people should care for nature. Looking after the environment is important to me.	
I like to devote myself to other people.	
Participation Effort	
I would be reluctant to buy a product (e.g. yoghurt) if the company asked me to post back part of the packaging (e.g. the bottle lid) in exchange for the company making a donation to charity.	Hou et al (2008)
The less effort for me to support a cause in exchange for the company making a donation, the more likely I would be to purchase the cause-related product.	
Emotional Intensity	
I get upset easily	Fraj and Martinex, 2006
I get stressed out easily	
I get irritated easily	
I change mood a lot	
I often feel blue	
I am easily disturbed	
I rarely get irritated (reversed)	
Psychological Distance	
Social distance	
Self/others	Lieberman et al, 2007; Maglio et al., 2013
If you were Susan (self)	
In-group/out-group	Clark, Mills and Corcoran, 1989; Maglio et al., 2013
If Susan was an aunt (ingroup)	
Physical distance	
Company A's local cause	Lieberman, et al, 2007; Ellen, et al, 2001; Grau and Folse, 2007; William and Bargh, 2008
Company B's regional cause	
Temporal distance	
Cause timing	Trope and Liberman, 2003; Maglio et al., 2013; Grau and Folse, 2007; Bendapudi et al, 1996
Company A (Emergencies)	
Company B (Recent needs)	
Corporate response timing	Tangari et al 2010; Maglio et al., 2013
Company A (Immediate donation)	
Company B (Donation in one month)	

Uncertainty	
Possibility of desired outcome	Lieberman et al, 2007; Castano et al, 2008; Maglio et al., 2013
Company A is reported to be likely to drill an estimated number of 250 wells for the villages in East Ethiopia.	
Perceived CRM motivation	Beckr-Olsen et al., 2006; Maglio et al., 2013
Company B hopes their current and other CRM programmes will help those victims of serious food deprivation in Ethiopia.	
Donation Magnitude (sample)	
Low amount condition:	Subrahmanyam, 2004; Strahilevitz, 1999; Human and Terblanche, 2012
SPA centre A voucher value: £21. We donate 5% of the sales to charity	
SPA centre B voucher value: £20	
High amount condition:	
SPA centre A voucher value: £26.7. We donate 25% of the sales to charity.	
SPA centre B voucher value: £20	
Product Level	
Accumulation Mobile phone contract 5%	Foxall, 2007; Subrahmanyam, 2004
Accomplishment CLASSIC CONCERT TICKET 5%	
Maintenance Shampoo 5%	
Hedonic SPA TREATMENT 5%	

APPENDIX 2: Pilot Questionnaire – English Version

Organisation: Durham University

Survey Description: The survey will be used as part of an academic thesis for a PhD student. The purpose of this survey is to collect data on various aspects of consumer purchase intention and purchase behaviours toward cause-related products.

Please note that the survey will take approximately 30-45 minutes to finish. You will be firstly asked a few questions on your attitude towards such products, and then questions on how you would choose the products based on different scenarios and product information given.

Your responses will be treated as confidential, i.e. the survey results will be reported in aggregate only and no individual details will be disclosed.

Thank you very much for your participation in this study.

PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING NOTES BEFORE COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE.

Definitions and examples of key terms used in the survey:

- "Cause campaigns" refer to marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue-providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives.

For example, (please see picture below) Heinz bundled their ketchup with the "Wounded Warrior Project." For each scan of a code on Heinz tomato ketchup bottle by consumers, Heinz would contribute \$0.57 to the Wounded Warrior Project. This project provides help to thousands of injured warriors returning home from current conflicts and provides assistance to their families.

- A "cause-related product" is a product promoted in a cause campaign.

For example, the Heinz tomato ketchup bottle (pictured) is a cause-related product. It is associated with the cause "supporting injured veterans and their families"



1. Please indicate your gender

- Male
- Female

2. Please select your age group from the following:

- <18
- 18-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- >65
- Prefer not to state

3. What is your annual income?

- Under £10,000
- £10,001-20,000
- £20,001-£30,000
- £30,001-£40,000
- £40,001-£50,000
- £50,001-£60,000
- More than £60,000
- Prefer not to state

4. Please indicate your occupation

- Admin/clerical
- Manual
- Professional
- Full-time student
- Self-employed
- Not working (housewife/retired)
- Unemployed
- Other/Please specify

Other (please specify)

Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements on a scale ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree".

5. I would buy cause-related products from well-known brands.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

6. I would actively seek out a familiar brand when buying a cause-related product.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

7. It is important for me to know the campaign prior to the purchase of a cause product; otherwise I will not buy it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

8. Whether the charity is well-known or not is important for me in choosing cause-related products.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

9. I would be more likely to buy a cause-related product that has been advertised extensively.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

10. When I choose a cause-related product, I always go for the one that supports a well-known charity.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

11. I buy cause-related products from certain brands because they evoke many familiar experiences.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

12. I would be more confident buying well-known cause-related products because they are more likely to help people in need.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

13. I do not tend to buy a cause-related product associated with a charity that I cannot recall easily.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

14. I feel better when I put more effort in supporting a cause

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

15. I would feel reluctant to buy a product (e.g. yoghurt) if the company asked me to post part of the packaging (e.g. the bottle lid) back in exchange of company donation to charities

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

16. The less effort for me to provide to support a cause the more likely I would purchase this cause product

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

17. I will be more likely to buy things from companies that have had successful cause campaigns before.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

18. It is important to me when I choose a cause product that the charity has a reputation of getting things done

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

19. I will not buy cause-related products from companies that have reputations for being incapable of supporting people in need.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

20. I tend to buy cause-related products from a cause campaign that always provide excellent service to people and society.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

21. I usually buy a cause-related product associated with a trustworthy charity.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

22. I prefer to choose cause-related products from trustworthy companies.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

23. I am willing to buy cause-related products from companies with reputations for being trustworthy

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

24. I think it is important that every person in the world be treated equally. I want justice for everybody, even for people I do not know.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

25. It is important to me to listen to understand other people's problems.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

26. It is very important to me to help the people around me. I want to care for other people.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

27. I like to devote myself to society.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

28. I strongly believe that people should care for nature. Looking after the environment is important to me

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please answer the following questions based on the scenarios given below.

According to the news, Company A is likely to drill an estimated number of 250 wells for those villages where suffer serious drought.

Company B hopes their current and other CRM programmes will help those victims of serious food deprivation.

29. How closely do you feel to the social cause according to each scenario on a scale ranging from "1=Not at all close" to "7= Very close"?

	1. Not at all closely	2	3	4. Neutral	5	6	7. Very closely
Company A	<input type="radio"/>						
Company B	<input type="radio"/>						

Please answer the following questions based on the scenarios given below.

Susan is a working mother. She was 37 years old when she learned that she had breast cancer. After a radical mastectomy (i.e. removal of a breast), she found that it had spread to her lymph nodes, which is much more difficult to treat than breast cancer cases where the cancer is contained. She is starting an intense schedule of chemotherapy.

30. How close would you feel to the charitable cause "support Breast Cancer Research" in the following situations on a scale ranging from "1=Not at all close" to "7=Very close"?

	1. Not at all close	2	3	4. Neutral	5	6	7. Very close
If you were Susan	<input type="radio"/>						
If Susan was an aunt	<input type="radio"/>						

31. How close do you feel to the following cause campaign message on a scale ranging from "1=Not at all close" to "7=Very close"?

	1. Not at all close	2	3	4. Neutral	5	6	7. Very close
Company A has the same strong belief as its customers that all business activities have to be socially responsible.	<input type="radio"/>						

Please answer the following questions based on the cause campaign messages below.

This Christmas, we (Company A) will give a portion of every Star Trek toy purchased to children's charity.

This Mental Illness Awareness Month, we (Company B) will donate a portion of the sales to support Mind's activities.

32. If you happen to see the cause-related products by the two companies during the specific time of Christmas and Mental Illness Awareness Month, how close do you feel to each company's campaign message on a scale ranging from "1=Not at all close" to "7= Very close"?

	1. Not at all closely	2	3	4. Neutral	5	6	7. Very closely
Company A	<input type="radio"/>						
Company B	<input type="radio"/>						

Please answer the following questions based on the cause campaign messages below.

We (Company A) will donate a portion of the sales to give first aid kits to an area hit by an earthquake three days ago.

We (Company B) will donate a portion of the sales to reconstruct recently flooded areas.

33. How closely do you feel to each cause campaign message on a scale ranging from "1=Not at all close" to "7= Very close"?

	1. Not at all closely	2	3	4. Neutral	5	6	7. Very closely
Company A (emergencies)	<input type="radio"/>						
Company B (recent needs)	<input type="radio"/>						

We (Company A) will give a portion of every purchase straight to the British Red Cross to help fund its heart disease prevention program (Immediate donation).

Every one month, we (Company B) will raise money for the British Red Cross to help fund its heart disease prevention program (donation in one month).

34. How close do you feel to each cause campaign message on a scale ranging from "1=Not at all close" to "7= Very close"?

	1. Not at all close	2	3	4. Neutral	5	6	7. Very close
Company A (Immediate donation)	<input type="radio"/>						
Company B (Donation every one month)	<input type="radio"/>						

Please answer the following questions based on the cause campaign messages.

We (Company A) will donate a portion of the sales to support a local cause (e.g. Women's aid in County Durham).

We (Company B) will donate a portion of the sales to support a regional cause (e.g. North East Trust Fund for homeless children).

35. How closely can you relate to each cause campaign message on a scale ranging from "1=Not at all close" to "7= Very close"?

	1. Not at all closely	2	3	4. Neutral	5	6	7. Very closely
Company A's local cause	<input type="radio"/>						
Company B's regional cause	<input type="radio"/>						

36. How much do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I am relaxed most of the time	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often feel blue	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get stressed out easily	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am easily disturbed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get upset easily	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I change mood a lot	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get irritated easily	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I seldom feel blue	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am not easily bothered by things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I rarely get irritated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please answer the following questions based on the cause campaign messages.

You are interested in buying a hatchback for your family. There are two charitable causes bundled with the product.

Toyota hatchback bundled with "Homeless Children in Need"
Toyota hatchback bundled with "Prevention of Cruelty to Animals"

37. In this scenario, I believe the car fits better with the cause "Homeless Children in Need" than "Prevention of Cruelty to Animals".

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

You need to buy petrol. There are two charitable causes bundled with the BP product.

BP petrol bundled with "Prevention of Ocean Pollution"
BP petrol bundled with "Heart Disease Research"

38. In this scenario, I believe the petro fits better with the cause "Prevention of Ocean Pollution" than "Heart Disease Research".

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

You are looking for a lipstick for yourself (or for your female friend). There are two charitable causes bundled with L'Oreal products.

L'Oreal lipstick bundled with "Breast Cancer Research"
L'Oreal lipstick bundled with "Recruitment for Disabled"

39. In this scenario, I believe the lipstick fits better with the cause "Breast Cancer Research" than "Recruitment for Disabled".

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

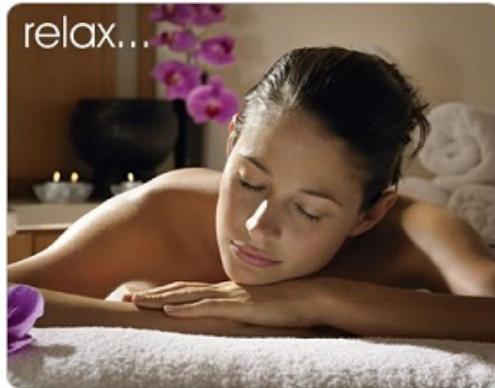
You are going to buy a box of Cadbury biscuits. There are two charitable causes bundled with the product.

Cadbury biscuits bundled with "Help Fight Starvation in Africa"
Cadbury biscuits bundled with "Saving Woodland"

40. In this scenario, I believe the biscuits fit better with the cause "Help Fight Starvation in Africa" than "Saving Woodland".

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

You decide to go for a spa treatment. You narrow your choice set to spa treatment centres A and B. Both centres seem identical in terms of the promised function and quality. Centre A, however, has a promotion, which promises to donate a portion of its sales to a charity. Please indicate whether you are likely to go for the treatment in centre A or B based on the product messages given below.



Voucher value: **£21.00**
We donate **5%** of sales to charity

Spa Centre A



Voucher value: **£20.00**

Spa Centre B

41. Between spa centre A and B, I am...

Highly likely to go for A

Likely to go for A

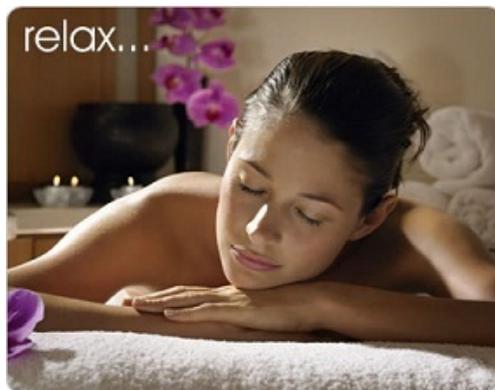
Somewhat likely to go for A

Equally likely to go for either

Somewhat likely to go for B

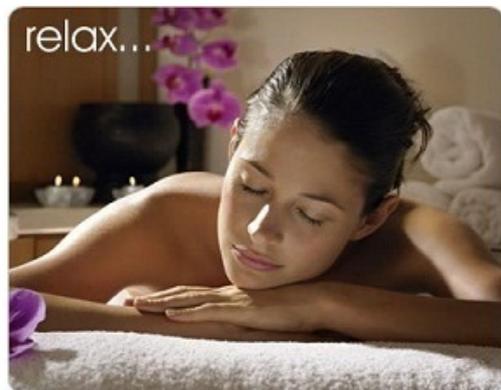
Likely to go for B

Highly likely to go for B



Voucher value: **£26.70**
We donate **25%** of sales to charity

Spa Centre A



Voucher value: **£20.00**

Spa Centre B

42. Between spa centre A and B, I am...

Highly likely to go for A

Likely to go for A

Somewhat likely to go for A

Equally likely to go for either

Somewhat likely to go for B

Likely to go for B

Highly likely to go for B



You decide to book a classical concert ticket. You narrow your choice set to Concert A and B. Both concerts seem identical. Concert A, however, has a promotion, which promises to donate a portion of its sales to a charity. Please indicate below whether you are likely buy tickets for concert A or B for each of the product messages given below.



Ticket price: £53.00

For every ticket sold, we donate **5%** of the sale price to charity

Concert A



Ticket price: £50.00

Concert B

43. Between concert A and B, I am...

Highly likely to buy A

Likely to buy A

Somewhat likely to buy A

Equally likely to buy either ticket

Somewhat likely to buy B

Likely to buy B

Highly likely to buy B

A horizontal scale with seven circular markers. The first marker is selected, indicating a preference for Concert A.



Ticket price: £ 66.70

For every ticket sold, we donate **25%** of the sale price to charity

Concert A



Ticket price: £50.00

Concert B

44. Between concert A and B, I am...

Highly likely to buy A

Likely to buy A

Somewhat likely to buy A

Equally likely to buy either ticket

Somewhat likely to buy B

Likely to buy B

Highly likely to buy B

A horizontal scale with seven circular markers. The second marker is selected, indicating a preference for Concert A.

You are going to choose a tariff for your new phone. There are two options (A and B) when you make a payment. The difference is that plan A involves a donation to a charity from the phone company. Please indicate whether you are likely to choose plan A or B based on each of the product messages given below.

Red Data It's our best ever value plan 18 months

- Unlimited minutes
- Unlimited texts
- 2 GB of internet

£ 6.26 a month including free phone Pre-order

5% of your monthly payment goes to charity

Mobile Tariff A

Red Data It's our best ever value plan 18 months

- Unlimited minutes
- Unlimited texts
- 2 GB of internet

£ 5.95 a month including free phone Pre-order

Mobile Tariff B

45. Between tariff A and B, I am...

Highly likely to choose A Likely to choose A Somewhat likely to choose A Equally likely to choose either Somewhat likely to choose B Likely to choose B Highly likely to choose B

Red Data It's our best ever value plan 18 months

- Unlimited minutes
- Unlimited texts
- 2 GB of internet

£ 7.93 a month including free phone Pre-order

25% of your monthly payment goes to charity

Mobile Tariff A

Red Data It's our best ever value plan 18 months

- Unlimited minutes
- Unlimited texts
- 2 GB of internet

£ 5.95 a month including free phone Pre-order

Mobile Tariff B

46. Between tariff A and B, I am...

Highly likely to choose A Likely to choose A Somewhat likely to choose A Equally likely to choose either Somewhat likely to choose B Likely to choose B Highly likely to choose B

You are going to buy a bottle of shampoo. You narrow your choice set to brands A and B. Both brands seem identical in terms of the promised function and quality. Brand A, however, has a promotion, which promises to donate a portion of its sales to a charity. Please indicate whether you are likely to buy brand A or B for each of the product messages given below.



47. Between Brand A and B, I am...

Highly likely to buy A	Likely to buy A	somewhat likely to buy A	Equally likely to buy either	somewhat likely to buy B	Likely to buy B	Highly likely to buy B
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



48. Between Brand A and B, I am...

Highly likely to buy A	Likely to buy A	somewhat likely to buy A	Equally likely to buy either	somewhat likely to buy B	Likely to buy B	Highly likely to buy B
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

49. It is likely that I will participate in a cause campaign by purchasing a cause-related product.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

50. I would be willing to purchase a product associated with a charitable cause.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

51. I would consider purchasing from a firm that donates to a cause, in order to help it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

52. I would be willing to pay a higher price for a cause-related product

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

53. I would be willing to influence others to purchase a cause-related product

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

54. Have you ever bought a cause-related product?

- Yes, I have.
- No, I have not.

55. How often do you buy cause-related products?

- 0-5 times per month
- 6-10 times per month
- more than 10 times per month

APPENDIX 3: Pilot Questionnaire – Chinese Version

您好，欢迎来到本问卷！此问卷是一篇消费者心理与行为学博士论文的重要组成部分，非常感谢您的参与！您的问卷答案都会以匿名及秘密方式纪录，请放心根据您的实际感受及亲身经验回答问题。

在回答问卷时（时间约长 15 分钟），您将被问一些有关对企业支持公益慈善事业的看法以及您对公益产品的购买意愿。在回答问卷的同时如果您有任何疑问或者建议，欢迎以以下方式联系本研究者：邮箱：tao.xue@dur.ac.uk 微薄：melanini

再次感谢您的参与！

相关名词解释

“公益产品”指的企业生产的与公益慈善事业相关联的产品。简单的来说，一个商品+公益事项=公益产品

比如农夫山泉的“买一瓶水，捐一分钱”活动（见如下图）。公司承诺消费者每买一瓶农夫山泉矿泉水，就向指定的慈善公益机构捐献一分钱。

在此活动中，“农夫山泉矿泉水”就是“农夫山泉”这个品牌用来与公益慈善事业（帮助贫困孩子）相关连的公益产品。



1. 请选择您的性别

- 男
- 女

2. 请选择您的年龄组

- <18
- 18-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- >65
- 保密

3. 您的年收入在?

- 低于 3 万
- 3-8 万
- 8-15 万
- 15-25 万
- 25-30 万
- 30-60 万
- 60 万以上
- 保密

4. 请选择您的职业

- 行政
- 手工作业
- 在职
- 学生
- 自雇 / 私营业主
- 待业中 (退休 / 全职家庭)
- 失业中

其他（请描述您的职业）

5. 我比较倾向买知名品牌的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

6. 我会寻找熟悉的品牌来购买公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

7. 如果我事先不了解这个公益产品，我就不会想要购买它

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

8. 一个产品支持的慈善组织有名于否对我来说并不重要

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

9. 我很可能会去买一个经过大力宣传的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

10. 我通常都选择购买那些支持知名慈善公益组织的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

11. 我购买一些特定品牌的公益产品是因为这些品牌能够唤起熟悉的购买经历

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

12. 我对购买知名公益产品更报有信心因为他们可以更多地帮助弱势群体

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

13. 我一般不会购买那些捐款给我不熟悉的慈善组织的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

14. 我愿意花精力时间去支持公益事业，这会让我感觉很好

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

15. 如果商家要我寄回一部分产品的包装（如：瓶盖）以换取公司对慈善组织的捐款，我会觉得很勉强。

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

16. 购买公益产品以支持慈善事业，花费我越少精力越好。

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

17. 我更有可能从有着成功支持慈善组织经验的公司那里购买公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

18. 一个慈善机构是否能够胜任公益活动是我选择公益产品的重要考量

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

19. 我不会买有着不能胜任帮助弱势群体名声的公司的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

20. 如果一个公益产品支持那些始终提供良好服务的慈善组织，我就会比较倾向于买这个产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

21. 我通常都买与一个值得信任的慈善组织相关的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

22. 我通常都买与一个值得信任的公司的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

23. 我愿意购买有着值得信任的名气的公司的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

24. 我认为每个人甚至是陌生人都应该受到平等和正义的对待

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

25. 倾听和尝试了解别人的困难对我来说很重要

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

26. 帮助别人对我来说很重要。我想要关怀他人。

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

27. 我愿意奉献自己所有给社会

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

28. 我认为每个人都应该关心自然环境。环境保护对于我来说非常重要

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

请阅读下列印在公益产品上的广告语，然后回答以下问题。

根据新闻报道 A 公司有可能用公益产品收入为某干旱地区钻 250 口井
B 公司希望自己的产品与公益事业收入配能够帮助到某严重旱灾地区的群体

29. 根据以上公益产品描述，您感觉心理上与各公司的意愿联系紧密程度是？

	1. 非常不接近	2	3	4. 不确定	5	6	7. 非常接近
A 公司	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>					
B 公司	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

李某是个职业妇女。她在 37 岁的时候患上了乳腺癌。在经历了乳房切除手术以后，医生发现癌细胞已经扩散到了淋巴系统。这意味着癌细胞不再能被控制，治疗将更加困难。为了治疗，李某现在不得不接受高强度的化疗。

30. 根据以上描述，你心理上感觉与“支持癌症治疗研究”这个公益事项的接近程度是？

	1. 非常不接近	2	3	4. 不确定	5	6	7. 非常接近
如果你是李某	<input type="radio"/>						
如果李某是你的阿姨	<input type="radio"/>						

31. 根据以下公益产品描述，您感觉心理上与各公司的意愿联系紧密程度是

1. 非常不接近	2	3	4. 不确定	5	6	7. 非常接近
----------	---	---	--------	---	---	---------

1. 非常不接近 2 3 4. 不确定 5 6 7. 非常接近

A 公司和你一样
坚信企业要承担起社会责任。

请阅读下列印在公益产品上的广告语，然后回答以下问题。

今年春节，我公司（公司 A）会将每个福娃玩具收入所得的一部分捐赠给儿童福利事业。
这个心理健康宣传月中，我公司（公司 B）会将每个公益产品收入所得的一部分捐赠给心理健康慈善机构。

32. 根据以上描述，假设你正在春节和心理健康宣传月中看到两个公司的公益产品，你心理上感觉与这两个公益描述的接近程度是？

1. 非常不接近 2 3 4. 不确定 5 6 7. 非常接近

公司 A	<input type="radio"/>						
公司 B	<input type="radio"/>						

我们(A 公司)将为三天前发生的强烈地震捐助一部分产品收入用于购买急救用品（紧急事件）
我们(B 公司)将为最近的洪水后重建工作捐助一部分产品收入（近期事件）

33. 根据以上公益产品描述，您感觉心理上与各公司的意愿联系紧密程度是？

1. 非常不接近 2 3 4. 不确定 5 6 7. 非常接近

公司 A	<input type="radio"/>						
公司 B	<input type="radio"/>						

A: 每次刷我银行的信用卡本行将立刻捐款给某慈善医疗组织的预防心脏病计划（公司即时捐助）
B: 每一个月内，我银行筹集款项给某慈善医疗组织的预防心脏病计划（公司每个月捐助）

34. 根据以上公益产品描述，您感觉心理上与各公司的意愿联系紧密程度是

	1. 非常不接近	2	3	4. 不确定	5	6	7. 非常接近
公司 A	<input type="radio"/>						
公司 B	<input type="radio"/>						

请阅读下列印在公益产品上的广告语，然后回答以下问题。

A 公司将会此商品的部分销售额捐给本地的公益事项 (如：您所在城市的下岗工人再就业事项)

B 公司将会此商品的部分销售额捐给地区的公益事项 (如：您所在的省下岗工人再就业事项)

35. 根据以下描述，您心理上感觉自己与各家公司支持的公益事项联系紧密程度是？

	1. 非常不接近	2	3	4. 不确定	5	6	7. 非常接近
公司 A	<input type="radio"/>						
公司 B	<input type="radio"/>						

36. 您对以下陈述的赞同程度是？

	非常同意	不同意	有点不同意	不确定	有点同意	同意	非常同意
我大多数时候都很放松	<input type="radio"/>						
我经常感到忧郁	<input type="radio"/>						
我很容易焦虑	<input type="radio"/>						
我很容易被人影响	<input type="radio"/>						
我很容易情绪低落	<input type="radio"/>						
我常变换情绪	<input type="radio"/>						
我很容易被激怒	<input type="radio"/>						
我不常感到沮丧	<input type="radio"/>						
我不太常烦恼事情	<input type="radio"/>						
我很少被激怒	<input type="radio"/>						

请根据以下情境回答问题。

假设您现在要买一辆丰田家庭用两厢车。这辆车支持如下两个公益事项。

家庭用两厢车—流浪儿童保护

家庭用两厢车—虐待动物保护

37. 在此情境中，我觉得丰田两厢车捐款给流浪儿童保护比虐待动物保护更合适

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

假设您现在要买一桶 BP 机用汽油。这个商品支持如下两个公益事项。

机用汽油—海洋污染清理与预防

机用汽油—心脏病预防

38. 在此情境中，我觉得 BP 汽油捐款给海洋污染清理比心脏病预防更合适

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

假设您现在要买一只欧莱雅唇膏。这个商品支持如下两个公益事项。

唇膏—乳腺癌研究

唇膏—残疾人就业

39. 在此情境中，我觉得欧莱雅唇膏捐款给乳腺癌研究比残疾人就业更合适

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

假设您现在要买一盒雀巢饼干。这个商品支持如下两个公益事项。

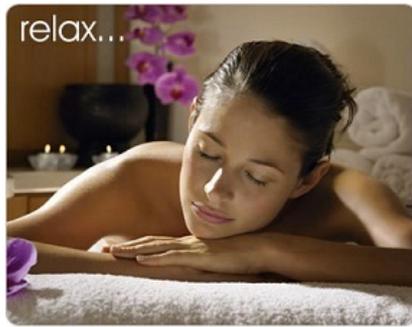
饼干—拯救非洲饥荒人群

饼干—拯救森林

40. 在此情境中，我觉得雀巢饼干捐款给非洲饥荒人群比拯救森林更适合

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

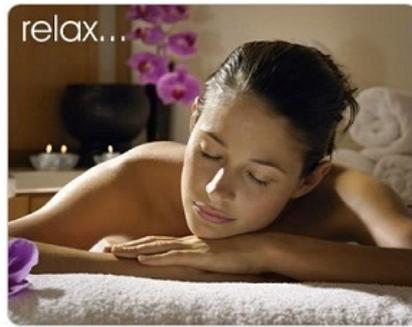
假设您现在想买一张养生推拿礼券，您将选择锁定在养生中心 A 和 B。A 和 B 所提供的服务非常相似，唯一不同的是养生中心 A 承诺将一部分收入捐献给慈善组织。请根据以下信息给出您对两家养生推拿中心的选择意向。



价格：53元

我们将把推拿所得的 5% 捐赠给慈善机构

养生推拿中心 A



价格：50元

养生推拿中心 B

41. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能

可能

稍许可

不确定

稍许可

可能

非常可能

购买 A

购买 A

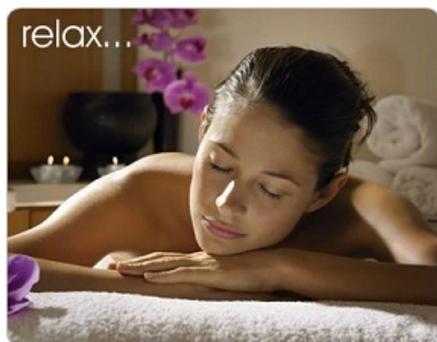
能购买 A

能购买 B

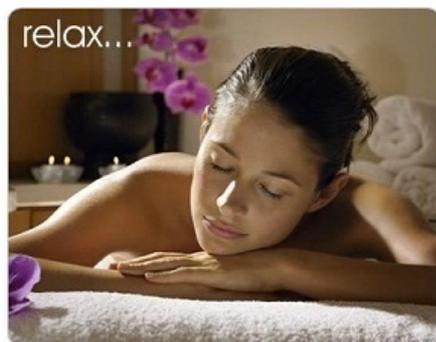
购买 B

购买 B

<input type="radio"/>							
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------



价格：66.7元



价格：50元

42. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能 可能 稍许可 不确定 稍许可 可能 非常可能
购买 A 购买 A 能购买 A 能购买 B 购买 B 购买 B

假设您现在要订一张经典音乐会门票。音乐会官方网站上有两种选择 A 和 B。音乐会承诺 A 票将一部分收入捐献给慈善组织。A 和 B 除此之外没有任何其他区别。请根据以下信息给出您对两种选择的购买意向。



票价：105元

本音乐会将把票价所得的5%捐赠给慈善机构

经典音乐会 A



票价：100元

经典音乐会 B

43. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能 可能 稍许可 不确定 稍许可 可能 非常可能
购买 A 购买 A 能购买 A 能购买 B 购买 B 购买 B



票价：133元

本音乐会将把票价所得的25%捐赠给慈善机构

经典音乐会 A



票价：100元

经典音乐会 B

44. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能 可能 稍许可 不确定 稍许可 可能 非常可能
 购买 A 购买 A 能购买 A 能购买 B 购买 B 购买 B

假设您现在用分期付款的方式买一部手机。有两家手机运营商 A 和 B 同时推出非常相似的购买方案（相似的还款时间长度和合同内容）。唯一不同的是 A 公司承诺将一部分收入捐献给慈善组织。请根据以下信息给出您对两款购买方案的选择意向。

手机世界最佳购买方案 18个月分期付款让您拥有最喜爱的手机

- 无限通话时间
- 无限短信
- 2G网络流量

只需每月53元

我们将把手机费用收入的 5%捐赠给慈善机构

立刻预定

手机运营商 A

手机世界最佳购买方案 18个月分期付款让您拥有最喜爱的手机

- 无限通话时间
- 无限短信
- 2G网络流量

只需每月50元

立刻预定

手机运营商 B

45. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能 可能 稍许可 不确定 稍许可 可能 非常可能
 购买 A 购买 A 能购买 A 能购买 B 购买 B 购买 B

手机世界最佳购买方案 18个月分期付款让您拥有最喜爱的手机

- 无限通话时间
- 无限短信
- 2G网络流量

只需每月**66.7元**

我们将把手机费用收入的25%捐赠给慈善机构

立刻预定

手机运营商 A

手机世界最佳购买方案 18个月分期付款让您拥有最喜爱的手机

- 无限通话时间
- 无限短信
- 2G网络流量

只需每月**50元**

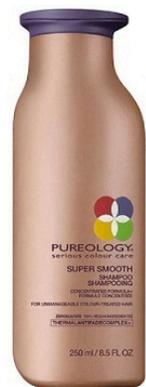
立刻预定

手机运营商 B

46. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能 可能 稍许可 不确定 稍许可 可能 非常可能
 购买 A 购买 A 能购买 A 购买 B 购买 B 购买 B

假设您现在想买一瓶洗发水，您将选择锁定在洗发水 A 和 B，他们在产品性能方面非常相似，唯一不同的是洗发水 A 所属的公司承诺将一部分收入捐献给慈善组织。请根据以下印在公益产品上的信息给出您对两款洗发水的购买意向。



洗发水 A

售价：21元

本公司将把销售收入
所得的5%捐赠给慈善机构



洗发水 B

售价：20元

47. 在 A 和 B 中，我

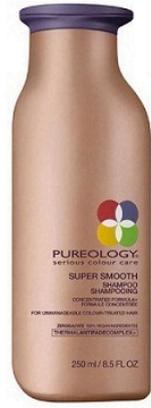
非常可能 可能 稍许可 不确定 稍许可 可能 非常可能
 购买 A 购买 A 能购买 A 购买 B 购买 B 购买 B



售价：26.7元

本公司将把销售所得的25%捐献给慈善机构

洗发水 A



售价：20元

洗发水 B

48. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能 购买 A	可能 购买 A	稍许可 能购买 A	不确定	稍许可 能购买 B	可能 购买 B	非常可能 购买 B
--------------	------------	--------------	-----	--------------	------------	--------------

<input type="radio"/>						
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49. 我有可能通过购买公益产品来支持公益慈善事业

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
-------	-----	-------	-----	------	----	------

<input type="radio"/>						
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

50. 一般来说，我会愿意购买公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
-------	-----	-------	-----	------	----	------

<input type="radio"/>						
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

51. 我会考虑买承诺向慈善公益组织提供帮助跟捐款的商品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
-------	-----	-------	-----	------	----	------

<input type="radio"/>						
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

52. 一般来说，我愿意付较高价钱买公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
-------	-----	-------	-----	------	----	------

<input type="radio"/>						
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

53. 我愿意影响他人去购买公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

54. 您有买过公益产品吗

- 有过
- 没有

55. 以下能最准确形容您的购买频率的是

- 每月 0-5 次
- 每月 6- 10 次
- 每月 10 次以上

APPENDIX 4. Final Questionnaire – English Version

Organisation: Durham University

Survey Description: The survey will be used as part of an academic thesis for a PhD student. The purpose of this survey is to collect data on various aspects of consumer purchase intention and purchase behaviours toward cause-related products.

Please note that the survey will take approximately 20-25 minutes to finish. You will be firstly asked a few questions on your attitude towards such products, and then questions on how you would choose the products based on different scenarios and product information given.

Your responses will be treated as confidential, i.e. the survey results will be reported in aggregate only and no individual details will be disclosed.

Thank you very much for your participation in this study.

PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING NOTES BEFORE COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE.

Definitions and examples of key terms used in the survey:

- "**Cause campaigns**" refer to marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue-providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives.

For example, (please see picture below) Heinz bundled their ketchup with the "Wounded Warrior Project." For each scan of a code on Heinz tomato ketchup bottle by consumers, Heinz would contribute \$0.57 to the Wounded Warrior Project. This project provides help to thousands of injured warriors returning home from current conflicts and provides assistance to their families.

- A "**cause-related product**" is a product promoted in a cause campaign.

For example, the Heinz tomato ketchup bottle (pictured) is a cause-related product. It is associated with the cause "supporting injured veterans and their families"



1. Please indicate your gender

- Male
- Female

2. Please select your age group from the following:

- <18
- 18-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- >65
- Prefer not to state

3. What is your annual income?

- Under £10,000
- £10,001-20,000
- £20,001-£30,000
- £30,001-£40,000
- £40,001-£50,000
- £50,001-£60,000
- More than £60,000
- Prefer not to state

4. Please indicate your occupation

- Admin/clerical
- Manual
- Professional
- Full-time student
- Self-employed
- Not working (housewife/retired)
- Unemployed
- Other/Please specify

Other (please specify)

Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements on a scale ranging from "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree".

5. I would buy cause-related products from well-known brands.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

6. I would actively seek out a familiar brand when buying a cause-related product.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

7. I would be more likely to buy a cause-related product that has been advertised extensively.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

8. When I choose a cause-related product, I always go for the one that supports a well-known charity.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

9. I buy cause-related products from certain brands because they evoke many familiar experiences.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

10. I would be more confident buying well-known cause-related products because they are more likely to help people in need.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

11. I do not tend to buy a cause-related product associated with a charity that I cannot recall easily.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

12. I feel better when I put more effort in supporting a cause

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

13. I would feel reluctant to buy a product (e.g. yoghurt) if the company asked me to post part of the packaging (e.g. the bottle lid) back in exchange of company donation to charities

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

14. The less effort for me to provide to support a cause the more likely I would purchase this cause product

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

15. I will be more likely to buy things from companies that have had successful cause campaigns before.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

16. It is important to me when I choose a cause product that the charity has a reputation of getting things done

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

17. I tend to buy cause-related products from a cause campaign that always provide excellent service to people and society.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

18. I usually buy a cause-related product associated with a trustworthy charity.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

19. I prefer to choose cause-related products from trustworthy companies.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

20. I am willing to buy cause-related products from companies with reputations for being trustworthy

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

21. It is important to me to listen to understand other people's problems.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

22. It is very important to me to help the people around me. I want to care for other people.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

23. I like to devote myself to socceity.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

24. I strongly believe that people should care for nature. Looking after the environment is important to me

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please answer the questions based on the scenario given below.

According to the news, Company A is likely to drill an estimated number of 250 wells for those villages where suffer serious drought.

Company B hopes their current and other CRM programmes will help those victims of serious food deprivation.

25. How closely do you feel to the social cause according to each scenario on a scale ranging from "1=Not at all close" to "7= Very close"?

	1. Not at all closely	2	3	4. Neutral	5	6	7. Very closely
Company A	<input type="radio"/>						
Company B	<input type="radio"/>						

Please answer the following questions based on the scenarios given below.

Susan is a working mother. She was 37 years old when she learned that she had breast cancer. After a radical mastectomy (i.e. removal of a breast), she found that it had spread to her lymph nodes,

which is much more difficult to treat than breast cancer cases where the cancer is contained. She is starting an intense schedule of chemotherapy.

26. How close would you feel to the charitable cause "support Breast Cancer Research" in the following situations on a scale ranging from "1=Not at all close" to "7=Very close"?

	1. Not at all close	2	3	4. Neutral	5	6	7. Very close
If you were Susan	<input type="radio"/>						
If Susan was an aunt	<input type="radio"/>						

Please answer the following questions based on the cause campaign messages below.

We (Company A) will donate a portion of the sales to give first aid kits to an area hit by an earthquake three days ago.

We (Company B) will donate a portion of the sales to reconstruct recently flooded areas.

27. How closely can you relate to each cause campaign message on a scale ranging from "1=Not at all close" to "7= Very close"?

	1. Not at all closely	2	3	4. Neutral	5	6	7. Very closely
Company A (emergencies)	<input type="radio"/>						
Company B (recent needs)	<input type="radio"/>						

We (Company A) will give a portion of every purchase straight to the British Red Cross to help fund its heart disease prevention program (Immediate donation).

Every one month, we (Company B) will raise money for the British Red Cross to help fund its heart disease prevention program (donation in one month).

28. How close do you feel to each cause campaign message on a scale ranging from "1=Not at all close" to "7= Very close"?

	1. Not at all close	2	3	4. Neutral	5	6	7. Very close
Company A (Immediate donation)	<input type="radio"/>						
Company B (Donation every one month)	<input type="radio"/>						

Please answer the following questions based on the cause campaign messages from Company A & B.

We (Company A) will donate a portion of the sales to support a local cause (e.g. Women's aid in County Durham).

We (Company B) will donate a portion of the sales to support a regional cause (e.g. North East Trust Fund for homeless children).

29. How closely can you relate to each cause campaign message on a scale ranging from "1=Not at all close" to "7= Very close"?

	1. Not at all closely	2	3	4. Neutral	5	6	7. Very closely
Company A's local cause	<input type="radio"/>						
Company B's regional cause	<input type="radio"/>						

30. How much do you agree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I am relaxed most of the time	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I often feel blue	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get stressed out easily	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am easily disturbed	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get upset easily	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I change mood a lot	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get irritated easily	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I seldom feel blue	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am not easily bothered by things	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I rarely get irritated	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please answer the following questions based on the cause campaign messages.

You are interested in buying a hatchback for your family. There are two charitable causes bundled with the product.

Toyota hatchback bundled with "Homeless Children in Need"
Toyota hatchback bundled with "Prevention of Cruelty to Animals"

31. In this scenario, I believe the car fits better with the cause "Homeless Children in Need" than "Prevention of Cruelty to Animals"

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

You need to buy petrol. There are two charitable causes bundled with the BP product.

BP petrol bundled with "Prevention of Ocean Pollution"
BP petrol bundled with "Heart Disease Research"

32. In this scenario, I believe the petro fits better with the cause "Prevention of Ocean Pollution" than "Heart Disease Research".

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

You are looking for a lipstick for yourself (or for your female friend). There are two charitable causes bundled with L'Oreal products.

L'Oreal lipstick bundled with "Breast Cancer Research"
L'Oreal lipstick bundled with "Recruitment for Disabled"

33. In this scenario, I believe the lipstick fits better with the cause "Breast Cancer Research" than "Recruitment for Disabled"

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

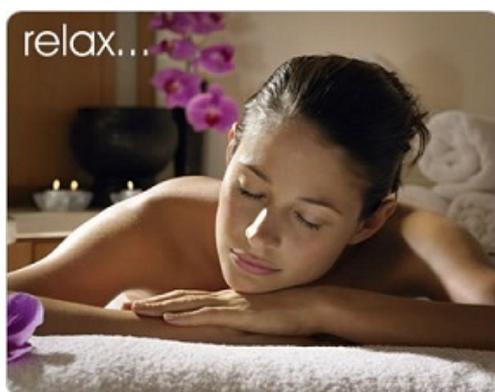
You are going to buy a box of Cadbury biscuits. There are two charitable causes bundled with the product.

Cadbury biscuits bundled with "Help Fight Starvation in Africa"
Cadbury biscuits bundled with "Saving Woodland"

34. In this scenario, I believe the biscuits fit better with the cause "Help Fight Starvation in Africa" than "Saving Woodland".

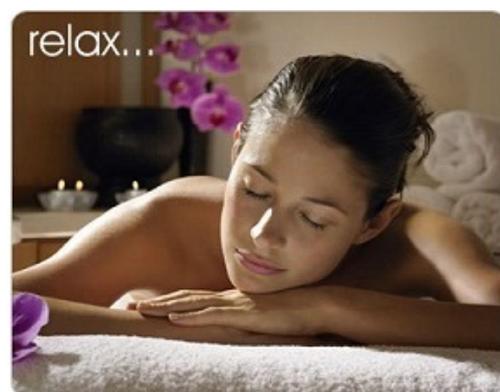
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

You decide to go for a spa treatment. You narrow your choice set to spa treatment centres A and B. Both centres seem identical in terms of the promised function and quality. Centre A, however, has a promotion, which promises to donate a portion of its sales to a charity. Please indicate whether you are likely to go for the treatment in centre A or B based on the product messages given below.



Voucher value: **£21.00**
 We donate **5%** of sales to charity

Spa Centre A



Voucher value: **£20.00**

Spa Centre B

35. Between spa centre A and B, I am...

Highly likely to go for A

Likely to go for A

Somewhat likely to go for A

Equally likely to go for either

Somewhat likely to go for B

Likely to go for B

Highly likely to go for B



Voucher value: **£26.70**
We donate **25%** of sales to charity

Spa Centre A



Voucher value: **£20.00**

Spa Centre B

36. Between spa centre A and B, I am...

Highly likely to go for A

Likely to go for A

Somewhat likely to go for A

Equally likely to go for either

Somewhat likely to go for B

Likely to go for B

Highly likely to go for B



You decide to book a classical concert ticket. You narrow your choice set to Concert A and B. Both concerts seem identical. Concert A, however, has a promotion, which promises to donate a portion of its sales to a charity. Please indicate below whether you are likely buy tickets for concert A or B for each of the product messages given below.



Ticket price: £53.00

For every ticket sold, we donate **5%** of the sale price to charity

Concert A



Ticket price: £50.00

Concert B

37. Between concert A and B, I am...

Highly likely to buy A Likely to buy A Somewhat likely to buy A Equally likely to buy either ticket Somewhat likely to buy B Likely to buy B Highly likely to buy B



Ticket price: £ 66.70

For every ticket sold, we donate **25%** of the sale price to charity

Concert A



Ticket price: £50.00

Concert B

38. Between concert A and B, I am...

Highly likely to buy A Likely to buy A Somewhat likely to buy A Equally likely to buy either ticket Somewhat likely to buy B Likely to buy B Highly likely to buy B



You are going to choose a tariff for your new phone. There are two options (A and B) when you make a payment. The difference is that plan A involves a donation to a charity from the phone company. Please indicate whether you are likely to choose plan A or B based on each of the product messages given below.

Red Data It's our best ever value plan 18 months

- Unlimited minutes
- Unlimited texts
- 2 GB of internet

£ 6.26 a month including free phone Pre-order

5% of your monthly payment goes to charity

Mobile Tariff A

Red Data It's our best ever value plan 18 months

- Unlimited minutes
- Unlimited texts
- 2 GB of internet

£ 5.95 a month including free phone Pre-order

Mobile Tariff B

39. Between tariff A and B, I am...

Highly likely to choose A

Likely to choose A

Somewhat likely to choose A

Equally likely to choose either

Somewhat likely to choose B

Likely to choose B

Highly likely to choose B



Red Data It's our best ever value plan 18 months

- Unlimited minutes
- Unlimited texts
- 2 GB of internet

£7.93 a month including free phone [Pre-order](#)

25% of your monthly payment goes to charity

Mobile Tariff A

Red Data It's our best ever value plan 18 months

- Unlimited minutes
- Unlimited texts
- 2 GB of internet

£ 5.95 a month including free phone [Pre-order](#)

Mobile Tariff B

40. Between tariff A and B, I am...

Highly likely to choose A

Likely to choose A

Somewhat likely to choose A

Equally likely to choose either

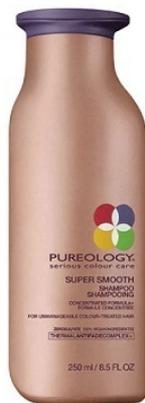
Somewhat likely to choose B

Likely to choose B

Highly likely to choose B



You are going to buy a bottle of shampoo. You narrow your choice set to brands A and B. Both brands seem identical in terms of the promised function and quality. Brand A, however, has a promotion, which promises to donate a portion of its sales to a charity. Please indicate whether you are likely to buy brand A or B for each of the product messages given below.



Only £3.15

We donate 5% of sales to charity

Shampoo A



Only £3.00

Shampoo B

41. Between Brand A and B, I am...

Highly likely to buy A	Likely to buy A	somewhat likely to buy A	Equally likely to buy either	somewhat likely to buy B	Likely to buy B	Highly likely to buy B
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



Shampoo A

Only £4.00

We donate 25% of sales to charity



Shampoo B

Only £3.00

42. Between Brand A and B, I am...

Highly likely to buy A	Likely to buy A	somewhat likely to buy A	Equally likely to buy either	somewhat likely to buy B	Likely to buy B	Highly likely to buy B
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

43. It is likely that I will participate in a cause campaign by purchasing a cause-related product.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

44. I would be willing to purchase a product associated with a charitable cause.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

45. I would consider purchasing from a firm which donates to a cause, in order to help it.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

46. I would be willing to pay a higher price for a cause-related product

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

47. I would be willing to influence others to purchase a cause-related product

Strongly disagree

Disagree

Somewhat disagree

Neither agree nor disagree

Somewhat agree

Agree

Strongly agree



48. Have you ever bought a cause-related product?



Yes, I have.



No, I have not.

49. How often do you buy cause-related products?



0-5 times per month



6-10 times per month



more than 10 times per month

APPENDIX 5. Final Questionnaire – Chinese Version

您好，欢迎来到本问卷！此问卷是一篇消费者心理与行为学博士论文的重要组成部分，非常感谢您的参与！您的问卷答案都会以匿名及秘密方式纪录，请放心根据您的实际感受及亲身经验回答问题。

在回答问卷时（时间约长 15 分钟），您将被问一些有关对企业支持公益慈善事业的看法以及您对公益产品的购买意愿。在回答问卷的同时如果您有任何疑问或者建议，欢迎以以下方式联系本研究者：邮箱：tao.xue@dur.ac.uk 微薄：melanini

再次感谢您的参与！

相关名词解释

“公益产品”指的企业生产的与公益慈善事业相关联的产品。简单的来说，一个商品+公益事项=公益产品

比如农夫山泉的“买一瓶水，捐一分钱”活动（见如下图）。公司承诺消费者每买一瓶农夫山泉矿泉水，就向指定的慈善公益机构捐献一分钱。

在此活动中，“农夫山泉矿泉水”就是“农夫山泉”这个品牌用来与公益慈善事业（帮助贫困孩子）相关连的公益产品。



1. 请选择您的性别

- 男
- 女

2. 请选择您的年龄组

- <18
- 18-24
- 25-34
- 35-44

- 45-54
- 55-64
- >65
- 保密

3. 您的年收入在?

- 低于 3 万
- 3-8 万
- 8-15 万
- 15-25 万
- 25-30 万
- 30-60 万
- 60 万以上
- 保密

4. 请选择您的职业

- 行政
- 手工作业
- 在职
- 学生
- 自雇 / 私营业主
- 待业中 (退休 / 全职家庭)
- 失业中
- 其他 (请描述您的职业)

5. 我比较倾向买知名品牌的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

6. 我会寻找熟悉的品牌来购买公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

7. 我很可能会去买一个经过大力宣传的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

8. 我通常都选择购买那些支持知名慈善公益组织的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

9. 我购买一些特定品牌的公益产品是因为这些品牌能够唤起熟悉的购买经历

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

10. 我对购买知名公益产品更报有信心因为他们可以更多地帮助弱势群体

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

11. 我一般不会购买那些捐款给我不熟悉的慈善组织的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

12. 我愿意花精力时间去支持公益事业，这会让我感觉很好

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

13. 如果商家要我寄回一部分产品的包装（如：瓶盖）以换取公司对慈善组织的捐款，我会觉得很勉强

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

14. 购买公益产品以支持慈善事业，花费我越少精力越好。

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

15. 我更有可能从有着成功支持慈善组织经验的公司那里购买公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

16. 一个慈善机构是否能够胜任公益活动是我选择公益产品的重要考量

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

17. 如果一个公益产品支持那些始终提供良好服务的慈善组织，我就会比较倾向于买这个产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

18. 我通常都买与一个值得信任的慈善组织相关的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

19. 我通常都买与一个值得信任的公司的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

20. 我愿意购买有着值得信任的名气的公司的公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

21. 倾听和尝试了解别人的困难对我来说很重要

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

22. 帮助别人对我来说很重要。我想要关怀他人。

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

23. 我愿意奉献自己所有给社会

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

24. 我认为每个人都应该关心自然环境。环境保护对于我来说非常重要

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

请阅读下列印在公益产品上的广告语，然后回答以下问题。

根据新闻报道 A 公司有可能用公益产品收入为某干旱地区钻 250 口井
B 公司希望自己的产品与公益事业收入配能够帮助到某严重旱灾地区的群体

25. 根据以上公益产品描述，您感觉心理上与各公司的意愿联系紧密程度是？

	1. 非常不接近	2	3	4. 不确定	5	6	7. 非常接近
A 公司	<input type="radio"/>						
B 公司	<input type="radio"/>						

李某是个职业妇女。她在 37 岁的时候患上了乳腺癌。在经历了乳房切除手术以后，医生发现癌细胞已经扩散到了淋巴系统。这意味着癌细胞不再能被控制，治疗将更加困难。为了治疗，李某现在不得不接受高强度的化疗。

26. 根据以上描述，你心理上感觉与“支持癌症治疗研究”这个公益事项的接近程度是？

	1. 非常不接近	2	3	4. 不确定	5	6	7. 非常接近
如果你是李某	<input type="radio"/>						
如果李某是你的阿姨	<input type="radio"/>						

请阅读下列印在公益产品上的广告语，然后回答以下问题。

我们(A 公司)将为三天前发生的强烈地震捐助一部分产品收入用于购买急救用品（紧急事件）
 我们(B 公司)将为最近的洪水后重建工作捐助一部分产品收入（近期事件）

27. 根据以上公益产品描述，您感觉心理上与各公司的意愿联系紧密程度是？

	1. 非常不接近	2	3	4. 不确定	5	6	7. 非常接近
公司 A	<input type="radio"/>						
公司 B	<input type="radio"/>						

A: 每次刷我银行的信用卡本行将立刻捐款给某慈善医疗组织的预防心脏病计划 (公司即时捐助)

B: 每一个月内，我银行将筹集款项给某慈善医疗组织的预防心脏病计划 (公司每个月捐助)

28. 根据以上公益产品描述，您感觉心理上与各公司的意愿联系紧密程度是

	1. 非常不接近	2	3	4. 不确定	5	6	7. 非常接近
公司 A	<input type="radio"/>						
公司 B	<input type="radio"/>						

请阅读下列印在公益产品上的广告语，然后回答以下问题。

A 公司将会此商品的部分销售额捐给本地的公益事项 (如：您所在城市的下岗工人再就业事项)

B 公司将会此商品的部分销售额捐给地区的公益事项 (如：您所在的省下岗工人再就业事项)

29. 根据以上描述，您心理上感觉自己与各家公司支持的公益事项联系紧密程度是？

	1. 非常不接近	2	3	4. 不确定	5	6	7. 非常接近
公司 A	<input type="radio"/>						
公司 B	<input type="radio"/>						

30. 您对以下陈述的赞同程度是？

	非常 同意	不同意	有点 不同意	不确定	有点 同意	同意	非常 同意
我大多数时候都很放松	<input type="radio"/>						
我经常感到忧郁	<input type="radio"/>						
我很容易焦虑	<input type="radio"/>						
我很容易被人影响	<input type="radio"/>						
我很容易情绪低落	<input type="radio"/>						
我常变换情绪	<input type="radio"/>						
我很容易被激怒	<input type="radio"/>						
我不常感到沮丧	<input type="radio"/>						
我不太常烦恼事情	<input type="radio"/>						
我很少被激怒	<input type="radio"/>						

请根据以下情境回答问题。

假设您现在要买一辆丰田家庭用两厢车。这辆车支持如下两个公益事项。

家庭用两厢车- 流浪儿童保护

家庭用两厢车- 虐待动物保护

31. 在此情境中，我觉得丰田两厢车捐款给流浪儿童保护比虐待动物保护更合适

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

假设您现在要买一桶 BP 机用汽油。这个商品支持如下两个公益事项。

机用汽油- 海洋污染清理与预防

机用汽油- 心脏病预防

32. 在此情境中，我觉得 BP 汽油捐款给海洋污染清理比心脏病预防更合适

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

假设您现在要买一只欧莱雅唇膏。这个商品支持如下两个公益事项。

唇膏- 乳腺癌研究

唇膏- 残疾人就业

33. 在此情境中，我觉得欧莱雅唇膏捐款给乳腺癌研究比残疾人就业更合适

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

假设您现在要买一盒雀巢饼干。这个商品支持如下两个公益事项。

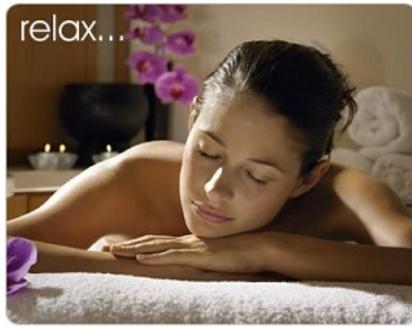
饼干- 拯救非洲饥荒人群

饼干- 拯救森林

34. 在此情境中，我觉得雀巢饼干捐款给非洲饥荒人群比拯救森林更适合

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

假设您现在想买一张养生推拿礼券，您将选择锁定在养生中心 A 和 B。A 和 B 所提供的服务非常相似，唯一不同的是养生中心 A 承诺将一部分收入捐献给慈善组织。请根据以下信息给出您对两家养生推拿中心的选择意向。



价格：53元

我们将把推拿所得的 5% 捐赠给慈善机构

养生推拿中心 A



价格：50元

养生推拿中心 B

35. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能

可能

稍许可

不确定

稍许可

可能

非常可能

购买 A

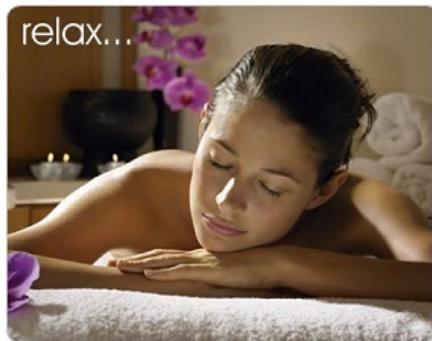
购买 A

能购买 A

能购买 B

购买 B

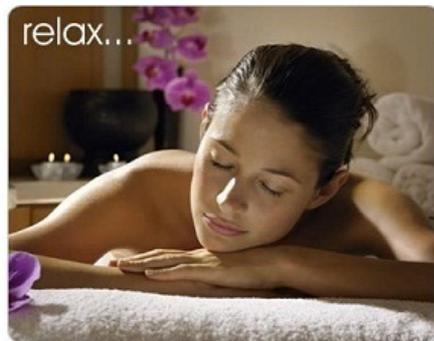
购买 B



价格：66.7元

我们将把推拿所得的25% 捐赠给慈善机构

养生推拿中心 A



价格：50元

养生推拿中心 B

36. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能

可能

稍许可

不确定

稍许可

可能

非常可能

购买 A

购买 A

能购买 A

能购买 B

购买 B

购买 B



假设您现在要订一张经典音乐会门票。音乐会官方网站上有两种选择 A 和 B。音乐会承诺 A 票将一部分收入捐献给慈善组织。A 和 B 除此之外没有任何其他区别。请根据以下信息给出您对两种选择的购买意向。



票价：105元

本音乐会会将把票价所得的**5%**捐赠给慈善机构
经典音乐会 A



票价：100元

经典音乐会 B

37. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能

可能

稍许可

不确定

稍许可

可能

非常可能

购买 A

购买 A

能购买 A

能购买 B

购买 B

购买 B



票价：133元

本音乐会会将把票价所得的**25%**捐赠给慈善机构
经典音乐会 A



票价：100元

经典音乐会 B

38. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能

可能

稍许可

不确定

稍许可

可能

非常可能

购买 A

购买 A

能购买 A

能购买 B

购买 B

购买 B



假设您现在用分期付款的方式买一部手机。有两家手机运营商 A 和 B 同时推出非常相似的购买方案（相似的还款时间长度和合同内容）。唯一不同的是 A 公司承诺将一部分收入捐献给慈善组织。请根据以下信息给出您对两款购买方案的选择意向。

手机世界最佳购买方案 18个月分期付款让您拥有最喜爱的手机

- 无限通话时间
- 无限短信
- 2G网络流量

只需每月53元

我们将把手机费用收入的 5% 捐赠给慈善机构

立刻预定

手机运营商 A

手机世界最佳购买方案 18个月分期付款让您拥有最喜爱的手机

- 无限通话时间
- 无限短信
- 2G网络流量

只需每月50元

立刻预定

手机运营商 B

39. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能 可能 稍许可 不确定 稍许可 可能 非常可能
 购买 A 购买 A 能购买 A 能购买 B 购买 B 购买 B

手机世界最佳购买方案 18个月分期付款让您拥有最喜爱的手机

- 无限通话时间
- 无限短信
- 2G网络流量

只需每月66.7元

我们将把手机费用收入的 25% 捐赠给慈善机构

立刻预定

手机运营商 A

手机世界最佳购买方案 18个月分期付款让您拥有最喜爱的手机

- 无限通话时间
- 无限短信
- 2G网络流量

只需每月50元

立刻预定

手机运营商 B

40. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能 可能 稍许可 不确定 稍许可 可能 非常可能
 购买 A 购买 A 能购买 A 能购买 B 购买 B 购买 B

假设您现在想买一瓶洗发水，您将选择锁定在洗发水 A 和 B，他们在产品性能方面非常相似，唯一不同的是洗发水 A 所属的公司承诺将一部分收入捐献给慈善组织。请根据以下印在公益产品上的信息给出您对两款洗发水的购买意向。



售价：21元

本公司将把销售收入所得的5%捐赠给慈善机构

洗发水 A



售价：20元

洗发水 B

41. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能
购买 A

可能
购买 A

稍许可
能购买 A

不确定

稍许可
能购买 B

可能
购买 B

非常可能
购买 B

Response scale for question 41 with seven radio buttons.



售价：26.7元

本公司将把销售所得的25%捐献给慈善机构

洗发水 A



售价：20元

洗发水 B

42. 在 A 和 B 中，我

非常可能
购买 A

可能
购买 A

稍许可
能购买 A

不确定

稍许可
能购买 B

可能
购买 B

非常可能
购买 B

Response scale for question 42 with seven radio buttons.

43. 我有可能通过购买公益产品来支持公益慈善事业

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

44. 一般来说，我会愿意购买公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

45. 我会考虑买承诺向慈善公益组织提供帮助跟捐款的商品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

46. 一般来说，我愿意付较高价钱买公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

47. 我愿意影响他人去购买公益产品

非常不同意	不同意	稍许不同意	不确定	稍许同意	同意	非常同意
<input type="radio"/>						

48. 您有买过公益产品吗

- 有过
- 没有

49. 以下能最准确形容您的购买频率的是

- 每月 0-5 次
- 每月 6- 10 次
- 每月 10 次以上

