

Copyright
by
Eun Yeon Kang
2016

**The Dissertation Committee for Eun Yeon Kang certifies that this is the approved
version of the following dissertation:**

**Green CSR Communication in the Service Industry:
Strategy Development for a Hotel's Informative and Persuasive Green Messages**

Committee:

Lucinda J. Atkinson, Supervisor

Susan N. Beretvas

Angeline G. Close

Minette E. Drumwright

Gary B. Wilcox

**Green CSR Communication in the Service Industry:
Strategy Development for a Hotel's Informative and Persuasive Green Messages**

by

Eun Yeon Kang, B.B.A; B.A.; M.A.

Dissertation

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of
The University of Texas at Austin
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

**The University of Texas at Austin
May 2016**

Dedication

First and foremost, I dedicate my dissertation to my family – dad (Won Kyoo Kang), mom (Se Hwa Kim), sister (Soo Yeon Kang), and dog (Rani) – who have been giving me endless love and support. Without you, I would not be able to move this far and be who I am now. This short note can never be enough to express how grateful I am for everything you have done for me. No matter what and wherever you are, you are always in my heart and thank God to let me have you as my parents and sister.

I cannot say even a word about this dissertation without extending my gratitude to my wonderful advisor, Dr. Lucinda (Lucy) Atkinson. Dr. Atkinson, I deeply and gratefully acknowledge your guidance and support for helping me develop ideas, organize them, and finally finish this dissertation. More importantly, I would like to emphasize that throughout my entire years at the University of Texas at Austin, you have been the best mentor who taught me not only how to become a good instructor and a researcher, but also how to handle challenges in life. You are the one who really encouraged me to stand strong and overcome all of the challenges I had to face during my Ph.D. years. You are a precious gift in my life as an advisor and a role model.

I would also like to sincerely express my appreciation for my committee members, Dr. Gary Wilcox, Dr. Angeline Close, Dr. Minette Drumwright, and Dr. Susan Beretvas. With your enormous and inspirational support and patience, I was able to successfully complete this dissertation and my Ph.D. program. Lastly, many thanks to my friends who made my life more delightful and valuable. Thank you for sharing, listening, and being on my side to make my academic journey not lonely.

Acknowledgements

This dissertation, as a selected proposal, was funded by the Annette Strauss Institute for Civic Life's Patricia Witherspoon Research Awards for 2015 and a University of Texas at Austin Graduate School Dissertation Writing Fellowship for Spring 2016.

**Green CSR Communication in the Service Industry:
Strategy Development for a Hotel's Informative and Persuasive Green Messages**

Eun Yeon Kang, Ph.D.

The University of Texas at Austin, 2016

Supervisor: Lucinda J. Atkinson

Due to the hotel's close reliance on the environment and local communities, sustainability has magnified in the hospitality industry. Hotels strongly consider about environmental issues and adopt pro-environmental programs as a part of their corporate social responsibility (CSR) and business models. However, despite hotels' highly active engagement in green CSR, hotels face challenges communicating their pro-environmental efforts because CSR communication may backfire by provoking condemnation from the belief that companies are mainly trying to benefit themselves via CSR practices, which are, in actuality, supposed to benefit society. Following a dearth of more in-depth research in CSR communication, this study looked into the message framing strategies that hotels could employ to effectively communicate their green CSR information to their consumers in two ways, in compliance with the two primary objectives of CSR communication – to inform and to persuade.

First, Study 1 investigated consumers' responses to a hotel's informative green CSR message. Building upon the claim objectivity and correspondent inference theory, it revealed that an explicit and specific CSR message was effective to reduce consumers' skepticism, bolster their perceived CSR motives as public-serving, and improve a hotel's brand image and reputation. Consistently, an impact-focused message, which described a

hotel's actual contributions to environment, demonstrated not only the same effects but also, increased consumers' trust towards a message. Second, for a persuasive CSR message, Study 2 mainly examined the effects of flattery presented in a hotel's green card on prompting consumers' green behavior at a hotel based on the self-enhancement theory. It indicated that flattery significantly enhanced consumers' towel reuse intentions at a hotel. Also, it mitigated their skepticism, and led them to believe in a public-serving motive. Through two studies, a role of skepticism and perceived motives was highlighted that these two constructs, as mediators, could explain the mechanism of consumer responses to a CSR message. This dissertation contributes to advance the understanding of consumer judgment of different types of pro-environmental CSR messages and further, provides empirical framing strategies for hotel practitioners to effectively communicate with their consumers for their green efforts.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	x
List of Figures	xi
Chapter 1 Introduction	1
Chapter 2 Literature Review	5
Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)	5
The Concept of CSR	5
CSR in the Hotel Industry	8
CSR Communication	11
Research in CSR Communication	11
Hotel CSR Communication	15
CSR Communication Barriers	17
Study 1 Theoretical Background	20
Perceptual Consumer Responses to CSR.....	21
Skepticism.....	21
CSR Motives.....	23
Message Credibility	25
Brand Image and Reputation	26
Informative CSR Message	29
Claim Objectivity.....	29
Message Focus	32
Mediation of Skepticism and CSR Motives.....	36
Study 2 Theoretical Background	40
Behavior Consumer Responses to CSR.....	40
Hotel Guests' Green Actions	40
Persuasive CSR Message.....	42
The Concept of Flattery	42
Flattery in a Hotel's Persuasive CSR Message.....	44
Self-enhancement Theory	45

Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs	46
Mediation of Skepticism and CSR Motives.....	48
Chapter 3 Study 1 and Study 2	51
Study 1 Method.....	51
Study Design.....	51
Stimuli Development	51
Data Collection and Participants.....	53
Procedure	56
Measurement.....	56
Results.....	59
Discussion	68
Study 2 Method.....	70
Study Design.....	70
Stimuli Development	70
Data Collection and Participants.....	72
Procedure	74
Measurement.....	74
Results.....	76
Discussion	81
Chapter 4 General Discussion.....	83
Theoretical Implications	84
Practical Implications.....	87
Future Research and Limitations	89
Chapter 5 Conclusion.....	93
References.....	95

List of Tables

Table 1: Study 1 Participants' Demographics	55
Table 2: Study 1 Scale and Measurement	61
Table 3: Study 1 Variable Descriptive Statistics and Correlations	62
Table 4: Study 1 Hypothesis Testing Results	66
Table 5: Study 2 Participants' Demographics	73
Table 6: Study 2 Scale and Measurement	77
Table 7: Study 2 Variable Descriptive Statistics and Correlations	78
Table 8: Study 2 Hypothesis Testing Results	79

List of Figures

Figure 1: A Conceptual Framework for Message Objectivity and Focus	36
Figure 2: A Conceptual Framework for the Mediating Effects of Skepticism and CSR Motives for Message Objectivity and Focus.....	39
Figure 3: A Conceptual Framework for Flattery	50
Figure 4: A Conceptual Framework for the Mediating Effects of Skepticism and CSR Motives for Flattery.....	50
Figure 5: Study 1 Stimuli	52
Figure 6: Structural Equation Model Results for Message Objectivity and Focus	67
Figure 7: Structural Equation Model Results for Mediating Effects 1	67
Figure 8: Study 2 Stimuli	71
Figure 9: Structural Equation Model Results for Flattery	80
Figure 10: Structural Equation Model Results for Mediating Effects 2	80

Chapter 1: Introduction

Corporations have placed a growing emphasis on sustainability in their businesses during the last two decades (El Dief & Font, 2010). In the hotel industry, in particular, the trend has been magnified (de Grosbois, 2012) due to its close reliance on the environment (Kirk, 1995) and local communities (Chung & Parker, 2010). They benefit greatly from the natural surroundings of their business's location, which do not actually belong to them, meaning that they earn profits by their surroundings and by utilizing natural resources to improve the service quality provided to their guests. For example, if you were planning to travel to Banff to enjoy the scenery and natural environment, the first thing you may think to do would be to make a hotel reservation. The traveler's primary intention is not to take a trip to a specific hotel in Banff, but the hotel generates business on the strength of the local, natural environment. Thus, being irresponsible with the environment would critically diminish their resources and further, may threaten their business retention (Kirk, 1995). Further, according to the online booking site, TripAdvisor (2013), 79% of travelers considered a lodging property's pro-environmental engagement a significant criterion when they made a lodging choice. In other words, hotels supporting environmental causes or adopting pro-environmental programs as part of their corporate social responsibility (CSR) is not only expected by consumers, but it can also function as a business strategy for hotels to increase their sales (Brady, 2005; Flammer, 2012; Porter & Kramer, 2006).

Over 80% of U.S. hotels are involved in a variety of green programs (Hetter, 2013), yet it is a challenge for them to communicate such CSR activities. Generally,

companies are ambivalent toward CSR communication because it may backfire by provoking condemnation from the belief that companies are mainly trying to benefit themselves via CSR practices, which are, in actuality, supposed to benefit society (Schlegelmilch & Pollach, 2005). Differently stated, hotels face challenges communicating their CSR actions while maintaining genuine credibility of their role as socially responsible members of society (Brønn & Vrioni, 2001; Duncan & Moriarty, 1998) without evoking the belief of being avaricious or deceptive (Foreh & Grier, 2003). Further, there are several reasons that CSR communication is becoming more important and intricate. First, consumers have a high interest in companies' CSR involvement. Consumers these days demand corporations to be good society-mates that contribute to and share their community, culture, and environment. They also increasingly want to be aware of what companies do in their CSR domain (Nielsen, 2013) to make sure that companies act as "good citizens" (Andreu, Casado-Diaz, & Mattila, 2015). Second, because individuals engage in different information and reasoning processes to understand corporate messages, companies should take discreet approaches in their CSR communication to prevent consumers from arriving at unintended, distorted conclusions. These various issues serve as a backdrop to inspire the investigation of CSR communication strategies so that corporations, including hotels, do not jeopardize the success of their CSR efforts.

Even as substantial research has been devoted to environmental CSR practices, especially in the hotel area (Kang, Stein, Heo, & Lee, 2012), CSR communication needs more in-depth research (Reisch, 2006). This manuscript helps broaden the understanding

of effective green CSR communication in the hotel industry in two ways, in compliance with the two primary objectives of CSR communication – to inform and to persuade (McWilliams, Siegel, & Wright, 2006). Consistent with the two primary purposes of CSR communication, hotels usually provide green CSR messages in two different ways: (1) on their website and (2) directly to guests by placing a message card in the hotel room. Generally, CSR information on a hotels' website intends to inform consumers about their efforts and a direct message card in a hotel room aims to persuade guests to participate in a hotel's green program (e.g., reusing towels).

Based on the following overarching research questions, the present study is motivated by the fact that the content and volume of information would vary across different message types.

1. What message strategies can hotels use to strategically communicate their green actions?
2. What can be a strategy to induce hotel guests to behave pro-environmentally while staying at a hotel? Can flattery promote hotel guests' green actions?

To find out the answers to these questions, this study employs an empirical approach with two experiments. For the first research question, it explores the effects of different message features – objectivity and focus – on consumers' perceptual responses with a focus on an informative CSR message. The responses are composed of two categories – CSR-oriented and marketing-oriented responses. CSR-oriented responses are comprised of consumer skepticism, perceived motives, and message credibility. Marketing-oriented responses are a hotel's brand image and reputation. The second

experiment explores a message strategy to elicit a consumers' green behavior at a hotel by looking into a well-known persuasive tactic – flattery. Even though flattery accords with consumers' psychological needs in the service business context such as a feeling of pleasure or the fulfillment of self-esteem, marketing scholars predominantly spotlighted its effects under the sales context. As the second experiment investigates how flattery works in a hotel's persuasive CSR message with respect to consumers' intentions to reuse towels while staying at a hotel, it opens a novel approach to create a CSR message and also, persuade individuals to become pro-environmental hotel users. Additionally, as major challenges in CSR communication, consumer skepticism and perceived motives are considered of relevance to flattery effects.

This manuscript is composed of five sections. Following the introduction is a literature review, which provides an overview of CSR development, CSR communication, related consumer responses to CSR messages, and theoretical concepts to develop hypotheses. The third chapter explains two experiments for Study 1 and 2 respectively to examine the proposed hypotheses. Implications inherent with findings from each study are discussed in the fourth chapter and lastly, the overall conclusions are discussed.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter reviews the development of CSR, which clarifies the importance of exploring marketing effects in relation to CSR engagement, followed by CSR communication and barriers. In addition, key constructs and theoretical concepts are reviewed, as the foundation of the hypotheses proposed in the current study, are reviewed.

COPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY (CSR)

The Concept of CSR

Initiated in the late 1930s, the modern concept of CSR that is still applied was framed in the 1950s. During the early phases of CSR practices, the demand for using CSR in business was disputed. Bowen (1953), who proposed the first definition of CSR, argued that large corporations had strong power to influence society members; thus it should be imperative for firms to be socially responsible. According to his definition, CSR is “*The obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decision, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society*” (p. 6). Researchers in the 1960s also agreed that managers should include CSR in their business plans, but addressed the importance of voluntary involvement and long-term economic benefits from practicing CSR actions. Davis (1960) mentioned both economic and social perspectives in his definition of CSR: “*businessmen’s decisions and actions taken for reasons at least partially beyond the firm’s direct economic or technical interest*” (p. 70). Specifically, he concluded that firms’ CSR efforts would be composed of two different aspects – (1) economic development and (2) human value development.

That is, a company's social responsibility would refer to not only serving an economic purpose such as maintaining market competition or providing jobs, but also benefitting individuals, such as inspiring them or helping each other to advance society as a whole. His point of view was widely acknowledged for the next several decades (Carroll, 1999) implying that scholars in later years also continued considering CSR in the managerial setting with its economic contributions by a company.

In the 1980s, the view of CSR changed to consider it as a process rather than an outcome (Carroll, 1999). CSR was seen as a process of how a company became involved in pro-social activities, not a simple action. Carroll (1983) defined four facets of CSR – economic, legal, ethical, and voluntary/philanthropic – and stated that voluntarism was the most crucial element to differentiate CSR from other social obligations that a company should follow. With these four characteristics, Carroll (1999) refined the definition of CSR: “*The CSR firm should strive to make a profit, obey the law, be ethical, and be a good corporate citizen* (p. 43).” This definition is extensively accepted and is still applied to current CSR studies.

In the 2000s, on the basis of the broader understanding of CSR, by embracing not only social benefits, but also marketing concepts, researchers expanded their studies to the global level (Frederick, 2008). This might be because of companies' dynamic business in the international market and the fact their economic and social influences are not constrained to the domestic market. Thus, they should be responsible to not only local, but also international communities. Lantos (2001) proposed three types of CSR practices that companies could conduct: ethical CSR, altruistic CSR, and strategic CSR.

Among these, he claimed that most companies have chosen strategic CSR and it is the right choice as it produces a win-win situation for both society and a company. While ethical and altruistic CSR entail moral or lawful actions and goes beyond the scope of business to sacrifice companies' resources without any direct benefits or financial returns to companies (Brenkert, 1992; Degeorge, 1990), strategic CSR can be a company's short-term investment with long-term gains, including monetary earnings (Lantos, 2001). Finally, the most recent definition of CSR proposed by Kotler and Lee (2005, p. 3) is "*CSR means a commitment to improve [societal] well-being through discretionary business practices and contributions of corporate resources.*"

The review of the development of CSR concepts explains that CSR has been taken into consideration from two contrasting angles: social versus managerial. In the earlier days, researchers mainly argued the necessity of firms' CSR practices because companies, as a powerful institution in society, were obligated to take responsibility for their influence on society. Accordingly, they tried to develop theoretical concepts to persuade firms and facilitate CSR actions. However, moving along, CSR has turned into a non-economic marketing strategy, which leads companies to voluntarily participate to satisfy their stakeholders' expectations and eventually, to affect companies' sales or branding. That is to say, now, CSR is a requirement for companies, which leads scholars to look into effective ways to implement practices to bring advantages not only to society, but also to firms. Therefore, researchers' attention has been drawn towards the marketing effects of CSR efforts, which may conflict with the ultimate goals of pro-social

work, but provides logical and adequate rationales for companies to conduct CSR activities.

CSR in the Hotel Industry

Coming from a relatively short history, hotel CSR has flourished since the late 1980s and 1990s with a focus on sustainable performances (Levy & Duverger, 2010). CSR engagement is seen as even more crucial for hotels in that hotels are primarily customer-focused and interact closely with customers (Tilt, 1997). Additionally, hotels could create stronger and more positive impacts on hotel sales through CSR activities (Tilt, 1997). With respect to marketing consequences specifically, Sheldon and Park (2011) found that a number of U.S. tourism companies used CSR as a business tactic and included CSR features in their mission statement. It enables hotels to signal that they consider CSR as a core of their business model and to be seen as an ethical and socially responsible company.

McGehee, Wattanakamolchai, Perdue, and Calvert (2009) insisted that there are three additional reasons that hotels should be involved in CSR: (1) CSR can aid to build internal employees' loyalty and retention, (2) hotels can develop good relationships with local communities, which may result in a competitive positioning in an area where they operate their business compared to other hotels that do not practice CSR efforts (Porter & Kramer, 2002), and (3) hotels' CSR implementations can lead policy makers or legislators to set the hospitality industry as a priority to consider. As decision makers are apt to have positive perceptions about the lodging industry, they are less likely to recognize severe negative impacts from the business so that concerns caused by the

industry tend to be set aside when they make policy decisions (McGehee & Meng, 2006). Thus, hotels' vigorous CSR engagement can strengthen the importance of the industry's movement and draw policy makers' attentions to enlighten them about its seriousness. From a social accountability perspective, researchers also stressed hotels' CSR. Due to the hotels' high consumption of natural and cultural resources including environmental degradation, waste of food, energy, and water (Kirk, 1995), occupation of community's spaces, and negative effects on local businesses (Chung & Parker, 2010), hotels should strive to mitigate such outcomes. Further, as consumers' awareness of both hotels' ecological footprint and their solutions, it is inevitable for hotels to endeavor to implement CSR initiatives.

Hotels become involved in various CSR practices in many different ways. The European Federation of Food and Agriculture and Tourism and Tourism Trade Unions, Hotels, Restaurants, and Cafes launched a CSR program called "An Initiative for Improving CSR in the Hospitality Sector" in order to work for compliance as to employees' working environment such as gender equality, health and safety, wages, and training systems (Holcomb, Upchurch, & Okumus, 2007). The ways to practice pro-social efforts have been in diverse formats such as donations, sponsorships, employees' volunteering opportunities, or ethical operations. Yet, as previously stated, hotels have taken major notice of environmental improvement since the environment is one of the key attributions that potential hotel guests consider when making a travel decision (Knowles, Macmillan, Palmer, Grabowski, & Hashimoto, 1999).

Started in 1992, the green movement has rapidly grown among global lodging properties by practicing Agenda 21, which was a set of global pro-environmental guidelines proposed by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), the World Tourism Organization (WTO), and the Earth Council. This trend is ongoing and has been reinforced since the beginning of the 2000s (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). Holcomb et al. (2007) categorized hotels' CSR programs into five kinds – (1) community, (2) environment, (3) vision and value, (4) marketplace, and (5) workforce – and found out that programs for sustainability were dominant in the industry. Also, members of the Travel Industry Association of America selected green behaviors as the most significant CSR practice in their business (Sheldon & Park, 2010).

As reflected in the practical field, more than 81% of hotels in the U.S. are currently running a pro-environmental program such as towel reuse or recycling and asking guests for participation while staying at a hotel (Hetter, 2013). Since 1993, the Green Hotels Association has informed consumers about what being green a hotel means, what their goals and actions are, why being green is important for hotels, and so on to help them to understand hotels' pro-environmental developments. In addition, the International Hotel and Restaurant Association formed the Global Council on CSR in 2003 to escalate hotels' socially responsible operations including eco-friendly efforts. Moreover, in 2013, TripAdvisor launched the GreenLeaders program and more than 2,000 American hotels have joined the program (TripAdvisor, 2013). The program provides information about the levels of a hotel's pro-environmental efforts and helps consumers, especially green conscious travelers, with hotel selection.

CSR COMMUNICATION

For intended positive consequences of CSR practices, hotels need to show their philanthropic endeavors to the public. Accordingly, CSR communication is an essential aspect in their CSR engagement. Scholars conclude that CSR communication is mandatory for firms in conjunction with actual CSR performance because it enables companies to handle unexpected or negative CSR-related issues (Brønn & Vrioni, 2001). However, while extensive emphasis has been given to CSR engagement, CSR communication remains under-investigated (Reisch, 2006; Ziek, 2009). As CSR communication is in the early stages of development (Wanderley, Lucian, Farache, & de Sousa Filho, 2008), more attention needs to be devoted to better understand diverse CSR communication behavior and establish empirically effective communication strategies.

Research in CSR Communication

Not only have stakeholders' expectations of corporations' pro-social efforts highlighted the importance of communicating CSR initiatives, firms' marketing intentions have also underscored the need. Researchers confirmed the positive influences of CSR communication, which were largely focused on the consumer domain, but not confined to it. Particularly, as firms utilize their resources, which are stakeholders' investment, it is a firm's duty to let them know what they do with the resources for CSR practices. Besides, although consumers seek CSR information to judge whether companies operate ethically and socially responsibly, and further expect them to continuously update their CSR information, they often have difficulty accessing enough information (Podnar, 2008) to form solid conclusions.

For marketing effects, it is impossible to anticipate outcomes if consumers are not aware of their CSR practices. Both CSR marketing and social gains may rely on how a company communicates their practices because CSR information given by a company is a primary resource that consumers use in order to assess their commitments (Calabrese, Costa, Menichini, Rosati, Sanfelice, 2013). Gao (2011) claimed that firms' voluntary CSR communication could have a great potential to yield positive impacts on the company and also, in the 21st century, a consumers' belief in an ethically and morally satisfied firm has merit in building a company's reputation and values (e.g., Crowther, 2004; Idowu & Towler, 2004). Further, Du et al. (2012) argued that consumers' low awareness and recognition of a firm's CSR efforts could hinder maximizing positive results of the practices. Since CSR communication can persuade consumers to build a socially responsible image of a firm in their mind (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001; Maignan & Ralston, 2002), it subsequently enhances consumers' perceived value of a firm, involvement and attitudes towards a company, and brand choice (e.g., Golob, Lah, & Jančič, 2008). A survey (Cone, 2007) revealed that 87% of U.S. consumers would choose a brand that supported a social cause if other factors (e.g., quality or price) were equal. This means that companies should engage in CSR initiatives as well as let people know about their work to ensure successful marketing or advertising effects. Additionally, CSR communication can benefit the public. It may facilitate the dissemination of cause-related information so that it educates individuals, including policy makers and governments, about a cause deserving of special attention. As the public's understanding of a cause increases, people come to actively support or change

their behavior for social good. Thus, disclosing CSR information is indeed vital and beneficial for firms and their relevant parties from individual consumers to society as a whole (Bronn & Vrioni, 2001; Golob & Bartlett, 2007).

The fundamental goal of CSR communication is to deliver accurate and transparent information regarding social and environmental causes in relation to their business (Podnar, 2008). From a practical standpoint, CSR communication aims to convince people to create favorable attitudes towards a company (Vanhamme & Grobben, 2009). Morsing (2006, p. 171) defined CSR communication as “*communication that is designed and distributed by the company itself about its CSR efforts.*” According to McWilliams et al. (2006), CSR communication can be classified into two purposes: (1) persuasive and (2) informative information. Persuasive CSR communication indicates that a corporation conveys their CSR information with an ultimate goal to attract consumers to choose their products over competitors’. For example, a cosmetic company that does not perform animal testing, and supports animal protection programs, while publicizing their stance to prompt consumers to purchase their products. For this reason, this approach can be considered as sales-oriented messages integrated with a certain form of CSR initiative like cause promotion or cause-related marketing campaigns (Kotler & Lee, 2005).

On the other hand, informative CSR communication signifies that a company describes their CSR practices with no other intentions than simply explaining that they attempt to operate their business in a socially responsible manner. Through this type of communication, companies can manage their reputations and images rather than financial

performance (Podnar, 2008). There are three reasons that companies engage in informative CSR communication – mandatory, voluntary, and solicited (e.g., Van der Laan, 2009; Woodward, Edwards, & Birkin, 1996). Mandatory reporting refers to a case that governments force companies to report in order to prevent misleading individuals and to activate the flow of information (Doane, 2002). As the most proactive way, voluntary reporting has been a widely utilized form since 2002 (Kolk, van der Veen, Pinkse, & Fortainer, 2005) and offers the freedom to determine the content and structure of CSR information for companies. Thus, companies seek to present information in a favorable fashion to them (Stittle, 2002). Lastly, solicited reporting occurs only when specific stakeholder groups ask for information. It tends to be in the form of conversational two-way communication.

CSR communication is carried out through a variety of media channels like television, print, or online. Online, corporate websites to be specific, have conspicuously become one of the most outstanding tools and are considered as a suitable means to convey CSR information (Morsing & Schultz, 2006). Because of the easy accessibility to the information, companies can update and revise the content based on their needs and wants, while stakeholders who want to know about a company's pro-social practices can also find information without time or place limits (Wanderley et al., 2008). Moreover, as the Internet has a strong, rapid dissemination power with a relatively low cost, information on websites can be quickly distributed to the broad public. Hence, companies may maximize the positive effects of CSR practices and communication as well as be cost effective. Internet-based CSR information disclosure also makes it easier for

companies to provide sufficient information in an efficient way by using specialized online features like search engines or electronic resource retrieval or attachments (Wanderley et al., 2008). These unique online functions remedy the shortcomings of information absence, which is a critical problem in print-based reporting (Verrecchia, 1983). Lastly, the corporate website stands for a firm and identifies their characteristics (Pollach, 2005); thus, consumers may evaluate and formulate their responses to a company based on what is exhibited on their homepage. Overall, employing a website can be useful for not only companies to expose their CSR information and attain consumers' loyalty (Ellonen, Tarkiainen, & Kuivalainen, 2010; Smith & Alexander, 2013), but also to allow consumers to acquire the desired data according to their needs.

Hotel CSR Communication

Like CSR communication research in general, hotel CSR communication has also received much less attention from CSR researchers (de Grosbois, 2012; Font, Walmsley, Cogotti, McCombes, & Häusler, 2012), with only a handful of studies exploring hotels' CSR communication practices (e.g., Bohdanowicz, 2007; Holcomb et al., 2007; Kennedy Nyahunzvi, 2013; Priego & Palacios, 2008). Holcomb et al. (2007) analyzed 10 international hotel corporations' CSR communication (e.g., Hilton, Marriott, InterContinental, Accor, etc.) using a content analysis technique and revealed that eight out of 10 hotels disclosed their charity support, such as donations, and six hotels included their diversity policy for employees and business partners. However, most hotels did not report information about sustainability and their CSR values or visions even though the pro-environmental movement has been a primary trend in the field. In one rare example,

Spanish hotels most frequently stated commitments about energy and water saving and waste reduction in their CSR reports (Priego & Palacios, 2008). The amount of green CSR information released was not significantly different based on the sizes of hotels in Spain, but on the ownership of hotels. That is, independent Spanish hotels conveyed more information than chain properties. Furthermore, de Grosbois (2012) analyzed 150 international upscale hotels' CSR communication and found that 109 hotels were using their websites, but the scope and amount of information varied. He also found that the most common topic mentioned in the information was a pro-environmental commitment, followed by employee welfare, society well-being, economic contributions, and diversity policies both at the overall corporation and individual property levels.

With content analyses, existing studies portray the current climate of CSR communication in the hotel industry. However, they are mostly confined to only a small number of samples or a certain location and demonstrated descriptive findings of the phenomena such as the content of the information or channels that hotels use. Following the fact that CSR communication is the first step for hotels to interact with consumers in their pro-social or pro-environmental work, empirical investigations examining consumers' responses to their CSR communication is especially momentous. Acknowledging how consumers react to different presentations of CSR information helps hotel practitioners take a strategic and circumspect approach to communicate their information, which may reinforce positive CSR consequences for hotels.

CSR Communication Barriers

In spite of the advantages of CSR communication, researchers argued that it could have negative impacts, especially on companies. A main concern would be skepticism towards a company's motive behind their pro-social efforts. Scholars concluded that an explicit and aggressive disclosure of CSR information would provoke skepticism because people thought that a firm's motive to engage in CSR actions was for their own benefit (Mohr, Webb, & Harris, 2001). Du, Bhattacharya, and Sen (2010) concluded that skepticism is the key challenge of CSR communication as it thwarts consumers to associate favorable inferences to a company. Foreh and Grier (2003) further asserted that consumers became skeptical of CSR information if it seemed to be manipulative or deceptive. Focusing on web-based CSR communication, message credibility becomes a considerable matter to companies. Unlike traditional media such as television, radio, or newspapers, corporations can control their websites and create information by themselves meaning that they present information in the manner of gatekeeping. Therefore, people tend to have lower trust in messages directly coming from corporations (Dawkins, 2005; Goodman, 1998). In the same vein, 78% of consumers in Brazil wanted to be aware of companies' pro-social efforts, but 45% distrusted what companies said about their activities (Wanderley et al., 2008). In light of the gap between consumers' wants and high doubt about firms' CSR information, companies need strategies to communicate their CSR activities to conceal their marketing intentions to allay consumers' skepticism and heighten message credibility. That is to say, when it comes to CSR communication,

corporations must take careful consideration of *what to say* as well as *how to say it* (Lindgreen & Swaen, 2010).

Du et al. (2010) suggested four key elements that a company could highlight in their CSR information: (1) commitment, (2) impact, (3) motive, and (4) fit. CSR commitment means what a company does for a social cause so that ways to support like donations or volunteering, history of support, or steadiness can be described (Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh, 1987). CSR impacts indicate outcomes of their CSR endeavors explaining how the target or society can benefit from their activities. CSR commitments simply describe firms' promises with their expectations while CSR impacts demonstrate a firms' certain contributions for societal improvement. Companies should be careful with these two factors to transparently demonstrate facts as consumers use them to evaluate a firm's genuine CSR motives. Webb and Mohr (1998) found that consumers were apt to associate societal benefits to a company's long-term commitment while the short-term was viewed as a strategy to increase a company's profit. Moreover, Du et al. (2010) argued that consumers would be likely to support a company's CSR activity when they realized that a CSR practice truly ameliorates society.

The third factor is CSR motive, which implies reasons that a company involves in a particular CSR practice. Although presenting a CSR motive in their CSR messages varies, companies emphasize either intrinsic or extrinsic motives. In detail, some companies promote that their efforts are only for social or environmental enhancement, whereas others make business-related claims such as that their customers' attention to a cause leads them to undertake CSR activities since they care about their customers (Du et

al., 2010; Maignan & Ralston, 2002). Yet, Ellen, Webb, and Mohr (2006) manifested that consumers often perceived both motives as they already presumed that companies gained business advantages through their CSR efforts. Surprisingly, an explicit disclosure of a company's self-serving motive in CSR communication implying that a firm also expects their own benefit from CSR practices actually increases consumers' trust towards their information and reduces skepticism (Foreh & Grier, 2003). Consistently, researchers assert that it is effective for companies to frankly mention both society-serving and self-serving motives in their CSR communication (Porter & Kramer, 2006).

The last element is CSR fit between a social cause and a company's business characteristics. Similar to CSR commitment and impact, this factor also influences consumers' understanding of a firm's CSR motives (Menon & Kahn, 2003; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006); thus, a good fit needs to be a precedent for CSR practices. On the basis of Gilbert's (1989) two-stage model of social inference thinking process, consumers first ascribe a company's CSR motives to dispositional reasons like being concerned about a cause. However, as they involve in an in-depth elaborative thinking process, they correct their beliefs by considering situational factors, which subsequently leads them to attach a firm's ulterior motives like enhancing their image or reputation. Therefore, companies should emphasize an easy and high congruence between a cause and business in their CSR communication to prevent consumers from engaging in effortful cognitive processes and retaining their perceived dispositional attributions.

In addition, Pollach (2005) claimed that there are three vital factors that allow a company to achieve high credibility of CSR information: message sources, honesty of

information, and audiences' interest in a CSR topic. He also concluded that corporations should work on shaping web-based CSR communication to be audience-oriented.

Through a content analysis, he found that corporations' webpages delivering CSR information mostly lacked interactive communication features and navigation bars to help audiences easily look for necessary information. Also, their CSR statements often overly described themselves or their actions. Overall, CSR communication researchers pointed out that companies have acknowledged the significance of CSR communication, but they need to advance their communication skills to effectively deliver their information.

Based on the review of research in CSR communication in the hotel industry, it is noted that existing studies have been largely focused on describing what information hotels included in their CSR messages. In other words, there is a lack of theoretical and empirical investigation of hotel's CSR communication effects (McGehee et al., 2009; Sheldon & Park, 2010). Considering such a paucity, the present study looks into hotels' CSR messages from the consumer side. Specifically, it examines consumers' perceptual and behavioral responses to a hotel's green CSR message to advance a pragmatic understanding of CSR communication in the hotel field. The following covers constructs examined in this research as well as theoretical concepts to develop hypotheses are discussed.

STUDY 1 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Study 1 concentrates on a hotel's informative CSR message and consumers' perceptual responses. By adapting different levels of objectivity and focus of the content, it delves into how such differences in a message affect consumers' skepticism towards a

hotel's green efforts, perceived CSR motives, message credibility, brand image, and reputation. The effects of claim objectivity and the correspondent inference theory are reviewed to propose hypotheses.

PERCEPTUAL CONSUMER RESPONSES TO CSR

Skepticism

Consumers are inclined to be skeptical and distrust a company's efforts for a social cause because it is not directly related to their profits (Drumwright, 1996). Given this, controlling consumer skepticism through effective CSR communication should receive more serious attention as skepticism may be aroused or reduced by what companies say about their endeavors (Lindgreen & Swaen, 2010). Also, skepticism pertains to people's insufficient knowledge about companies' performances; hence, companies need to actively and repeatedly communicate with consumers about their CSR activities (Singh, Kristensen, & Villaseñor, 2009).

Skepticism is derived from the Greek word "skeptomai," which means to consider, to suspect, or to think. Typically, it represents an individual's proclivity to question given information or beliefs (e.g., Boush, Friestad, & Rose, 1994; Foreh & Grier, 2003). Skepticism can be categorized into two kinds: *predispositional skepticism* and *situational skepticism* (Foreh & Grier, 2003). Predispositional skepticism refers to a personal tendency to disbelieve while situational skepticism means a person's temporary cognitive response altered by conditions. As predispositional skepticism is a personal trait, which is hard to control as a marketer or an advertiser in corporations, it is more appropriate for CSR scholars to focus on situational skepticism in order to understand

what arouses consumer skepticism and suggest guidelines that practitioners can actually adopt.

In terms of CSR development, scholars have questioned what drives companies to engage in CSR and whether they can pursue financial and marketing benefits from the practices. Because the ultimate goal of for-profit corporations is to increase monetary outcomes, it is legitimate for consumers to be suspicious about the reasons behind companies' pro-social efforts (Drumwright, 1996). Accordingly, skepticism in the context of CSR refers to a consumers' thoughts about a firm's CSR motives (Barone, Norman, & Miyazaki, 2007) and whether a company has ulterior goals of implementing CSR programs besides society improvement. As stated earlier, researchers agree that skepticism is a challenging obstacle to CSR practices (Du et al., 2010; Mohr et al., 2001). However, research about consumer skepticism in CSR is relatively limited (Skarmeas & Leonidou, 2013) while it has been typically investigated under a condition of persuasive marketing communication such as advertising (e.g., Obermiller, Spangenberg, & MacLachlan, 2005). Skarmeas and Leonidou (2013) clarified three reasons for the scarcity of consumer skepticism research in the CSR area. First, consumer skepticism tends to be deemed a common phenomenon in many different circumstances (McGrath, 2011). Second, other consumers' negative reactions to a corporation like a boycott (Klein, Smith, & John, 2004) or negative feelings such as anger (e.g., Lindenmeier Schleer, & Priel, 2012) have gained greater attention from researchers. Third, due to the occurrence of news reports of firms' irresponsible business operations, researchers are apt to focus on consumer skepticism towards business rather than CSR practices (Lange &

Washburn, 2012). However, by understanding that consumers may naturally have doubt of a firm's authentic reason for CSR engagement, consumer skepticism can be seen as the foundation of consumer responses regarding CSR practices. Therefore, this study spotlights consumer skepticism towards a hotel's green initiatives generated by its green CSR messages.

CSR Motives

Previous studies noted that skepticism in the CSR context stemmed from the understanding of a firm's CSR motives, which can be either public-serving or self-serving (Becker-Olsen, Cudmore, & Hill, 2006; Foreh & Grier, 2003; Sjøvall & Talk, 2004). If consumers regard a firm's CSR motive as public-serving, they posit that their efforts are solely to serve society. On the other hand, if they think of it as self-serving, a firm is considered to be selfish, concerned only with trying to attain its own benefits like increasing awareness or forming a favorable image. In a later study, Ellen et al. (2006) categorized these motives into four dimensions: value-driven, stakeholder-driven, egoistic-driven, and strategic-driven. Egoistic-driven and strategic-driven motives correspond to a firm's CSR intention to benefit itself and so stand as a self-serving motive. Conversely, value-driven motives represent a firm's pure socially-oriented intention, while stakeholder-driven motives imply a company's CSR efforts to meet various stakeholders' expectations. Thus, these latter two can be thought similarly as public-serving motives. However, stakeholder-driven attribution is somewhat debatable to view as self-serving in that it is considered an obligational action rather than a voluntary one (Ellen et al., 2006). Similarly, Vlachos, Tsamakos, Vrechopoulos, &

Avramidis (2009) insisted that only a value-driven attribution was indeed a public-serving motive and positively affected consumers' trust, intention to support, and future recommendations, whereas stakeholder-driven, egoistic-driven, and strategic-driven attributions brought negative impacts.

Along with the fact that consumers spontaneously look for attributions of companies' activities and their perceived attributions direct them to modify their beliefs about a brand (Folkes & Kotsos, 1986; Folkes, 1988), CSR researchers demonstrate that understanding a firm's CSR motives influence consumers' responses associated with its marketing outputs. A public-serving motive can lead consumers to become proactive supporters. It indicates that an altruistic motive can foster the success of a firm's CSR program and also, secure a consumers' purchase decision, repeat purchases, word-of-mouth effects, and a bond between consumers and a company (e.g., Ellen et al., 2006; Vlachos et al., 2009; Walker, Heere, Parent, & Drane, 2010). With the four types of motives, Ellen et al. (2006) also found that a value-driven motive, which was the solely genuine altruistic attribution, contributed to consumers' purchase intention, whereas the other three attributions showed negative impacts on it.

These perceived attributions are generally shaped by a corporations' activity-related information, which goes beyond their product/brand traits (Aaker, 1996; Klein & Dawar, 2004). Additionally, they mostly represent consumers' own evaluations, implying an evaluation based not on facts, but rather on the accessible information provided (Weiner, 1980). This means that consumers may construct CSR motives in response to CSR information offered by a company and therefore, it is important to understand

strategies more in-depth to make a CSR message to insinuate a firm's public-serving motive rather than a self-serving motive.

Message Credibility

Given that skepticism basically stems from disbeliefs, CSR communication researchers underscored the importance of consumers' perceived message credibility (Du et al., 2010; Morsing, 2003). Message credibility is concerned with what to include in a message, and the information should be precise, veracious, sufficient, and relevant to a message source to engender receivers' trust towards a message (e.g., Flanagin & Metzger, 2007). With regard to CSR communication, Wanderley et al. (2008) asserted that content should be informative, rational, and also provide contact details for consumers who want additional information. Likewise, Berens and van Rekom (2008) emphasized that language ought to be objective rather than emotional to obtain high credibility. Thus, they suggested depicting details about a company's CSR practices, such as specific projects that they are involved in and resultant outcomes.

As a prominent antecedent, credibility towards a firm's message appears to have significant influences on consumers' judgments of a company. For example, Fombrun (1996) found higher credibility helped a company to establish a favorable reputation and furthermore, consumers showed more positive attitudes towards both a message and a brand when a message was perceived as authentic. Moreover, it has a significant impact on a consumers' behavioral response. Eberle, Berens, and Li (2013) suggested that the higher the message credibility, the higher were consumers' word-of-mouth intentions. Specifically, if consumers believe that information from a firm is credible, they become

an active and favorable communication channel for a corporation. This can be due to the fact that credibility may drive a persuasion process into a peripheral route, which does not lead a person to decode information deliberately, resulting in taking at face value what a message says (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989). As such, consumers' high credibility towards a message can be regarded as the initial step for companies to accomplish efficient and effective communication with their consumers. However, in consideration of a tendency that consumers are less likely to believe information online (Flanagin & Metzger, 2000; Heidinger, 2012) while corporations, including hotels, increasingly use websites as their CSR information platform (Wanderly et al., 2008), obtaining high message credibility has become difficult for companies. Hence, it is worthwhile to investigate strategies to enhance online message credibility.

Brand Image and Reputation

As corporations expect a certain extent of marketing effects from CSR implementations, empirical studies have indicated positive relationships between CSR implementations and consumer responses. Among various benefits, researchers stressed brand image and reputation as core competitive advantages achieved by CSR engagement (Berrone, Surroca, & Tribó, 2007; Vilanova, Lozano, & Arenas, 2009; Weber, 2008). Even though these constructs are intangible, they are an irreplaceable resource for corporations (e.g., Hillman & Keim, 2001; Lantos, 2001; Schnietz & Epstein, 2005) in that they are substantially related to corporations' financial outcomes (Melo & Galan, 2011; Russo & Fouts, 1997).

Gray and Balmer (1998, p. 696) defined a corporation's brand image as "*the mental picture of the company held by its audiences*" and would be established by corporate communication. A socially responsible image forms the foundation of legitimacy theory (Gray, Owen, & Adams, 1996), which supposes that corporations can be assured of their existence by society only if they stay in the boundaries of social values and norms. In other words, corporations must adhere to societal obligations. Accordingly, a corporation with a socially conscious image can likely be approved by society and readily convince stakeholders who are chiefly interested in monetary profits to admit that CSR practices are legitimate tasks for corporations (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006). Notably, to firms that have greater visibility, a less pro-social image, or whose operations have stronger impacts on the environment, CSR communication is found to be exceptionally momentous at refining their image (Adams, Hill, & Roberts, 1998; Campbell, Craven, & Shrives, 2003; Clarke & Gibson-Sweet, 1999).

In a similar context, scholars argued that the dissemination of information forms reputation (Herbig & Milewicz, 1997). However, there is no definitive agreement on what aspects of consumer reactions mainly form a company's reputation and therefore, several definitions of reputation exist. Hall (1992) described reputation as an individuals' judgment derived by both their objective understanding and emotions towards a company. More recently, researchers have diverged cognitive and emotional aspects: Fombrun's (1996) definition says that it is a comprehensive assessment of a corporation that relevant stakeholders make in respect to their *affective* judgment, while Gray and Balmer (1998) claimed that reputation is affiliated with companies' characteristics

excluding affective aspects. However, following Dozier's (1993) conclusion that reputation comes from not only consumers' actual experiences with a brand/company, but also corporate communication, Hall's idea (1992), which entails a broader viewpoint, can be considered as more pertinent.

There are a variety of influential factors that improve reputations, such as corporate financial assets including profits, stock value, public visibility, or market share (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990). Further, recent studies focused on factors regarding customer and society interactions like consumer satisfaction (Bontis, Booker, & Serenko, 2007), customer and corporate identification (Lichtenstein, Drumwright, & Braig, 2004), as well as pro-social campaign practices (Gardberg & Fombrun, 2006) to secure a positive company reputation. Fombrun and Shanley (1990) inferred that a reputation would be constructed in response to a company's position in the market. Also, consumers use a corporate value as the basis of their perceptions about a corporate reputation (Weber, 2008), which implies that companies can add socially responsible values by means of CSR initiatives and therefore, may control their reputation to be favorable. Empirically, researchers verified that a positive reputation could enhance consumers' reactions including loyalty, attachment, willingness to pay a premium, and purchase decisions, which eventually provided gains to a company (e.g., Fombrun & van Riel, 1997; Goldberg & Hartwick, 1990; Klein & Leffler, 1981; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 1999; Milgrom & Roberts, 1986).

Taken together, CSR activities and communication are the components of corporations' reputation and image building. Taking into consideration that consumers,

these days, have a high expectation for firms to take social responsibilities, communicating their pro-social and pro-environmental information can be even more important and should be effectively delivered with a view of ensuring a favorable reputation and image.

INFORMATIVE CSR MESSAGE

For the five constructs discussed above, as perceptual consumer responses, two features of an informative CSR message – objectivity and focus – are analyzed. Based on two theoretical frameworks – claim objectivity and correspondent inference theory (Jones & Davis, 1965), corresponding hypotheses are developed.

Claim Objectivity

Claim objectivity is a challenge in CSR communication (Kim & Lee, 2009). It means the verifiability of information (Darley & Smith, 1993) so that objective messages usually offer explicit and concrete cues such as fact-based data, numbers, or unique characteristics, which make messages easy and clear to understand to message receivers. On the contrary, subjective messages use ambiguous terms. For instance, donation size can be either objective or subjective: an objective message would be “X% of every product sale will be donated to UNICEF” while a subjective message indicates that a company will donate a “great” amount of profits to UNICEF (Pracejus, Olsen, & Brown, 2003). Consumers are able to calculate how much will go to the charity each time they make a purchase with an objective claim, but they have a different understanding of a subjective message on the basis of how they construe a general term (here, “great”). They need to put in more cognitive effort to interpret the exact meaning (Edell & Staelin, 1983)

and are likely to be unsure about their interpretations, which in turn leads to lower message credibility (Holbrook, 1978) and higher skepticism towards a message (Ford, Smith, & Swasy, 1990; Kim & Lee, 2009). In this sense, consumers are more favorable to objective messages (Nelson, 1974). When it comes to pro-environmental claims, subjective green claims are statements using vague wording like “environmentally-friendly,” “improve the environment,” or “less waste,” etc. without any follow-up detailed descriptions (Alniacik & Yilmaz, 2012). An example of a specific green message would be “We used water-efficient showers in 300 rooms to reduce water waste up to 45% last year, which was an increase by 10% over the previous year.” Such an accurate green message helps consumers to recognize that a hotel is indeed making progress to become pro-environmental.

In addition, Carlson, Grove, and Kangun (1993) developed four specific categories of green messages: (1) product orientation, (2) process orientation, (3) image orientation, and (4) environmental fact. A product-oriented message represents green attributes of a product (e.g., “This product is biodegradable.”) and a process-oriented message explains that a company practices pro-environmental actions in the manufacturing process (e.g., “20% of the raw materials used in producing this are recycled.”). An image-oriented green claim describes that a company supports a pro-environmental movement (e.g., “We are committed to preserving our forests”) and lastly, environmental facts simply indicate the environmental conditions without mentioning any corporations’ green engagement (e.g., “The world's rain forests are being destroyed at the rate of two acres per second”). An image-oriented claim was perceived as the

vaguest, whereas an inclusion of environmental facts in the advertisement was more likely for consumers to connect a company to pro-environmentalism and positively influenced consumers' perception of a firm's pro-environmental image (Carlson et al., 1993). Later, Chan and Lau (2004) further argued that product and process-oriented claims are "*substantive*" messages as they offer accurate and certain activities that a corporation implements to improve the environment while the third and fourth types of messages are "*associative*" as they can make a company give a pro-environmental impression in spite of having an indirect or no relation to their concrete green efforts.

Applying these categories of messages to the hotel business context, product-oriented green claims would be the descriptions of green features related to hotel properties (e.g., LEED building, energy-efficient light bulbs, water-saving faucets and showers, etc.) since they are tangible attributes that hotel guests consume. By considering a hotel's product as a service, process-orientation may indicate a process to provide service to hotel guests; hence, green messages in this category would be service-related green programs (e.g., towel and linen reuse, local food consumption, managing room temperature, etc.). Such programs are related to a process of service offering and evaluation. The last two types of claims would be the same for hotels as they express a company's general stance on the environment or factual environmental situations.

According to the findings from Carlson et al. (1993) and Chan and Lau (2004), product and process orientations for hotels' green CSR claims can be considered as objective messages as they precisely state what a hotel contributes to protect the environment while an image-oriented message can be subjective information.

Consequently, two categories of hotels' green CSR claims – objective versus subjective – are examined in the current study. Consistent with claim objective effects (Darley & Smith, 1993; Holbrook, 1978) and previous findings indicating positive effects of objective messages (e.g., Kim & Lee, 2009), the following hypotheses are presented:

- H₁:** Compared to consumers who receive a subjective message, those who receive a hotel's green CSR message describing objective green performances will
- H_{1-a}:** be less skeptical towards green CSR engagement.
 - H_{1-b}:** tend to perceive a hotel's CSR motives as public-serving.
 - H_{1-c}:** build higher credibility towards a message.

- H₂:** Compared to consumers who receive a subjective message, those who receive a hotel's green CSR message describing objective green performances will
- H_{2-a}:** build a more positive image of a hotel.
 - H_{2-b}:** believe that a hotel has a more favorable reputation.

Message Focus

Two factors in CSR messages are commitments and impacts. As discussed previously, commitments demonstrate a company's activities to support a cause, such as donations or volunteering and impacts imply the performance of a firm's CSR practice like "saved 1,000 infants' lives from tetanus in developing countries" or "reduced energy use by up to 40% by 2013" (Du et al., 2010). Although Du et al. (2010) asserted that either of these approaches would be effective to deliver a firm's CSR information, other scholars underlined the positive effects of social impact-focused CSR messages.

Explaining how a company's effort can bring societal improvement and actually help people in need may alleviate consumer skepticism and encourage their positive association between CSR practices and a corporation (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006). As

consumer skepticism is an underlying cognitive mechanism to formulate their subsequent reactions (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Ellen et al., 2000) and consumers have a natural tendency to believe that companies' every action is primarily self-benefiting (Speed & Thompson, 2000; Webb & Mohr, 1998), an emphasis of actual positive influences of their CSR initiatives on society would be a smart choice for CSR communication.

In terms of hotels' green CSR communication, de Grosbois (2012) revealed that almost every hotel reported their pro-environmental commitments, but a majority of them omitted performance-related information, especially at the individual property level. Even if commitments signify that a hotel attempts to be pro-environmental and what they expect to achieve, they are not adequate to provide indications of whether their work is indeed beneficial to the environment. This may lead consumers to be confused with their intentions to communicate their pro-environmental practices and also, elicit an elaborative cognitive process to interpret their messages. In contrast, accounting for performances of their efforts in CSR messages is relatively apparent to demonstrate that their green endeavor has truly contributed to environmental protection. This is to say that evident factual information about environmental benefits caused by hotels' green efforts may strengthen a hotel's public-serving goal of CSR, which further results in positive consumers' subsequent responses to a corporation.

The correspondent inference theory (Jones & Davis, 1965) supports such a notion. Stemming from Heider's attribution theory (1958), Jones and Davis extended people's reasoning process to evaluate others' behavior. The theory presumes that people infer a target's motive to act in a certain way by simply observing his/her behavior. In other

words, they interpret his/her action at face value and use the interpretation as information to conclude a reason that he/she behaves. Thus, people construe others' intentions to act from what has been shown. Such correspondent inference is relatively spontaneous and occurs at the initial phase of an appraisal process (Winter & Uleman 1984; Winter, Uleman, & Cunniff, 1985). Jones and Davis (1965) contended three major cues that people would rely on to make an inference: (1) if a target had freedom to choose an action, (2) if the behavior complies with social standards, and (3) if the behavior has particular impacts on others. For example, people see a person volunteering at a charity and know that it is his/her intended decision, they are likely to attribute his/her motivation to his/her personal disposition, like generosity. Such proclivity is also called 'correspondent bias' since people disregard possible situational factors that might drive them to take a particular behavior (Jones & Harris, 1967). Later, Gilbert, Pelham, and Krull (1988) extended the theory by adding a correction stage to the people's inference process. After making a correspondent inference, if people come to question the ulterior motives of his/her action, they engage in a deliberative thinking process and revise their conclusion, which was promptly made based upon the face value of given information (Fein, Hilton, & Miller, 1990). Accordingly, a correction phase is not automatic and requires greater cognitive efforts and resources (Fein, 1996; Gilbert et al., 1988).

Applying the notion of correspondent inference theory, it is assumed that consumers automatically come to make and retain an inference about a hotel's CSR motives solely based on the face value of what is communicated in a hotel's message. In particular, when they have an impact-focused message compared to a commitment-

focused message, they will be more likely to attribute a hotel's motive of engaging in pro-environmental efforts to environmental protection because an impact-focused message overtly communicates a hotel's green behaviors with valid evidence and outcomes. That is, it will not only inform people that a hotel puts forth efforts to improve the environment, but also helps them easily and quickly process a causal reasoning with obvious rationale that a hotel indeed works for social good. On this account, they will be less suspicious about a hotel's inside motives of green practices, which may consequently uphold their initial inference – a hotels' efforts are mainly to support environmental protection.

H₃: Compared to consumers who receive a commitment-focused message, those who receive an environmental impact-focused message will

H_{3-a}: be less skeptical towards green CSR engagement.

H_{3-b}: tend to perceive a hotel's CSR motives as public-serving.

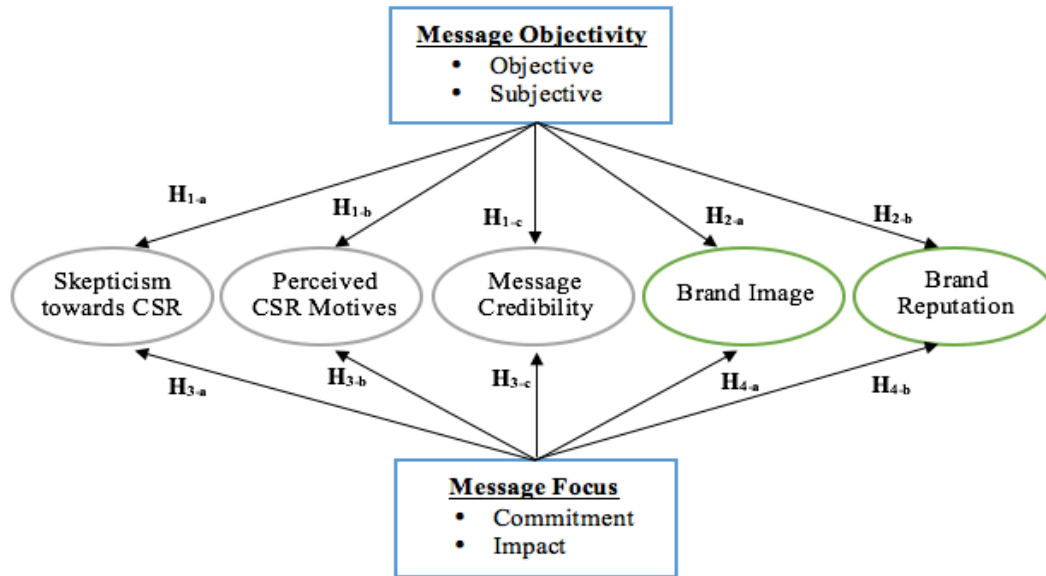
H_{3-c}: build higher credibility towards a message.

H₄: Compared to consumers who receive a commitment-focused message, those who receive an environmental impact-focused message will

H_{4-a}: build a more positive image of a hotel.

H_{4-b}: believe that a hotel has a more favorable reputation.

Figure 1: A Conceptual Framework for Message Objectivity and Focus



MEDIATION OF SKEPTICISM AND CSR MOTIVES

In addition to the effects of different CSR message framing on consumer responses, this study also contributes to explain how such effects are generated. Because consumers put more weight on the reasons that a company supports a cause against what CSR actions it implements (Ellen et al., 2006), they may shape their attitudes towards a company not based on their CSR engagement itself, but the understanding of their motivation to endorse a social cause (Walker et al., 2010). In this sense, this study delves into the role of skepticism and perceived CSR motives in depth. Particularly, mediating effects of the two factors are examined to comprehend how consumers come to arrive at their final judgments about a hotel's green CSR practices.

Consumers fundamentally tend to be skeptical about firms' pro-social involvement because of a disconnection between CSR practices and monetary benefits (Drumwright, 1996) and therefore, they take a defensive mechanism to understand firms' CSR efforts. Differently stated, consumers naturally have doubts about the reasons and effects of CSR initiatives rather than simply viewing firms as socially responsible members of society who truly care about overall social development. Accordingly, CSR skepticism and perceived motives can be considered as the underlying stance in consumers' mind, which may occur prior to and affect their subsequent evaluations about firms and their CSR practices.

Previous studies showed that skepticism has significantly influenced consumer responses such as perceived brand value, intentions to share positive company/brand information with others (word-of-mouth), product purchase intentions, or attachment to a brand (e.g., Elving, 2010; Mohr et al., 2001; Skarmeas & Leonidou, 2013). Specifically, if consumers become suspicious about whether firms' efforts can indeed benefit society, they build unfavorable attitudes towards a company, and undermine brand value as well as their associations to a firm. Besides, their product purchase intentions can be diminished. While the direct effects of skepticism have been widely examined, findings of its mediating role are limited (Skarmeas & Leonidou, 2013) and inconclusive. Few studies demonstrated that skepticism significantly mediated the effects of a fit between a company and their CSR practices on consumers' attitudes towards a firm and purchase intentions (Elving, 2010). However, Skarmeas and Leonidou (2013) found no mediating effects of skepticism in a relationship between perceived CSR motives and consumers'

company evaluations. With such inconsistent arguments from past research, this study further intends to analyze the skepticism mediation role.

Linked with developed hypotheses in relation to the effects of message objectivity and focus in a hotel's informative green CSR message, mediating effects of skepticism are assumed. In detail, it is anticipated that each hotel's objective and impact-focused CSR messages will lead to less skepticism in consumers' minds, which will eventually generate a favorable brand image and reputation.

H₅: Skepticism towards a hotel's green CSR engagement will mediate the relationships between

H_{5-a}: message objectivity and brand image.

H_{5-b}: message objectivity and brand reputation.

H₆: Skepticism towards a hotel's green CSR engagement will mediate the relationships between

H_{6-a}: message focus and brand image.

H_{6-b}: message focus and brand reputation.

Researchers also demonstrated a mediating role of perceived CSR attributions (Groza, Pronschinske, & Walker, 2011; Rifon, Choi, Trimble, & Li, 2004). Groza et al. (2006) showed that for a corporation's CSR practices, consumers built their attitudes towards a company and purchase intentions through their perceived CSR motives. Further, in Rifon et al.'s (2004) study, consumers' perceived CSR motives mediated an association of a fit between a firm and a sponsoring social event with their trust towards a company. That is, higher congruence led to a perception of a public-serving motive, which resulted in stronger credibility towards a corporation. In addition, Yoon, Gürhan-Canli, & Schwarz (2006) revealed that perceived CSR motives significantly mediated the

message source effects on consumers' company assessment. The third unbiased CSR information source drove consumers to see a firm's CSR motives as virtuous, which further reinforced consumers' favorable company evaluations.

In light of the findings of significant relationships between consumers' beliefs in firms' CSR motives and their marketing-oriented responses (Ellen et al., 2006; Gilbert & Malone, 1995), and the effects of message characteristics on perceived CSR motives (Groza et al., 2011; Klein & Dawar, 2004), as well as consumer responses like brand attitudes, beliefs, and purchase intention (Darley & Smith, 1993), this study predicts the mediating effects of consumers' perceived CSR motives.

H₇: Perceived CSR motives will mediate the relationships between

H_{7-a}: message objectivity and brand image.

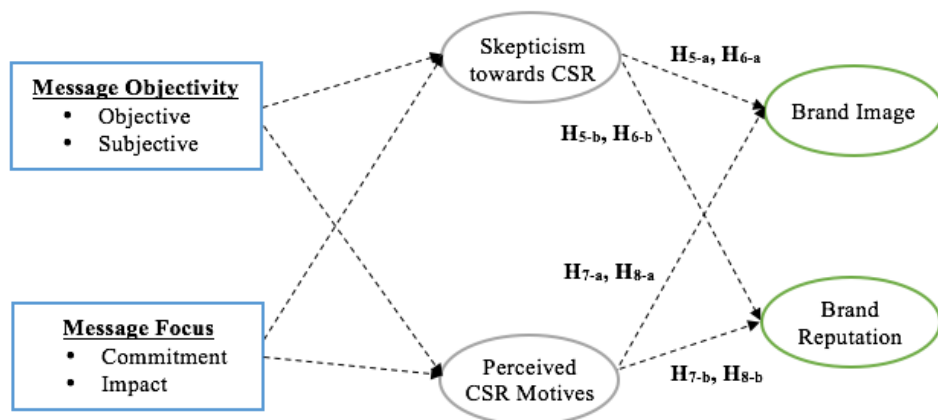
H_{7-b}: message objectivity and brand reputation.

H₈: Perceived CSR motives will mediate the relationships between

H_{8-a}: message focus and brand image.

H_{8-b}: message focus and brand reputation.

Figure 2: A Conceptual Framework for the Mediating Effects of Skepticism and CSR Motives for Message Objectivity and Focus



STUDY 2 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This study also investigates a hotel's persuasive green CRS message on a consumers' behavioral response. Employing flattery in a message as a persuasive tactic, hotel guests' intentions to participate in a towel reuse program is examined. Additionally, two key challenges in CSR communication – skepticism and perceived CSR motives – are analyzed. To develop hypotheses about the flattery effects, self-enhancement theory is reviewed.

BEHAVIORAL CONSUMER RESPONSES TO CSR

Hotel Guests' Green Actions

Despite the significance of consumers' perceptual responses to facilitate positive outcomes of CSR activities, their behavioral support further takes a vital role in a hotel's successful green program implementation. Since hotel guests are the subjects who actually consume the natural resources, such as water or energy, hotels should persuade them to behave pro-environmentally while staying at a hotel. In that sense, the hotels' green CSR practices share the same characteristics as social marketing, of which the genuine aim is to change individuals' behavior for the social good (Kotler & Zaltman, 1971). Hotels ask their guests to become involved in their green programs by acting pro-environmentally while staying at a hotel. For instance, generally, for water waste reduction, hotels need their guests' voluntary involvement in reusing their towels and linens. Without guests' cooperation and sacrificing their comfort, it can be hard for hotels to maximize the success of their water saving programs.

However, there is a “green gap,” which indicates a discrepancy between people’s green attitude and behavior in the hospitality and tourism context (Miao & Wei, 2013). Even if approximately 80% of American travelers indicated that they cared about environmental protection, only 9% were determined to pay a premium to purchase a sustainable tourism product (U.S. Travel Association, 2009). Also, people expressed a lower willingness to choose green tourism products compared to green household items (Galarraga & Markandya, 2004). In regards to a hotel setting, hotels experience difficulties to promote guests’ green behavior because behavior is modified by situations (Roeser & Galloway, 2002). Green behavior, to be specific, is also situated across the circumstances that people are in (Gatersleben, Steg, & Vlek, 2002). While consumers are likely to adopt green actions in a private or household setting (Muller & Sonnenmoser, 1998), they become passive when they are in hotel settings (Bader, 2005). Likewise, there is evidence that people struggle to behave pro-environmentally at a hotel. The feeling of social obligations that people usually have in their household setting is absent or discontinued (Dann & Cohen, 1991) and also, people are apt to behave more liberally while traveling (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). Furthermore, Miao and Wei (2013) concluded that individuals were less motivated to restrain their behavior in a pro-environmental manner at a hotel where they paid for personal comfort, convenience, or luxury. At the same time, hotel management cannot force their guests to comply with their green initiatives because such a decision can ruin a hotel’s service quality.

In light of the significant contextual impacts and people’s tendency not to behave pro-environmentally in a hotel setting, hotels should provide an external cue to spur their

guests on to voluntarily and actively participate in their green programs. Therefore, they should create a strong and compelling green CSR message to persuade their guests.

In the current study, a hotel's green program is operationalized as engendering guest behavioral support by agreeing to reuse towels. This practice is the most pervasive green action in the industry, but guests' participation rate remains at about 50% (Martin, 2014). Since laundry is a major water consumption source (United States Environmental Protection Agency, 2012), hotels should pay attention to efforts to increase guests' practice of reusing towels to conserve their water use.

PERSUASIVE CSR MESSAGE

The Concept of Flattery

Flattery stands for “communicating positive things about another person without regard to that person's true qualities or abilities” (Fogg & Nass, 1997, p. 551). Also, Gordon (1996) and Vonk (1998) signified that flattery is a compliment that a person offers to a target to fulfill his/her wants. Because of such characteristics, flattery is a highly popular persuasion technique (Chan & Sengupta, 2010). Particularly, it is mostly applied to the sales setting and its positive effects on consumers' decisions have been widely confirmed in previous studies (e.g., Fogg & Nass, 1997; Higgins & Judge, 2004; Vonk, 2002). By examining the target versus observer perspective, researchers found that positive flattery results appeared only when a receiver was a direct target of flattery (e.g., Jones, 1990; Vonk, 2002). Vonk (2002) stated that people would uncritically consider an ingratiation's compliment when they were a target and strengthen their self-esteem by

believing in their flattery whereas an observer tended to critically evaluate an ingratiation's comments and actions.

On the other hand, researchers also argued that effects of flattery depend on situations. When targets realize a communicator's ulterior motive to praise them, such as complimenting consumers before a purchase, flattery effects are diminished (Campbell & Kirmani, 2000; Gilbert, Pelham, & Krull, 1988). Differently stated, sincerity of a communicator's flattery has significant impacts on receivers' decisions; thus, if receivers are suspicious about the reasons that a giver praises them, they come to distrust the comments and respond unfavorably. Chan and Sengupta (2010) concluded that doubts on flattery motives triggered their existing persuasion knowledge (Friestad & Wright, 1994) and previous experiences with marketing tactics, which resulted in ascribing the compliments to a manipulative attempt. Further, Main, Dahl, & Darke (2007) pointed out the context effect in that because consumers are originally inclined to be highly skeptical in the sales setting, suspicion of flattery motives is provoked and its effects are less positive.

While lowered effectiveness of flattery was confirmed largely under the relationship between sales agents and consumers that an agent had a hidden intention to increase sales, Chan and Sengupta (2010) corroborated positive flattery effects even with insincere flattery. They found that consumers maintained their initial favorable response to a flattery giver (a brand) even after unfavorable judgments were made by recognizing their ulterior motive of flattery (a brand's marketing goal); that is, consumers' favorable reactions aroused by flattery were hardly removed. In line with other scholars, they also

verified the initial positive attitudes formed by flattery increased consumers' product purchase intention.

Flattery in a Hotel's Persuasive CSR Message

While flattery is a principal topic for persuasion in the sales context (e.g., Vonk, 2002), its effects have not been identified in the context of a hotel's persuasive green message. However, there are two main reasons to closely investigate. First, flattery is associated with self-esteem (Colman & Olver, 1978), which is one of three fundamental customer needs in the service business (Schneider & Bowen, 1999). Since scholars have suggested that it could elevate self-esteem because of a human being's basic desire for self-enhancement (Gordon, 1996; Vonk, 2002), it may gratify a hotel guests' needs, which may further have a significant persuasive power. Besides, Sen, and Bhattacharya (2001) found a positive relationship between hotel guests' self-esteem and green behaviors. Thus, fulfilling their self-esteem by providing flattery may induce their pro-environmental actions while staying at a hotel. Second, flattery enhances positive feelings (Stengel, 2002), which are essential factors in a service business setting (Oliver, 1993; Liljander & Strandvik, 1997) where consumers' hedonic mindset tends to be stronger (Miao & Wei, 2013). In addition, as self-esteem may boost consumer delight in the context of service consumption (Schneider & Bowen, 1999; Torres & Kline, 2013), flattery, which facilitates self-esteem (e.g., Vonk, 2002), can also evoke pleasant feelings. Following the fact that feelings can be a motivation of consumer behavior as well as an important cue underlying their information and decision-making process (Bloemer & Ruyter, 1999), positive feelings aroused by flattery in a hotel's green CSR message can

draw guests to have a favorable judgment, which in turn to successfully persuades them to behave pro-environmentally.

Self-Enhancement Theory

The predominantly applied underlying rationale behind flattery's successful work is an individuals' natural tendency to attach to positive things about themselves, which is the principal premise of self-enhancement theory (Colman & Olver, 1978; Gordon, 1996; Vonk, 2002). Grounded in personality theory (Rogers, 1959), self-enhancement theory explains that individuals are naturally motivated to gratify their desire to advance oneself and self-worth (e.g., Epstein, 1973). Therefore, people want their good things to be magnified so that they are willing to accept the praise and their reactions derived by flattery become favorable (Jones, 1990). A number of empirical studies found motives and effects of self-enhancement. For instance, people are inclined to maintain or augment self-enhancement to match their public image to their ideal image, which refers to self-presentation (Baumeister, 1982), to anticipate a future success with greater potentiality (Taylor & Brown, 1988), to take a better position in a social comparison with others (Taylor & Lobel, 1989; Tesser, 1988), and to reinforce their self-esteem (Higgins, 1987). Besides, a self-concept is usually constructed by others, meaning that self-enhancement chiefly relies on what others say or how they behave to someone (Grubb & Grathwohl, 1967).

Another aspect of self-enhancement theory is that self-enhancement needs may depend on a target's existing degree of self-esteem (Jones, 1973). Based on whether a target has high or low self-esteem, their desire to strengthen it may vary, which

consequently draws different responses to positive feedback about themselves. According to Colman and Olver (1978), people with low self-esteem were less likely to be motivated to embrace flattery and express liking to a communicator, while the opposite was found for those with high self-esteem. However, other researchers disputed their findings. For example, Baumgardner and Arkin (1987) argued that people who felt deficiency of self-esteem showed a stronger desire and took many different means to contend with it. One of the typical routes for them to do so is accepting compliments and disregarding negative feedback. For this reason, individuals with low self-esteem have a higher possibility to draw positive conclusions about a flattery provider (e.g., Baumgardner, Kaufman, & Levy 1989). When compliments take place in public, their positive effects on low self-esteem people can be augmented if they are convinced that the praise is believable. As a result, they come to behave in a way that enables them to enhance self-value and become likable. On the other hand, people with high self-esteem are less associated with such enhancement since they have already established and maintained a certain level of self-esteem that they are satisfied with (Baumgardner et al., 1989). Therefore, when high self-esteem people receive flattery, they tend to resist being affected, unlike to those with low self-esteem.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

The notion of self-enhancement can be supported by Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1954). Every individual has the natural desire to retain or promote their self-esteem; thus, one is more liberally accepting of compliments about one's self. Franks and Marolla (1976) categorized two kinds of self-esteem: inner-directed and outer-directed. Inner-

directed self-esteem comes from someone's regard for themselves, including feelings or perceptions of own competence or ability. On the other hand, outer-directed self-esteem fits to the flattery context meaning that it is generated by others' praises "*in the form of social approval, attention, recognition, respect, prestige, and status*" (Chung-Herrera, 2007). While people try to satisfy both self-esteem needs, it seems that they may control the inner-directed need, but not the outer-directed one. Outer-directed self-esteem necessitates interactions with others, meaning that it can be achieved only through the exchange of opinions with others.

Based on the integration of fundamental ideas of self-enhancement theory and positive effects of flattery examined in the sales context, it is presumed that people will inherently be favorable to flattery. Subsequently, flattery will bring positive impacts on consumers' judgments for a hotels' green CSR messages as well.

H₉: Consumers who receive a hotel's green CSR message with flattery will have a higher intention to reuse towels while staying at a hotel.

Further, following the positive effects of flattery on the consumer judgment of a flatterer, like a salesclerk, (e.g., Vonk, 1998, 2002) even after realizing his/her ulterior motive of flattering, such as to make people to buy a product (Chan & Sengupta, 2010), it is predicted that flattery in the CSR context will consistently yield positive influences on the consumers' understanding of a company's pro-social/pro-environmental endeavor.

H₁₀: Consumers who receive a hotel's green CSR message with flattery will have lower skepticism towards a hotel's green CSR engagement.

H₁₁: Consumers who receive a hotel's green CSR message with flattery tend to perceive a hotel's green CSR motive as public-serving.

MEDIATION OF SKEPTICISM AND CSR MOTIVES

As with Study 1, the mediating effects of skepticism and CSR motives are examined in the context of flattery in a CSR message. While a mediating role of skepticism or perceived CSR motives is not yet concrete, few studies verified these factors as a mediator in the consumers' pro-social or pro-environmental behavioral response formation. For example, Romani, Grappi, and Bagozzi (2014) uncovered that consumers who perceived greater intrinsic motives towards a company's CSR practice (e.g., social benefits) felt lower skepticism, which resulted in a significant reduction of drinking a bottled water and an increase in green product consumption. Likewise, the level of consumers' awareness of an organization's CSR initiatives shapes their perceptions about CSR motives, which in turn influences their response, such as a word-of-mouth activity or a purchase of an organization's merchandise (Walker et al., 2010). In relation to CSR communication, Vries, Terwel, Ellemers, and Daamen (2015) asserted that consumer skepticism was a significant mediator in the relationship between a CSR message accounting for a firm's motive to practice pro-environmental initiatives and a consumers' perception of greenwashing.

Under the condition of hotels' green CSR programs, Rahman, Park, and Chi (2014) found that the negative effects of a people's perceived ulterior motive, implying that a hotel's green CSR engagement was mainly to reduce its operating expenses, on

their linen reuse and hotel revisit intentions was mediated by their skepticism towards a hotel's CSR. They explained this phenomenon based on a traditional buyer behavior model called the cognition (C) – affect (A) – behavior (B) paradigm (Howard & Sheth, 1969; Nicosia, 1966), which postulates that cognition and affect are influential antecedents to consumer behavior (e.g., Park, Stoel, & Lennon, 2008; Petty, Unnava, & Strathman, 1991). Consistent with the application in their study, perceived CSR motives and skepticism can be considered as cognition and affect, respectively, which will systematically have significant impacts on consumers' following behavior. Therefore, in this study, it is assumed that the presence of flattery in a green message will generate less skepticism, which will result in guests' greater intentions to reuse towels while staying at a hotel.

H₁₂: Skepticism towards a hotel's green CSR engagement will mediate the relationships between flattery effects and intentions to reuse towels while staying at a hotel.

H₁₃: Perceived CSR motives will mediate the relationships between flattery effects and intentions to reuse towels while staying at a hotel.

Figure 3: A Conceptual Framework for Flattery

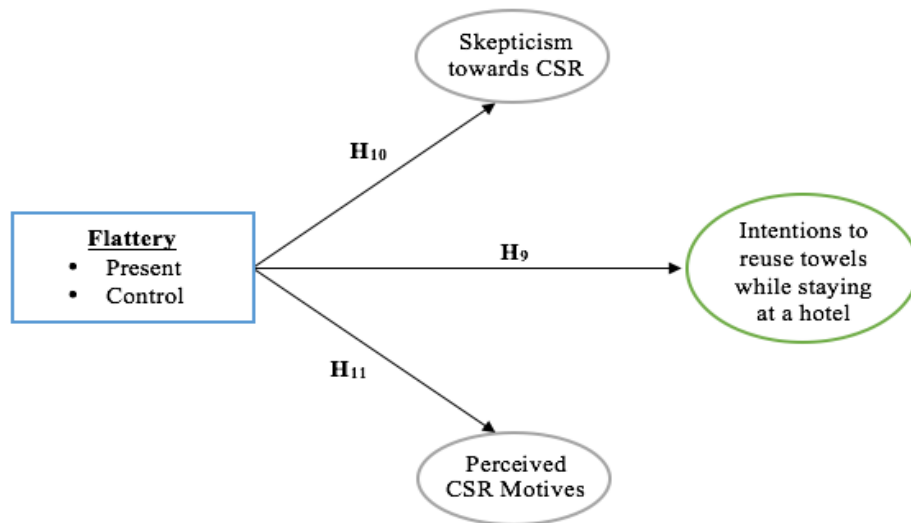
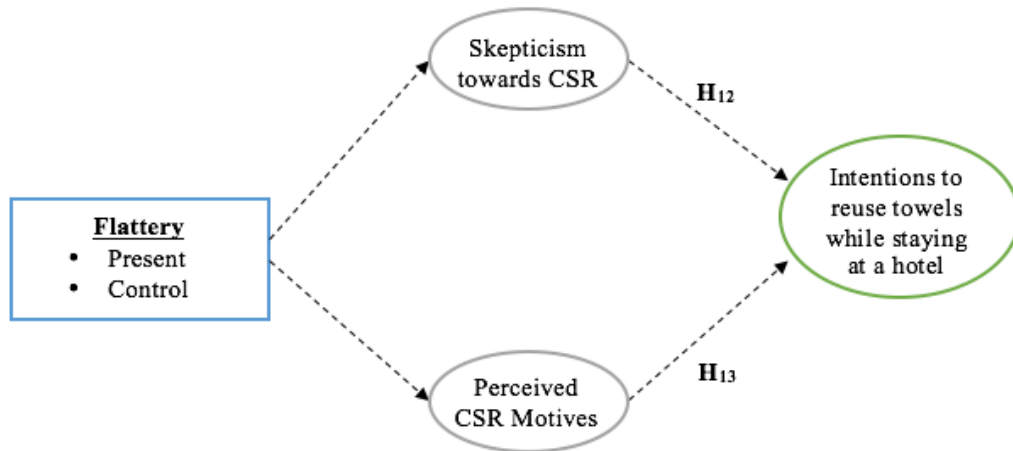


Figure 4: A Conceptual Framework for the Mediating Effects of Skepticism and CSR Motives for Flattery



Chapter 3: Study 1 and 2

STUDY 1 METHOD

Study Design

Study 1 explores the effects of the objectivity and focus of a hotel's informative green CSR message on perceptual consumer responses. To examine the direct effects of two message aspects (H₁-H₄) and the mediating effects of consumer skepticism (H₅-H₆) and perceived CSR motives (H₇-H₈), a 2 (message objectivity: objective vs. subjective) x 2 (message focus: commitments vs. impacts) between-subject experiment was employed.

Stimuli Development

Four different messages were created with a fictitious hotel name. Water saving was selected as a topic of the messages since it is one of top three notable concerns that hotels should strive for (Millar, 2010). An objective green message accounted for a hotel's specific green activities for water saving with detailed statistics. A subjective message briefly described their efforts in general terms. For a commitment-focused message, activities that a hotel *will* execute to reduce water consumption were presented with projected outcomes. That is, no information about what they have achieved was provided. Conversely, an impact-focused message explained specific results that a hotel has accomplished by implementing water saving programs. Thus, it emphasized a hotel's contributions to environmental protection. The messages given to participants were presented in Figure 5.

Figure 5: Study 1 Stimuli



Four created messages were pretested to ensure the difference of message objectivity and focus. A total of 37 participants were recruited from a southwestern university. A manipulation check for both message objectivity and focus was successful in that an objective message group indicated a significantly higher level of message objectivity than a subjective message group ($t(35) = 3.655, p < .01$). Also, participants who received a commitment-focused message perceived it as describing a hotel's promises, which would be possibly achieved in the future, while those who received an impact-focused message clearly understood that it explained what a hotel's actual actions were to improve the environment by performing water saving programs ($t(35) = 2.336, p < .05$).

Data Collection and Participants

A total of 473 participants were recruited via Mechanical Turk (MTurk) operated by Amazon. As this experiment was in the context of a hotel, of which consumers would have a wide range of demographics, MTurk enabled the collection of a variety of participants rather than college samples or online panels for higher representativeness (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). Each participant was paid 25 cents by completing a questionnaire. People whose location was the United States and whose MTurk work approval rate was over 95% were included in this study.

Among 473 participants, 203 (43%) were males and 270 (57%) were females. The majority of participants were either in their 20s (35%) or 30s (33%), followed by 40s (15%), 50s (11%), and 60s (5%). Three-fourths of the participants (75%) were White/Caucasian followed by Asian (10%), African American (6%), and Hispanic (5%).

Regarding education, about 37% completed a 4-year college, followed by some college (28%), 2-year college and high school, each at 12%, and Master's degree (10%).

Regarding their household income level, about two-thirds of participants reported that they earned less than \$60K and 10% indicated they earned \$100K or more. (Table 1)

Table 1: Study 1 Participants' Demographics

(N = 473)		n (%)
Gender		
	Male	203 (43%)
	Female	270 (57%)
Age		
	Under 19	3 (.6%)
	20 – 29	167 (35%)
	30 – 39	158 (33%)
	40 – 49	69 (15%)
	50 – 59	52 (11%)
	60 – 69	22 (5%)
	70 and over	2 (.4%)
Ethnicity		
	White/ Caucasian	355 (75%)
	Asian	45 (10%)
	African American	28 (6%)
	Hispanic	24 (5%)
	Native American	4 (1%)
	Pacific Islander	4 (1%)
	Other	13 (3%)
Education		
	Less than high school	1 (.2%)
	High school/ GED	55 (12%)
	Some college	131 (28%)
	2-year college	55 (12%)
	4-year college	175 (37%)
	Masters	46 (10%)
	Doctoral	3 (.6%)
	Professional (JD, MD)	7 (2%)
Income		
	Less than \$30,000	136 (29%)
	\$30,000 - \$39,999	68 (15%)
	\$40,000 - \$49,999	45 (10%)
	\$50,000 - \$59,999	56 (12%)
	\$60,000 - \$69,999	38 (8%)
	\$70,000 - \$79,999	46 (10%)
	\$80,000 - \$89,999	16 (3%)
	\$90,000 - \$99,999	19 (4%)
	\$100,000 and more	49 (10%)

Procedure

Once participants clicked a survey link, they first received a consent form. Proceeding to the survey after reading a consent implied that they agreed to voluntarily participate in this experiment. The first section of the survey asked participants to answer questions about their environmentalism, which demonstrated their general attitudes towards environmental concerns and protection (Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig, & Jones, 2000). Then, they were randomly assigned to one of the four developed messages. Subsequently, they received a set of questions inquiring about their responses to a hotel – skepticism, CSR motives, message credibility, brand image, and brand reputation. While answering these questions, a screening question was also included to confirm that they carefully read the questions and followed the instructions. Lastly, they answered demographic questions.

Measurement

All measures for a covariate and endogenous variables were adopted from the existing literature.

Endogenous Variables

Skepticism towards a hotel's CSR

Skepticism was measured using four items on a semantic differential scale adopted from Skarmeas and Leonidou's study (2013). The 7-point items anchored by "It is doubtless/doubtful that a hotel is socially responsible," "It is unsure/sure that a hotel follows high ethical standards," "It is uncertain/certain that a hotel is concerned to

improve the well-being of society,” and “It is questionable/unquestionable that Kii Hotel acts in a socially responsible way.” The Cronbach’s α was .87 ($M = 5.49$, $SD = 1.14$).

CSR Motives

Three items on a semantic differential scale were adopted to measure participants’ perceived CSR motives (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006). Specifically, participants expressed their thoughts on if the reasons a hotel engaged in water saving programs would be hotel self-interested or community-interested, firm-focused or customer-focused, and hotel profit-motivated or socially-motivated ($\alpha = .85$, $M = 4.51$, $SD = 1.51$).

Message Credibility

Message credibility was measured with four items on a 7-point Likert scale ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) (Chang, 2011; Mohr, Eroğlu, & Ellen, 1998). The items were “The message about the hotel’s water saving efforts is believable,” “The message about the hotel’s water saving efforts is exaggerated,” “The message about the hotel’s water saving efforts is misleading,” “The message about the hotel’s water saving efforts is real” ($\alpha = .81$, $M = 5.21$, $SD = .98$).

Brand Image and Reputation

Two sets of three items on a 7-point Likert scale were adopted to measure a hotel’s brand image and reputation (Nguyen & Leblanc, 2001) and the scale ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). The items for a brand image were “I have a good impression of the hotel,” “In my opinion, the hotel has a good image in the minds of consumers,” and “I believe that the hotel has a better image than its competitors” ($\alpha = .85$, $M = 5.33$, $SD = .99$). Three items for brand reputation were “I believe that the hotel

always fulfills the promises that it makes to its customers,” “I believe that the hotel has a good reputation,” and “I believe that the reputation of the hotel is better than its competitors” ($\alpha = .87, M = 4.94, SD = .99$).

Covariate

Environmentalism

The present study measures the consumers’ levels of environmentalism as a covariate variable. Environmentalism indicates a personal belief of how seriously he/she is concerned about the environment (Banerjee & McKeage, 1994). Banerjee and McKeage (1994, p. 149) included four domains in their definition, which were “beliefs about the relationship of humanity and nature, beliefs about the importance of the environment to the self, beliefs about the seriousness of current environmental conditions, and beliefs about necessity of radical changes of lifestyle for the environment protection.” Researchers viewed environmentalism as an existing value in mind, which could also be related to one’s moralities and ethics, and found that people who had concrete and stronger environmentalism would be more likely to adopt pro-environmentally sustainable behaviors (e.g., De Groot & Steg, 2007, 2008; Stern & Dietz, 1994). Likewise, individuals’ attitudes and beliefs about environmental protection are strong predictors of their green product purchase behavior (e.g., Ebreo, Hershey, & Vining, 1999; Mainieri, Barnett, Valdero, Unipan, & Oskamp, 1997; Tanner & Wölfing Kast, 2003). As such, these findings suggest that environmentalism considerably influences people’s judgment. Therefore, environmentalism needs to be controlled in

order to precisely determine the effects of a hotel's informative and persuasive green message features examined in this study.

For environmentalism, the New Ecological Paradigm (NEP) scale was employed, as it is effective to assess individuals' support for "a fundamental paradigm or worldview as well as their environmental attitudes, beliefs, and values." (Dunlap et al., 2000). It contained 15 items on a 5-point Likert scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) (e.g., "Humans are severely abusing the environment." "Plants and animals have as much right as humans to exist."). The Cronbach's α was .89 ($M = 3.55$, $SD = .65$) in this study.

Results

Structural equation modeling was employed to test the proposed hypotheses regarding message objectivity and focus on consumer responses. Before a structural model was analyzed, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed using AMOS 22.0 to ensure the reliability and validity of constructs. In addition to Cronbach's alpha values, the results also indicated satisfactory validity and reliability of the measurements by providing a good fit ($\chi^2(413) = 823.330$, $p < .01$, CFI = .949, TLI = .938, RMSEA = .046, AIC = 1053.330) (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). All item loadings were significant and above the recommended cutoff value of .60, except for one indicator of message credibility (.49). Excluding the indicator of message credibility provided a significant change of a model fit ($\Delta\chi^2 = 52.84$, $\Delta df = 25$, $p < .01$), which suggested that a model without the indicator had a better fit to analyze the data. Accordingly, the indicator was

dropped and the final measurement model fit was improved ($\chi^2 (388) = 770.493, p < .01$, CFI = .950, TLI = .940, RMSEA = .046, AIC = 986.493).

Additionally, composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) were calculated to assure the convergent validity of constructs. CR scores for each construct were in between .80 and .88, which was above the threshold (.70) (Nunnally, 1978) and further, AVE represented high reliability of latent variables in that all scores were above the cutoff point (.50) (Bagozzi, 1991) (Table 2). Lastly, discriminant validity among constructs was also confirmed by assessing correlations between constructs. All scores were below .85 meaning that multicollinearity did not exist (Bagozzi and Yi 1988; Kline 2011) (Table 3).

The hypotheses testing was performed in two steps. First, direct effects of message objectivity and focus on consumer responses ($H_1 - H_4$) were analyzed followed by indirect effects of skepticism and perceived motives of a hotel's brand image and reputation ($H_5 - H_8$) by adding paths in the model.

Table 2: Study 1 Scale and Measurement

	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	Factor Loadings
Skepticism	.88	.64	
It is (doubtless / doubtful) that Kii Hotel is a socially responsible hotel.			.77
It is (uncertain/certain) that Kii Hotel is concerned to improve the well-being of society.			.81
It is (unsure/sure) that Kii Hotel follows high ethical standards.			.78
It is (questionable/unquestionable) that Kii Hotel acts in a socially responsible way.			.83
CSR Motives	.85	.66	
Hotel self-interested – Community-interested			.86
Firm-focused – Customer-focused			.69
Hotel profit-motivated – Socially-motivated			.87
Message Credibility	.80	.58	
The message about Kii Hotel's water saving efforts is believable.			.83
The message about Kii Hotel's water saving efforts is exaggerated.*			.49
The message about Kii Hotel's water saving efforts is misleading.			.61
The message about Kii Hotel's water saving efforts is real.			.83
Brand Image	.86	.67	
I have a good impression of Kii Hotel.			.86
In my opinion, Kii Hotel has a good image in the minds of consumers.			.85
I believe that Kii Hotel has a better image than its competitors.			.74
Brand Reputation	.86	.67	
I believe that Kii Hotel always fulfills the promises that it makes to its customers.			.82
I believe that Kii Hotel has a good reputation.			.82
I believe that the reputation of Kii Hotel is better than its competitors.			.82

Note: * item was excluded in the model due to low factor loading.

Table 3: Study 1 Variable Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

	Descriptive Statistics			Correlations				
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
(1) Skepticism	5.49	1.14	.87	1.00				
(2) CSR Motives	4.51	1.51	.85	-.60**	1.00			
(3) Message Credibility	5.21	.98	.81	-.63**	.43**	1.00		
(4) Brand Image	5.33	.99	.85	-.83**	.57**	.77**	1.00	
(5) Brand Reputation	4.94	.99	.87	-.66**	.56**	.65**	.84**	1.00

Note: ** < .01

The Goodness of Fit Index of the final structural model presented a good fit ($\chi^2(430) = 742.820, p < .01, CFI = .960, TLI = .950, RMSEA = .039, AIC = 1004.820$) by showing that all fit indices were above the threshold suggested by Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010). Environmentalism was controlled in the structural model test. The results demonstrated that environmentalism had significant impacts on all consumer responses, except for perceived motives. In detail, although environmentalism did not significantly affect individuals' thoughts of a hotel's motivations to engage in green efforts ($B = .216, \beta = .091, p = .074$), people who had a greater level of environmentalism were likely to be less skeptical about a hotel's green CSR practice ($B = -.302, \beta = -.183, p < .01$), build higher credibility ($B = .443, \beta = .316, p < .01$), and have a positive brand image ($B = .471, \beta = .303, p < .01$) and regard ($B = .289, \beta = .180, p < .01$) for a hotel, respectively.

For the set of the first hypotheses predicting the positive effects of an objective green CSR message on consumer responses, the results demonstrated that the objectivity significantly and positively influenced consumer skepticism and perceived motives.

Specifically, compared to respondents who read a subjective message, those who received an objective message reported lower skepticism ($B = -.439$, $\beta = -.221$, $p < .01$) and perceived a CSR motive as public-serving ($B = .425$, $\beta = .150$, $p < .01$). Therefore, H_{1-a} and H_{1-b} were supported. However, there were no significant effects of message objectivity on message credibility; thus, H_{1-c} was rejected. In terms of two marketing-related responses – brand image and reputation, significant positive impacts of message objectivity were revealed (image: $B = .257$, $\beta = .138$, $p < .01$; reputation: $B = .316$, $\beta = .164$, $p < .01$). Therefore, H_{2-a} , and H_{2-b} were supported.

The set of H_3 stated that an impact-focused CSR message, which explained a hotel's achievements of their green programs, would have positive effects on consumer responses. The results indicated that it had significant and positive impacts on all consumer responses. Individuals who received a hotel's impact-focused message significantly expressed lower skepticism ($B = -.312$, $\beta = -.157$, $p < .01$), perceived a CSR motive as public-serving ($B = .494$, $\beta = .174$, $p < .01$), and had higher credibility towards the message ($B = .188$, $\beta = .112$, $p < .05$). Thus, H_{3-a} , H_{3-b} , and H_{3-c} were supported. Further, its effects on a hotel's brand image and reputation were also found to be significant; therefore, H_{4-a} and H_{4-b} were supported (image: $B = .249$, $\beta = .133$, $p < .01$; reputation: $B = .271$, $\beta = .141$, $p < .01$).

Next, the mediating effects of skepticism and perceived motives, proposed in H_5 , H_6 , H_7 , and H_8 , were analyzed by adding paths from each of the two constructs to marketing-related consumer responses and also, a bootstrapping analysis in AMOS 22.0 was performed with 5,000 samples and a 95% confidence interval to verify the indirect

effects. As anticipated, skepticism significantly mediated the associations between message objectivity and brand image as well as reputation. The influence of message objectivity on brand image and reputation became insignificant (image: $B = -.067$, $\beta = -.036$, $p = .296$; reputation: $B = .064$, $\beta = .033$, $p = .423$), which implies that skepticism had full mediating effects on both brand image ($B = .287$, $\beta = .154$, $p < .01$) and reputation ($B = .221$, $\beta = .115$, $p < .01$). Hence, the results supported H_{5-a} and H_{5-b} . Similarly, an analysis revealed that the relationships of message focus and brand image and reputation were significantly and fully mediated by skepticism (image: $B = .172$, $\beta = .092$, $p < .05$; reputation: $B = .133$, $\beta = .069$, $p < .05$) in that the direct effects of message focus on brand image and reputation dropped to be insignificant (image: $B = .023$, $\beta = .012$, $p = .720$; reputation: $B = .095$, $\beta = .049$, $p = .229$). Accordingly, H_{6-a} and H_{6-b} were also supported.

Regarding the perceived CSR motives, the same analyses were performed. Results found that the motives significantly and partially mediated the association between the message objectivity and a hotel's reputation ($B = .116$, $\beta = .061$, $p < .05$) as a direct effect of message objectivity on reputation was still significant ($B = .173$, $\beta = .091$, $p < .05$) after including the motive as a mediator in the model. However, no significant mediating effects of the motives were found on a relationship between the message objectivity and a hotel's brand image. Therefore, H_{7-b} was supported whereas H_{7-a} was not. Consistently, only a relationship between message focus and a hotel's reputation was significantly mediated by the motives ($B = .143$, $\beta = .075$, $p < .01$). A

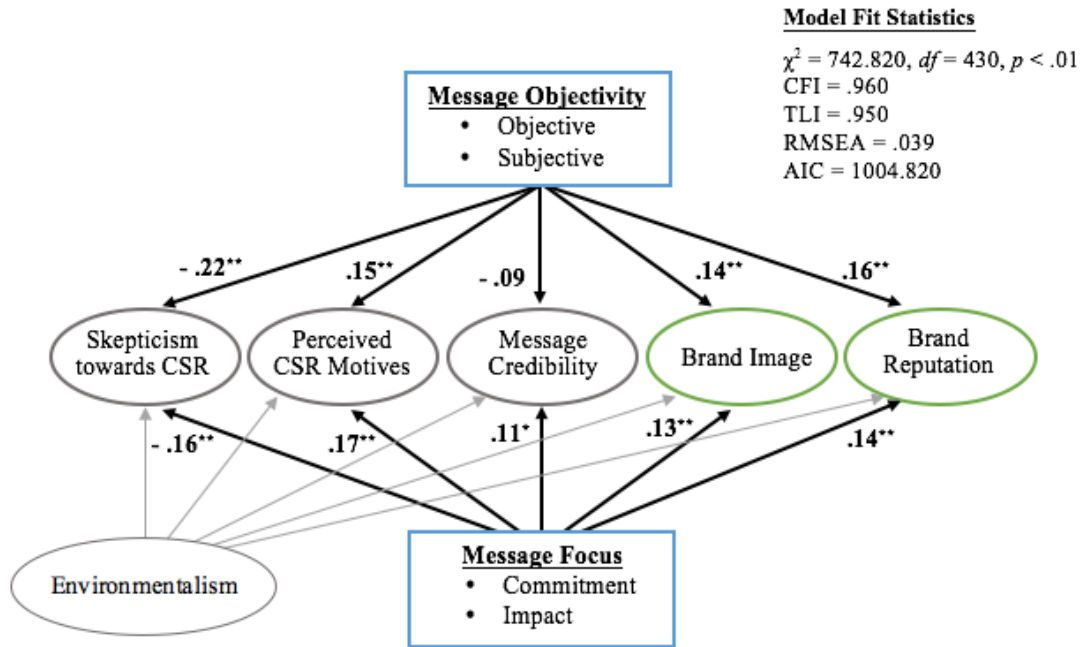
direct effect of message focus became insignificant ($B = .095$, $\beta = .050$, $p = .253$), which indicates a full mediation. Accordingly, results supported H_{8-b} and rejected H_{8-a} .

Table 4: Study 1 Hypothesis Testing Results

Model Fit:					
$\chi^2(430) = 742.820, p < .01, CFI = .960, TLI = .950, RMSEA = .039, AIC = 1004.820$					
Exogenous	Endogenous	β	B	S.E.	p
Objective message					
	Skepticism (H _{1-a})	-.22	-.44	.10	< .01
	Perceived CSR motives (H _{1-b})	.15	.43	.14	< .01
	Message credibility (H _{1-c})	-.09	-.16	.08	> .05
	Brand image (H _{2-a})	.14	.26	.09	< .01
	Brand reputation (H _{2-b})	.16	.32	.09	< .01
Impact-focused message					
	Skepticism (H _{3-a})	-.16	-.31	.10	< .01
	Perceived CSR motives (H _{3-b})	.17	.49	.14	< .01
	Message credibility (H _{3-c})	.11	.19	.08	< .05
	Brand image (H _{4-a})	.13	.25	.09	< .01
	Brand reputation (H _{4-b})	.14	.27	.09	< .01
Mediating Effects		β	B	p	Full/ Partial Mediation
Skepticism					
	Message objectivity and brand image (H _{5-a})	.15	.29	< .01	Full
	Message objectivity and brand reputation (H _{5-b})	.12	.22	< .01	Full
	Message focus and brand image (H _{6-a})	.09	.17	< .05	Full
	Message focus and brand reputation (H _{6-b})	.07	.13	< .05	Full
Perceived CSR Motives					
	Message objectivity and brand image (H _{7-a})	.03	.05	> .05	-
	Message objectivity and brand reputation (H _{7-b})	.06	.12	< .05	Partial
	Message focus and brand image (H _{8-a})	.03	.06	> .05	-
	Message focus and brand reputation (H _{8-b})	.08	.14	< .05	Full

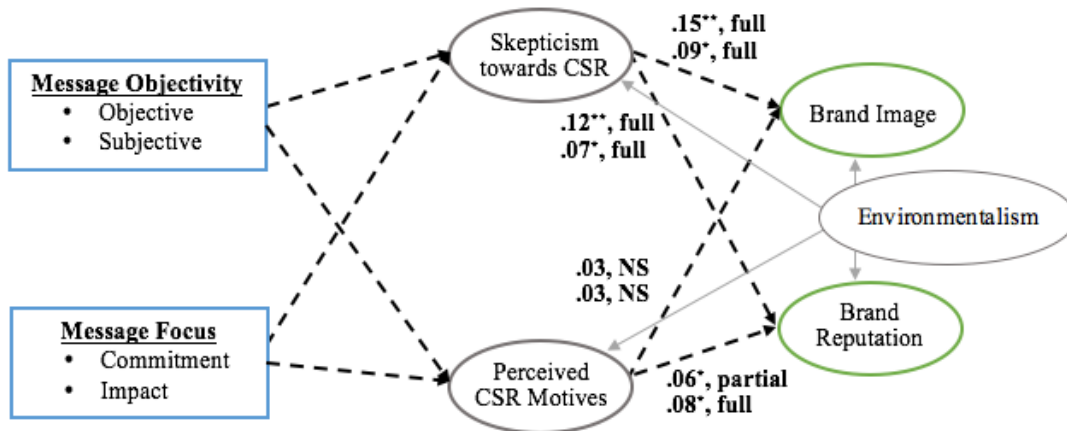
Note: β = standardized path coefficient; B = unstandardized path coefficient; S.E. = standard error.

Figure 6: Structural Equation Model Results for Message Objectivity and Focus



Note: Scores are standardized Beta coefficients; * < .05; ** < .01
 Environmentalism was a covariate in the model.

Figure 7: Structural Equation Model Results for Mediating Effects 1



Note: Scores are standardized Beta coefficients; * < .05; ** < .01
 Environmentalism was a covariate in the model.

STUDY 1 DISCUSSION

The main objective of Study 1 was to suggest effective framing strategies for a hotel's informative pro-environmental CSR message. Building upon the claim objectivity effects (Holbrook, 1978) and the correspondent inference theory (Jones & Davis, 1965), consumers' responses to two different features of a CSR message were examined. Findings demonstrated that an objective message, which delivered detailed information including statistical figures, was effective to reduce consumers' skepticism towards a hotel's green engagement and also led consumers to believe that a hotel's ultimate purpose of green CSR activities was to protect the environment for social benefits. Additionally, it engendered positive marketing results such as reinforcing a hotel's favorable brand image and reputation. However, in contrast to the prediction, an objective message did not increase individuals' credibility towards a message compared to a subjective message conveying short, abstract CSR information. For the other feature of a CSR message, a commitment-focused message, which simply notified a hotel's promises of what they *will* perform, and an impact-focused message explaining what positive outcomes a hotel has *already* achieved to improve the environment were investigated. As shown in the results, an impact-focused message worked effectively to alleviate consumers' skepticism and promoted their belief in a hotel's public-serving motive. Besides, it significantly strengthened the consumers' message credibility as well as positive brand image and reputation of a hotel.

Additionally, Study 1 highlighted the key functions of consumer skepticism and perceived CSR motives as a bridge to connect a hotel's CSR message and consumers'

marketing-oriented reactions by manifesting those significant mediating effects. Both objective and impact-focused messages induced individuals to become less skeptical about hotels' green CSR, which further resulted in building a favorable image and reputation of a hotel in their mind. A perception of a hotel's public-serving motive generated by objective and impact-focused messages subsequently had positive impacts on a hotel's positive reputation, but not on brand image.

Taken together, it can be concluded that it is important for a hotel to make consumers be knowledgeable about its green CSR activities in order to successfully carry them out. Also, it will help hotels fulfill their own advantages without backlash. Following an argument from previous research that consumers' knowledge levels influence their skepticism towards firms' pro-social engagement (Brønn & Vrioni, 2001; Webb & Morh, 1998), this study maintains that hotels should provide specific information about what their actual contributions are to protect the environment and benefit society. It further indicates that hotels need to continue their CSR engagement to update consumers about what and how they devote their resources to environmental improvement. The empirical findings from this study propose adoptable directions for hotel practitioners to construct their CSR messages and further broadens the understanding of how consumers draw their responses to hotels' green CSR engagement by emphasizing the roles of skepticism and perceived CSR motives.

In addition to informing consumers to be aware of a hotel's green CSR engagement, a hotel needs its guests' actual behavioral support since guests make up a large part of consumption of natural resources at a hotel. In this respect, a hotel should

develop a compelling strategy to convince its guests to voluntarily adopt green behavior during their stay. In Study 2, an effective approach to create a hotel's persuasive CSR message is investigated. By incorporating flattery in a message, consumers' intentions to reuse towels at a hotel are examined. In line with Study 1, the two underlying psychological constructs – consumer skepticism and perceived CSR motives – are also included.

STUDY 2 METHOD

Study Design

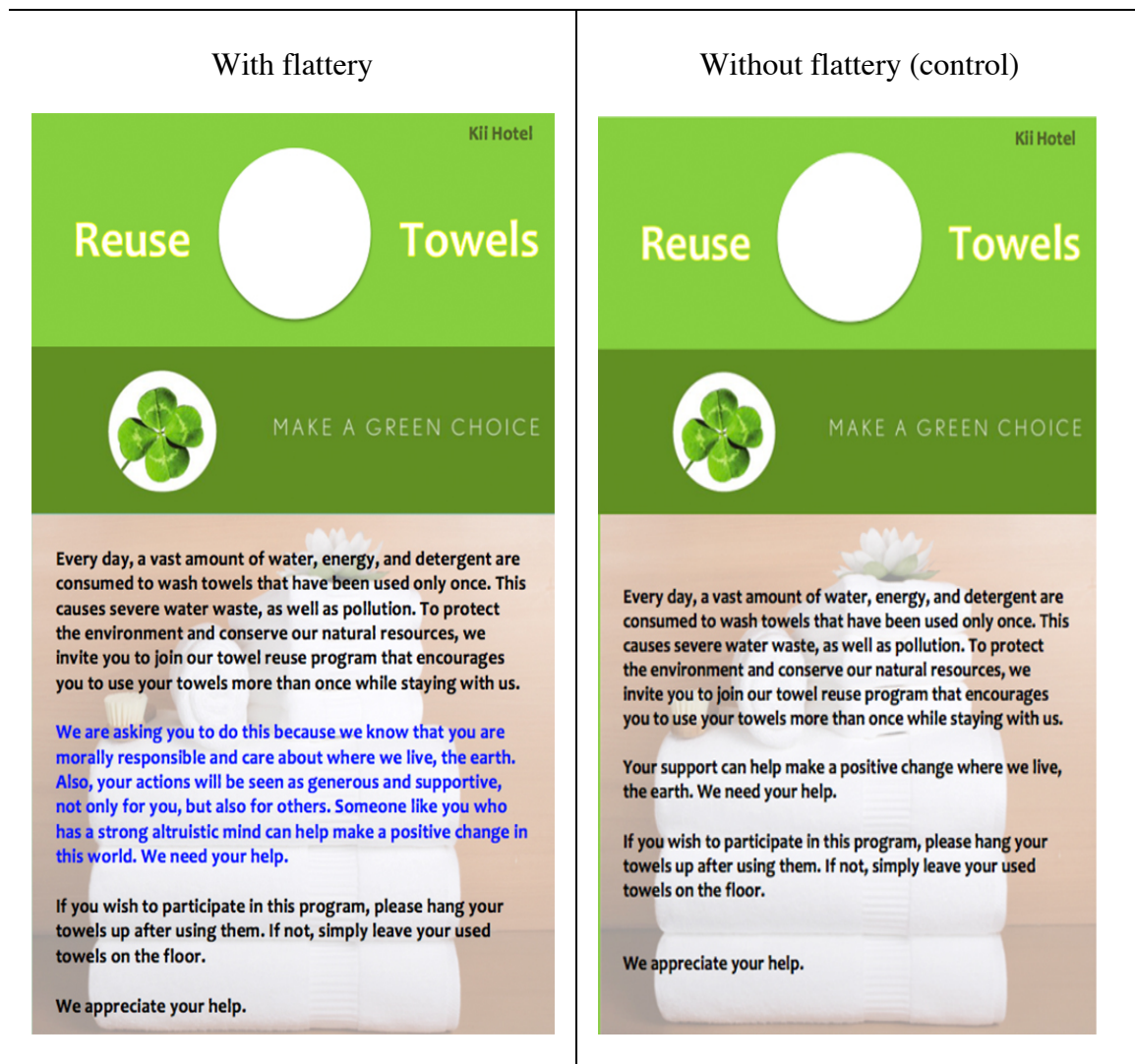
A single-factor (flattery: present vs. control) between-subject experiment was employed for Study 2. The major objective of this study was to verify if flattery would have the power to induce people to comply with a hotel's green behavior request. Moreover, how it would influence consumer skepticism and perceived CSR motives, which are the crucial facets that firms should overcome for their CSR communication (Du et al., 2010), were tested. To clarify a mechanism of persuasion by means of flattery, mediating effects of skepticism and perceived motives were further investigated.

Stimuli Development

The presence of flattery was manipulated; thus, two kinds of messages were created. One included flattering statements and the other did not. In accordance with the water saving initiatives employed in the Study 1 experiment, reusing towels was chosen as a green behavior at a hotel for the Study 2 experiment. Also, it is the most popular program that a hotel encourages its guests to be involved in during their stay at a hotel (Hetter, 2013). To be realistic, a message format followed a hotel's green card, which is

normally placed in hotel rooms or bathrooms. It means that environmental images, a hotel logo, and an explanation of the towel reuse program were presented in a message. Besides flattery, all other elements were identical in the messages. Same as in Study 1, a fictitious brand name, *Kii Hotel*, was used to prevent biases caused by perceptions towards existing hotel brands. (Figure 6)

Figure 8: Study 2 Stimuli



A pretest manifested a successful manipulation. Thirty-seven participants were recruited from a southwestern university and 76% correctly discriminated whether a message contained flattery or not. A crosstab analysis also indicated a significant difference between flattery message and control groups ($\chi^2(1, 37) = 8.101, p < .01$). For the 26 participants who received a flattery message, an additional question was asked to identify a flattery paragraph and 81% answered correctly.

Data Collection and Participants

The experiment was administered to 393 participants through Mechanical Turk (MTurk), which is available to collect valid data for an online experiment (Crump, McDonnell, & Gureckis, 2013). After deleting samples that failed to be manipulated, 336 were included in the final analysis. A total of 161 participants (48%) were males and 175 (52%) were females. The participants' age ranged from 18 to 69 and approximately 70% were either in their 20s (34%) or 30s (35%). The majority of participants were White/Caucasian (81%) followed by Asian (6%), Hispanic (5%), and African American (5%). Four-year college graduates were 36% followed by those who completed some college (27%), high school (12%), Master's degree (11%), and 2-year college (10%). About a half of participants earned less than \$50K of household income while 12% reported more than \$100K. The detailed demographic information is shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Study 2 Participants' Demographics

(N = 336)	n (%)
Gender	
Male	161 (48%)
Female	175 (52%)
Age	
Under 19	5 (2%)
20 – 29	113 (34%)
30 – 39	116 (34%)
40 – 49	58 (17%)
50 – 59	35 (10%)
60 – 69	9 (3%)
Ethnicity	
White/ Caucasian	273 (81%)
Asian	20 (6%)
African American	15 (5%)
Hispanic	18 (5%)
Native American	3 (1%)
Other	7 (2%)
Education	
Less than high school	2 (1%)
High school/ GED	41 (12%)
Some college	91 (27%)
2-year college	32 (10%)
4-year college	121 (36%)
Masters	36 (11%)
Doctoral	5 (2%)
Professional (JD, MD)	8 (2%)
Income	
Less than \$30,000	77 (23%)
\$30,000 - \$39,999	44 (13%)
\$40,000 - \$49,999	51 (15%)
\$50,000 - \$59,999	38 (11%)
\$60,000 - \$69,999	29 (8%)
\$70,000 - \$79,999	26 (8%)
\$80,000 - \$89,999	19 (6%)
\$90,000 - \$99,999	13 (4%)
\$100,000 and more	39 (12%)

Procedure

Following a short description of the study, participants received a consent form. Only those who agreed to voluntarily participate in the experiment were able to proceed. The first construct measured was environmentalism. Then, they were told that they were on a vacation and saw a green card when they arrived at a hotel room. Each participant was exposed to a randomly assigned stimulus and required to spend a minimum of 30 seconds to read a given message. After the stimulus, they answered manipulation questions inquiring whether they thought a message contained flattery or not and if there was, which paragraph it was. Following, they had the main questionnaire to complete. The main questionnaire was composed of four sets of questions including intentions to reuse towels while staying at a hotel, skepticism towards a hotel's CSR, perceived CSR motives, and demographics such as gender, age, ethnicity, education, and income.

Measurement

As stated above, three endogenous variables – intentions to reuse towels, skepticism, and perceived CSR motives – and one covariate – environmentalism – were measured in Study 2. The measurements were validated and adapted from the previous research.

Endogenous Variables

Intentions to Reuse Towels

The intention to reuse towels identified how likely participants were to reuse towels while staying at a hotel after reading a green card given by a hotel. It was measured with four items on a 7-point Likert scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly

agree (7) (Grau & Folse, 2007). Items were “I would be willing to participate in the hotel's towel reuse program,” “I would consider participating in reusing towels while staying at the hotel in order to provide help to the environmental cause,” “It is likely that I would contribute to water saving by getting involved in the hotel's towel reuse program”, and “I think that reusing towels while staying at the hotel is a good idea” ($\alpha = .96, M = 5.82, SD = 1.38$).

Skepticism towards a hotel's CSR

The same measurement used in Study 1 was adapted in Study 2. It was defined as the level of one's doubt about how a hotel's CSR would indeed improve society and four items on a semantic differential scale were utilized ($\alpha = .90, M = 3.35, SD = 1.33$; Skarmeas & Leonidou, 2013). The 7-point scale was anchored by “It is doubtless/doubtful that the hotel is socially responsible,” “It is unsure/sure that the hotel follows high ethical standards,” “It is uncertain/certain that the hotel is concerned to improve the well-being of society,” and “It is questionable/unquestionable that the hotel acts in a socially responsible way.”

CSR Motives

Three items on a semantic differential 7-point scale, which was utilized in Study 1, measured respondents' perceived CSR motives in Study 2 as well (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006). Participants answered a question inquiring what motivated the hotel to engage in a towel reuse program and rated the following items: hotel self-interested or community-interested, firm-focused or customer-focused, and hotel profit-motivated or socially-motivated ($\alpha = .88, M = 4.09, SD = 1.53$).

Covariate

Environmentalism

Same as Study 1, environmentalism was a covariate in Study 2. Adopted from Dunlap et al. (2000), the NEP scale of 15 items on a 5-point Likert scale ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) measured one's environmentalism ($\alpha = .89$, $M = 3.49$, $SD = .65$). The example items were "When humans interfere with nature, it often produces disastrous consequences," "Despite our special abilities humans are still subject to the law of nature," "The balance of nature is strong enough to cope with the impacts of modern industrial nations," and "The earth is like a spaceship with very limited room and resources."

Results

To examine the proposed hypotheses for Study 2, a structural equation modeling analysis was performed using AMOS 22.0. Prior to hypothesis testing, CFA was conducted to confirm the reliability and validity of measured variables in addition to the Cronbach's alpha. The analysis verified a good fit of the model, which represented constructs' satisfactory reliability and validity ($\chi^2 (278) = 500.156$, $p < .01$, CFI = .959, TLI = .953, RMSEA = .049, AIC = 646.156) (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Item loadings were significant and ranged from .74 to .94, which were above a cutoff value of .60 indicating an internal consistency of measurements. The values of CR and AVE of constructs demonstrated adequate convergent validity. All CR values were higher than the threshold (.70) (Nunnally, 1978) ranged from .88 to .96 and also, AVE scores fell in between .72 and .83 above the cutoff point (.50) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) (Table 6). Besides,

correlations between constructs were lower than .85, which supported discriminant validity among constructs (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988; Kline, 2011) (Table 7).

Table 6: Study 2 Scale and Measurement

	Composite Reliability (CR)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	Factor Loadings
Skepticism	.91	.72	
It is (doubtless / doubtful) that Kii Hotel is a socially responsible hotel.			.81
It is (uncertain/certain) that Kii Hotel is concerned to improve the well-being of society.			.85
It is (unsure/sure) that Kii Hotel follows high ethical standards.			.90
It is (questionable/unquestionable) that Kii Hotel acts in a socially responsible way.			.84
CSR Motives	.88	.72	
Hotel self-interested – Community-interested			.91
Firm-focused – Customer-focused			.75
Hotel profit-motivated – Socially-motivated			.88
Intentions to Reuse Towels	.96	.83	
I would be willing to participate in Kii’s towel reuse program.			.95
I would consider participating in reusing towels while staying at Kii in order to provide help to the environmental cause.			.94
It is likely that I would contribute to this cause (water saving) by getting involved in Kii’s towel reuse program.			.93
I think that reusing towels while staying at Kii is a good idea.			.91

Table 7: Study 2 Variable Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

	Descriptive Statistics			Correlations		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	α	(1)	(2)	(3)
(1) Skepticism	3.35	1.33	.90	1.00		
(2) CSR Motives	4.09	1.53	.88	-.81**	1.00	
(3) Intentions to Reuse Towels	5.82	1.38	.96	-.51**	.38**	1.00

Note: ** < .01

A structural model was developed to analyze the direct effects of flattery and indirect effects of skepticism and perceived CSR motives. The final model fit indices indicated a good fit ($\chi^2(302) = 539.611, p < .01, CFI = .957, TLI = .950, RMSEA = .048, AIC = 691.611$). Environmentalism was controlled in the model in that the significant influence of environmentalism on endogenous variables measured in this study was found. Individuals who were more likely to be concerned about protecting the environment tended to have lower skepticism towards a hotel's green work ($B = -.495, \beta = -.300, p < .01$), consider a hotel's motive as public-service ($B = .738, \beta = .313, p < .01$), and have a higher intention to reuse towels while staying at a hotel ($B = 1.131, \beta = .533, p < .01$).

Hypothesis 9 predicted a positive impact of flattery in a hotel's green card on individuals' intentions to reuse towels during their stay at a hotel. The result supported H_9 ($B = .311, \beta = .110, p < .05$) meaning that individuals who received a hotel's green card including flattering statements were significantly more likely to reuse towels while staying in a hotel. Moreover, the results showed that people who read a flattery green card tended to believe a hotel's CSR motive as public-serving ($B = .364, \beta = .115, p < .05$). However, there was no significant influence of flattery found on skepticism

towards a hotel's CSR engagement. Accordingly, H₁₀ was rejected, but H₁₁ was supported.

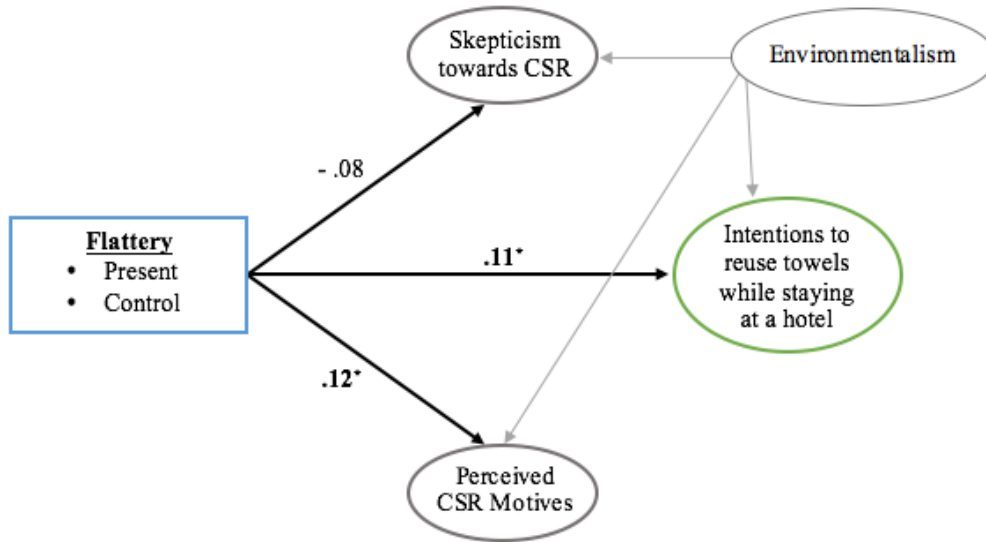
Albeit an indirect effect of flattery on towel reuse intentions through skepticism was anticipated (H₁₂), since no significant causal relationship was found between flattery and skepticism, it was not suitable to perform a further mediation analysis of skepticism. Therefore, H₁₂ was rejected. On the contrary, for a mediating effect of perceived motive on a relationship between flattery and towel reuse intentions, a bootstrapping analysis with 5,000 samples and a 95% confidence interval indicated a significant result (B = .076, $\beta = .027$, $p < .05$). Further, a path from flattery to towel reuse intentions was insignificant after adding motive as a mediator in the model (B = .233, $\beta = .082$, $p > .05$). This signifies a full mediation effect of perceived motives and supported H₁₃.

Table 8: Study 2 Hypothesis Testing Results

Model Fit:					
$\chi^2 (302) = 539.611, p < .01, CFI = .957, TLI = .950, RMSEA = .048, AIC = 691.611$					
Exogenous	Endogenous	β	B	S.E.	<i>p</i>
Flattery presence					
	Intentions to reuse towels while staying at a hotel (H ₉)	.11	.31	.14	< .05
	Skepticism (H ₁₀)	-.08	-.18	.12	> .05
	Perceived CSR motives (H ₁₁)	.12	.36	.17	< .05
Mediating Effects		β	B	<i>p</i>	Full/ Partial Mediation
Skepticism					
	Flattery and intentions to reuse towels while staying at a hotel (H ₁₂)	-	-	-	-
Perceived CSR Motives					
	Flattery and intentions to reuse towels while staying at a hotel (H ₁₃)	.03	.08	< .05	Full

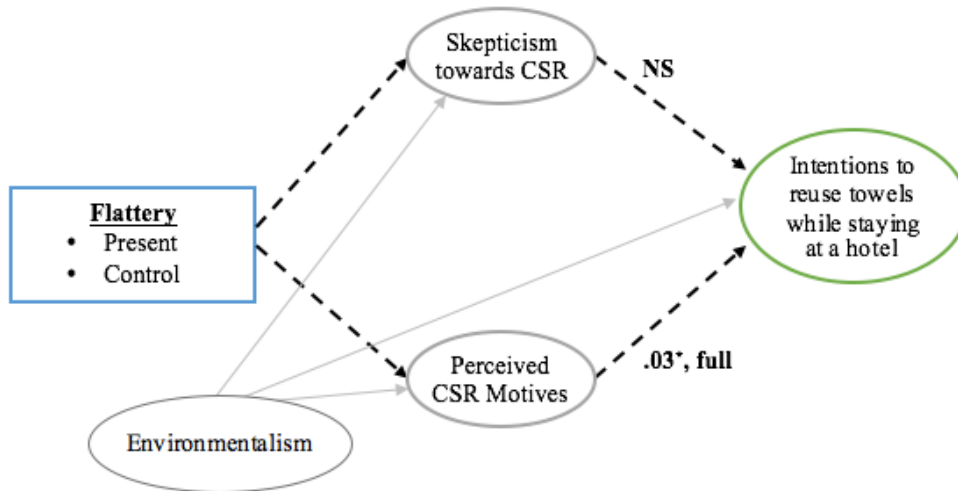
Note: β = standardized path coefficient; B = unstandardized path coefficient; S.E. = standard error.

Figure 9: Structural Equation Model Results for Flattery



Note: Scores are standardized Beta coefficients; * $< .05$
Environmentalism was a covariate in the model.

Figure 10: Structural Equation Model Results for Mediating Effects 2



Note: Scores are standardized Beta coefficients; * $< .05$
Environmentalism was a covariate in the model.

STUDY 2 DISCUSSION

Study 2 concentrated on a persuasive CSR message strategy to encourage people's pro-environmental behavior decision at a hotel. Particularly, it investigated if flattery, a well-applied strategy in the sales context (Vonk, 2002), could be a powerful persuasive tool to bolster guests' towel reuse while staying at a hotel. In addition, to thoroughly understand their decision-making process, the role of skepticism and perceived motives was examined.

Findings showed that flattery had meaningful persuasive power. People who read a flattery green message showed significantly higher intentions to reuse towels while staying at a hotel compared to those who received a message without flattery. In the same manner, it positively influenced people's perceived CSR motives. People in a control group, reading a green message without flattery, leaned towards a hotel's self-serving CSR motive that they were likely to see a reason behind a hotel's green engagement was to gain the hotel's benefits while those who read a flattery green message were likely to deem a motive as public-serving that a hotel's motivation was to genuinely improve society and the environment.

In terms of a decision making process of reusing towels in a hotel setting after being exposed to a green card, a perceived CSR motive was found to be a significant influential component. That is, a flattery green message led individuals to regard a hotel's CSR motive as public-serving, which consequently directed them to have a higher intention to reuse towels. This also implies that people who believed a motive as self-

serving, caused by a no flattery green message, were less likely to reuse towels while staying at a hotel.

These findings shed light on the message content that hotel practitioners can empirically utilize to promote guests' participation to a towel reuse program. Findings demonstrated that how to frame a message given to hotel guests is important for hotel managers, but at the same time, managers should fundamentally be conscious of how guests comprehend a hotel's motivation to practice such programs and attempt to put an emphasis on their philanthropic purposes of CSR engagement.

Chapter 4: General Discussion

When it comes to CSR communication, corporations encounter a dilemma (Morsing, 2003). CSR communication increases the visibility of a company's pro-social efforts to be deemed a responsible institution in society (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004), but the more a company communicates, the more negative outcomes such as high skepticism may occur in the consumer's mind (Schlegelmilch & Pollach, 2005). Concentrating on the hotel sector and its pro-environmental practices, this manuscript provides theoretical and empirical implications of CSR communication strategies and consumers' interpretations for CSR scholars, as well as practitioners in the hotel industry.

The overall goal of the two studies presented in the previous chapter was to find out how a hotel should construct its green CSR messages with different purposes to maximize positive outcomes including both consumers' perceptual and behavioral responses. Based on the findings, a specific and explicit description of a hotel's pro-environmental programs and an explanation of actual contributions are effective ways to enlighten consumers about its green efforts. While both ways can assuage consumer skepticism and a perceived self-serving motive and also, helps managing brand image and reputation, it was found that only recounting actual outcomes of green programs enhanced consumers' trust towards a CSR message. The insignificant effect of the levels of information objectivity on message credibility shown in Study 1 is inconsistent with the previous research (e.g., Kim & Lee, 2009). These can be possible reasons for the insignificant findings. Since consumers are generally less likely to believe information directly coming from a company (e.g., Heidinger, 2012; Kim & Lee, 2009), it would be a

possible cause. Controlling for their levels of trust towards a company's message in general would be necessary in future research. Also, another possible reason can be the lack of background information provided regarding the hotel. As a fictitious hotel name was used to prevent consumers' existing bias, participants did not have any general background information about the hotel. This might lower their overall trust towards a hotel, which also could affect the credibility they assign a message regardless of its objectivity. Overall, the insignificant findings and possible reasons open a worthwhile potential avenue for future research.

Furthermore, this research verifies that flattery is a promising persuasive tactic to boost individuals' green behavior in the hotel context. That is, it demonstrates that not only does flattery fit to the hotel's characteristics, but flattery is also indeed a driving force behind the guests' green behavioral support of the hotel's pro-environmental CSR action. The two studies further suggest evidence that consumers' skepticism and understanding of a hotel's underlying motivation to execute green activities play a pivotal role in building their ensuing responses to a hotel and its green CSR.

THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

While how and what to communicate about CSR practices is critical to build a good relationship with various stakeholder groups (Panwar, Rinne, Hansen, & Juslin, 2006), limited attention has been given to CSR communication research (Ihlen, Bartlett, & May, 2011; Tench, Sun, & Jones, 2014). In that sense, the present study connotes several meaningful inferences especially for the CSR communication discipline.

First, this research broadens the comprehensive understanding of CSR communication effects in the hospitality business context. By examining different types of CSR messages on the basis of two main purposes of CSR communication: to inform and to persuade (McWilliams et al., 2006), this research ascertains that CSR messages have the power to alter consumers' not only cognitive judgment about a hotel, but also their own behavioral actions. In other words, CSR communication can play a marketing role as well as serve as a social marketing tool where the primary goals are "to generate an intense bond between the consumer and the brand, and the main ingredient of this bond is trust" (Hiscock, 2001, p. 1) and to convince individuals to change behavior to enhance social welfare (e.g., Lee & Kotler, 2015), respectively.

Second, while the current research underlines the importance of CSR communication, it further contributes to develop effective framing strategies for CSR messages. As revealed in the results, not every CSR message is advantageous. For example, a brief explanation of a hotel's green programs and commitments may backfire, whereas a message describing accurate and statistical information is effective to secure positive consequences of a hotel's green efforts including lower skepticism, a favorable perception of a hotel's CSR motivation, and positive perceptions of a hotel's brand image and reputation. This finding is compatible to the argument that rational appeals are more suitable to explain pro-environmental information (Andreu, Casado-Díaz, & Mattila, 2015). Also, it upholds people's natural tendency to minimize uncertainty when making a decision, which further increases their information seeking (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). Therefore, it is imperative that a hotel makes consumers more knowledgeable about its

CSR initiatives by conveying adequate information and informing them of concrete achievements of its efforts in a CSR message so that consumers can rely on a given message itself to arrive at their final reactions.

Third, given that framing drives message receivers to interpret the content in a certain way since it spotlights a particular aspect of a message (Entman, 1993), this research calls attention to flattery effects in CSR communication. Adopting flattery as a persuasive signal in a CSR message and revealing its positive impacts on individuals' perceived CSR motives and towel reuse intentions while staying at a hotel with an emphasis on a hotel guests' distinct psychological need – enhancing self-esteem, the current study expands the boundary of flattery's application and persuasion competence. While it has been a popular topic to explore in the sales context (e.g. Vonk, 2002), this is one of very few studies examining flattery effects in relation to CSR communication as well as under the service business circumstance. In that sense, this research opens up a novel venue for the investigation of persuasive CSR messages.

Fourth, from the consumer psychology perspective, the present study provides evidence that consumer skepticism and perceived CSR motives can account for the formation of consumer responses to a company as to its pro-environmental CSR practice. It uncovers that a reason that CSR communication may result in an undesirable consumer response, such as a negative brand image or a denial to perform green actions at a hotel, is because consumers distrust a hotel's green efforts and assess its motivation so as to achieve self-benefits. By clarifying such mediating effects of the two precedent factors, which have been ambiguous in prior studies, this research argues that skepticism and

perceived motives are essential aspects that shape consumers' opinions in the process of interpreting CSR messages.

Lastly, this research contributes taking different theoretical approaches to understand how consumers respond to green CSR messages and to develop effective CSR messages. From a communication point of view, it reviewed a concept of claim objectivity and dwelled on the importance of the information accuracy of CSR messages. Besides, it expanded consumer psychological theories by bringing them into CSR communication. As a kind of attribution theory, the correspondent inference theory provided a logical structure to comprehend how people infer others' motives to take a certain behavior and also, accounted for why a presentation of actual impacts of CSR activities is more effective than describing future commitments. Further, by looking into the individuals' motivational aspects, this study was founded on self-enhancement theory for persuasive CSR messages, which clarified why flattery worked to elicit people's green behavior in the hotel setting. While self-enhancement theory is highly self-concept oriented, it has gained relatively limited attention from CSR scholars. Accordingly, this research extends its application to CSR message framing development and advances the understanding of its power with respect to individuals' altruistic behavior.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

Results regarding message framing found in these two experiments propose pragmatic strategies for hotel practitioners to effectively communicate their pro-environmental initiatives to consumers. When they communicate their green CSR engagement, one momentous consideration should be whether the information is

concretely outlined. This approach in creating a CSR message helps hotel managers mitigate consumers' skepticism toward their green efforts and reinforce a consumers' perception that their green efforts are indeed for the public benefits. Beside these positive outcomes, if hotels aim to strengthen consumers' trust towards their CSR information, it is suggested to articulate their past accomplishments in a message, indicating how their efforts improved society well-being and the environment. Differently stated, it would be better for hotels to postpone their CSR communication to consumers until they actually perform and have significant improvements in protecting the natural environment. Furthermore, such high accuracy of information and former contributions depicted in a CSR message can support a hotel's hidden goals of CSR engagement such as ameliorating a brand image or reputation. Since a salient challenge of CSR communication for a company is to cope with a consumer's view that it advertises itself using pro-social or pro-environmental efforts (Schlegelmilch & Pollach, 2005), message strategies verified in this research will be a means for not only increasing the potential to achieve a successful green CSR practice, but also satisfy a hotel's marketing objectives.

In the same vein, the present research sheds light on a direction for hotel managers to prompt guests' participation in its green programs. While hotels commonly use an environmental concern-oriented message, which tends to position the guests' mindset as an environmentalist (Goldstein, Cialdini, & Griskevicius, 2008), it is worth incorporating flattery in their green card, which can please a person's natural self-esteem and increase their green behavioral support. Overall, three different directions to create hotel's green CSR messages are suggested in this research. Therefore, depending on the

ultimate goals of CSR activities, hotel managers can adopt appropriate message strategies for their successful CSR communication with consumers.

Additionally, these two studies stress that even if a hotel is involved in various CSR programs and actively communicate with consumers, it might not have the positive outcomes it anticipates. Rather than simply posting the information or focusing on the achievement of CSR goals, it is wise for hotel managers to keep track of whether consumers trust their efforts and how they perceive their CSR motives. A short survey of hotel guests can be a follow-up to inquire about their thoughts regarding a hotel's green programs and monitor what stance they have on a hotel's efforts. In addition, hotel practitioners should accentuate their altruistic intention and ensure to be noticed by consumers through effective CSR communication.

FUTURE RESEARCH AND LIMITATIONS

In light of the findings of the two studies, there are several limitations that should be noted. First, this research did not include hotel class as an affecting factor for CSR communication. Since hotel class is an evident characteristic and the level of pro-environmental activities may depend on hotel class due to capability and feasibility, consumers typically demand more from upscale hotels (McGehee et al., 2009). Such consumers' different stance on a hotel's CSR practice in accordance with its class may have significant effects on how consumers construe the hotel's CSR messages. Thus, future study needs to examine the effects of hotel class. In a similar manner, consumers can also be categorized by the hotel class that they mostly choose to stay at. To more

precisely comprehend consumers' responses to hotels' CSR initiatives, segmented hotel consumer groups should be analyzed in future research.

Second, findings of the two experiments pertain to only American consumers. Although MTurk was used to include a wide range of the population, only people located in the U.S. were subject to the experiments. Since hotels' consumers are likely to be international, future research should expand to explore different populations, such as foreign consumers in order to improve the generalizability of the findings.

Third, as this research employed one specific green practice – saving water, other types of green programs including saving energy activities or recycling should be taken into consideration. Besides, in addition to pro-environmental CSR, hotels involve in many different kinds of pro-social programs like sponsorship, employee welfare, volunteering, or local community development. In-depth examinations of CSR message strategies for such different CSR programs will bolster the findings of this research and also, advance consumers' understanding of hotels' CSR communication.

Similarly, in terms of hotel guests' behavior, other pro-environmental behavior that hotels request their guests to perform during their stay, such as recycling or turning off the air conditioner or heater, can be a topic for future study. Also, recently hotels have asked their guests to donate money, hotel reward points, or left-over supplies to help a charity that has a partnership with them. For example, Best Western asks its guests to support the Better World Fund to aid people in need around the world (Best Western, 2016). Even though Lee and Moscardo (2005) found that pro-environmental consumers showed a higher tendency to behave in a pro-social manner, research about individuals'

pro-social behavior in the tourism context is relatively scarce (Mair, 2011). Given that, exploring consumers' pro-social actions at a hotel is an encouraging avenue, which will enhance the comprehension of consumer behavior in the service business.

Since this study measured consumers' intentions to reuse towels at a hotel, a field study should be conducted to examine actual hotel guests' towel reuse behavior.

Although Ajzen (1985) argued that intentions could represent actual behavior, constraints in addition to perceived motives or skepticism towards a hotel's CSR may exist in the actual hotel stay circumstance. According to Baker, Davis, and Weaver (2013), there are three barriers – comfort, luxury, and cost cutting – to hamper individuals' green actions in the hotel setting. A comfort barrier means the feeling of discomfort, which may be caused by green behavior (Dolnicar, Crouch, & Long, 2008). A luxury barrier indicates that guests expect to be well treated with high consumption of resources and believe that they have a right to be luxurious (Tzschentke, Kirk, & Lynch 2008). Lastly, cost cutting, which can be related to consumer skepticism, represents a guests' belief that green programs are undertaken to lower a hotel's costs (Baker et al., 2013). These constraints were found to have negative relationships with a consumers' choice of green hotels and financial support to hotels' green initiatives (Baker et al., 2013). Therefore, how these constraints, which are closely related to the quality of an individuals' hotel stay, influence their behavioral decisions towards a hotel's CSR program needs to be investigated in future research.

The present study sheds new light on the positive effects of flattery reinforcing self-enhancement on changing people's behavior in a pro-environmental fashion. As this

study integrated flattery into a CSR message, which also carried a social marketing purpose, it can be a steppingstone to an extended investigation of how self-enhancing messages influence other types of social marketing campaigns including responsible drinking, stopping smoking, or safe driving. Also, different kinds of self-enhancing messages besides flattery and the levels of that persuasive power need to be further explored in accordance with campaign characteristics such as types or target groups.

The perceived CSR motives measured in this research was dichotomized by public-serving versus self-serving (e.g., Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Foreh & Grier, 2003). However, other CSR studies further determined motives more specifically as value-driven, stakeholder-driven, egoistic-driven, and strategic-driven (Ellen et al., 2006). Utilizing this measurement will improve studies about consumers' perceptions of a firm's CSR motive in that it is eligible to identify what aspects of self-serving motives (e.g., to satisfy stakeholders' demand, to assist a company's marketing goals, or to merely fulfill its obligation) is magnified to consumers.

The final limitation is derived from MTurk. As an online platform for collecting data, MTurk allowed study participants to have complete freedom in terms of time, place, and behavior while participating in the experiments. This indicated that there could be possibilities that participants were not able to fully concentrate on the stimulus and questions as well as spend more time to complete a questionnaire than intended. Therefore, a lab or a place where distractions could be eliminated and where an identical environment could be provided to all participants would help to attain higher quality data, which would further improve the validity of findings.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

In compliance with an emphasis of CSR engagement on corporations' business, CSR communication is considered as a core element (Sorsa, 2008). However, given that CSR communication can be counterproductive to a firm (Du et al., 2010; Schlegelmilch & Pollach, 2005), companies need to take a careful approach in delivering pro-social or pro-environmental information to consumers. In particular, by looking into hotels' pro-environmental CSR communication and consumers' responses, this research demonstrates empirical evidence that communicating green efforts has indeed significant impacts on hotels' green CSR. Further, it highlights the importance of message framing in CSR communication by revealing positive consumer responses caused by message objectivity, impact-focused message content, and presence of flattery in CSR messages. Such results signify how to construct CSR messages should be a crucial matter for hotel managers in order to convince consumers to modify their judgment, which consequently improves the outcomes of its green CSR practices.

Consumers have limited cognitive ability and time with the overwhelming amount of information nowadays (Lang, 2000). It means that they are likely to provoke "bounded rationality" that they optimize their rationality with a limit of given boundaries (Simon, 1955). Also, because individuals attempt to arrive at the best decision by using as few cognitive inputs as possible, they come to rely on a heuristic, but effective cue (Chaiken, Liberman, & Eagly, 1989; Gigerenzer, 2004). As shown in the present study, a certain type of CSR message can serve as a cue for consumers to appraise the hotel's CSR practices, overall brand image, and reputation as well as lead them to change their

behavior. Therefore, further in-depth investigations of CSR communication strategies with diverse viewpoints need to be established to maximize the positive consequences of CSR communication while minimizing the boomerang effects of for-profit companies, including hotels.

References

- Aaker, David A. (1996). *Building Strong Brands*. New York, NY: The Free Press.
- Adams, C. A., Hill, W. Y., & Roberts, C. B. (1998). Corporate social reporting practices in Western Europe: legitimating corporate behavior?. *The British Accounting Review*, *30*(1), 1-21.
- Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Action control: From cognition to behavior* (pp. 11-39). Heidelberg, Berlin: Springer.
- Alniacik, U., & Yilmaz, C. (2012). The effectiveness of green advertising: Influences of claim specificity, product's environmental relevance, and consumers' pro-environmental orientation. *The Amfiteatru Economic Journal*, *14*(31), 207-222.
- Andreu, L., Casado-Díaz, A. B., & Mattila, A. S. (2015). Effects of message appeal and service type in CSR communication strategies. *Journal of Business Research*, *68*(7), 1488-1495.
- Bader, E. E. (2005). Sustainable hotel business practices. *Journal of Retail and Leisure Property*, *5*(1), 70-77.
- Bagozzi, R. P. (1991). Further thoughts on the validity of measures of elation, gladness, and joy. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *61*(1), 98.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *16*(1), 74-94.
- Baker, M. A., Davis, E. A., & Weaver, P. A. (2013). Eco-friendly attitudes, barriers to participation, and differences in behavior at green hotels. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, *55*(1), 89-99.
- Banerjee, B., & McKeage, K. (1994). How green is my value: exploring the relationship between environmentalism and materialism. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *21*, 147-147.
- Barone, M. J., Norman, A. T., & Miyazaki, A. D. (2007). Consumer response to retailer use of cause-related marketing: Is more fit better?. *Journal of Retailing*, *83*(4), 437-445.
- Baumeister, R. F. (1982). A self-presentational view of social phenomena. *Psychological Bulletin*, *91*(1), 3-26.

- Baumgardner, A. H., & Arkin, R. M. (1987). Coping with the Prospect of Social Disapproval. *Coping with Negative Life Events* (pp. 323-346). New York, NY: Springer.
- Baumgardner, A. H., Kaufman, C. M., & Levy, P. E. (1989). Regulating affect interpersonally: When low esteem leads to greater enhancement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *56*(6), 907-921.
- Becker-Olsen, K. L., Cudmore, B. A., & Hill, R. P. (2006). The impact of perceived corporate social responsibility on consumer behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, *59*(1), 46-53.
- Berens, G., & Van Rekom, J. (2008). *Facets of Corporate Identity, Communication and Reputation*. T. C. Melewar (Ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Berger, C. R., & Calabrese, R. J. (1975). Some explorations in initial interaction and beyond: Toward a developmental theory of interpersonal communication. *Human Communication Research*, *1*(2), 99-112.
- Berrone, P., Surroca, J., & Tribó, J. A. (2007). Corporate ethical identity as a determinant of firm performance: A test of the mediating role of stakeholder satisfaction. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *76*(1), 35-53.
- Best Western (2016). "Best Western for a better world", available at: <http://www.bestwestern.com/about-us/better-world/>
- Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2004). Doing better at doing good: When, why, and how consumers respond to corporate social initiatives. *California Management Review*, *47*(1), 9-24.
- Bloemer, J., & De Ruyter, K. (1999). Customer loyalty in high and low involvement service settings: the moderating impact of positive emotions. *Journal of Marketing Management*, *15*(4), 315-330.
- Bowen, H. R. (1953). *Social responsibility of the businessman*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Bohdanowicz, P. (2007). A case study of Hilton environmental reporting as a tool of corporate social responsibility. *Tourism Review International*, *11*(2), 115-131.
- Bontis, N., Booker, L. D., & Serenko, A. (2007). The mediating effect of organizational

- reputation on customer loyalty and service recommendation in the banking industry. *Management Decision*, 45(9), 1426-1445.
- Boush, D. M., Friestad, M., & Rose, G. M. (1994). Adolescent skepticism toward TV 165-175.
- Brady, A. K. O. (2005). *The sustainability effect: Rethinking corporate reputation in the 21st century*. Houndsmills, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Branco, M. C., & Rodrigues, L. L. (2006). Corporate social responsibility and resource-based perspectives. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 69(2), 111-132.
- Brenkert, G. G. (1992). Private corporations and public welfare. *Public Affairs Quarterly*, 6(2), 155-168.
- Brønn, P. S., & Vrioni, A. B. (2001). Corporate social responsibility and cause-related marketing: an overview. *International Journal of Advertising*, 20(2), 207-222.
- Brown, T. J., & Dacin, P. A. (1997). The company and the product: Corporate associations and consumer product responses. *The Journal of Marketing*, 61(1), 68-84.
- Buhrmester, M., Kwang, T., & Gosling, S. D. (2011). Amazon's Mechanical Turk a new source of inexpensive, yet high-quality, data?. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 6(1), 3-5.
- Calabrese, A., Costa, R., Menichini, T., Rosati, F., & Sanfelice, G. (2013). Turning Corporate Social Responsibility-driven Opportunities in Competitive Advantages: a Two-dimensional Model. *Knowledge and Process Management*, 20(1), 50-58.
- Campbell, M. C., & Kirmani, A. (2000). Consumers' use of persuasion knowledge: The effects of accessibility and cognitive capacity on perceptions of an influence agent. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 27(1), 69-83.
- Campbell, D., Craven, B., & Shrives, P. (2003). Voluntary social reporting in three FTSE sectors: a comment on perception and legitimacy. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, 16(4), 558-581.
- Carlson, L., Grove, S. J., & Kangun, N. (1993). A content analysis of environmental advertising claims: a matrix method approach. *Journal of Advertising*, 22(3), 27-39.
- Carroll, A. B. (1983). Corporate social responsibility: Will industry respond to cutbacks

- in social program funding. *Vital Speeches of the Day*, 49(19), 604-608.
- Carroll, A. B. (1999). Corporate social responsibility evolution of a definitional construct. *Business & society*, 38(3), 268-295.
- Carroll, A. B., & Shabana, K. M. (2010). The business case for corporate social responsibility: a review of concepts, research and practice. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 12(1), 85-105.
- Chaiken, S., Liberman, A., & Eagly, A. H. (1989). Heuristic and systematic information processing within and. In J. S. Uleman & J. A. Bargh (Eds.), *Unintended thought*, (pp. 212-252). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Chan, E., & Sengupta, J. (2010). Insincere flattery actually works: A dual-attitudes perspective. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 47(1), 122-133.
- Chan, R. Y., & Lau, L. B. (2004). The effectiveness of environmental claims among Chinese consumers: influences of claim type, country disposition and ecocentric orientation. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 20(3-4), 273-319.
- Chang, C. (2011). Feeling ambivalent about going green. *Journal of Advertising*, 40(4), 19-32.
- Chung, L. H., & Parker, L. D. (2010). Managing social and environmental action and accountability in the hospitality industry: A Singapore perspective. *Accounting Forum*, 34(1), 46-53.
- Chung-Herrera, B. G. (2007). Customers' psychological needs in different service industries. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 21(4), 263-269.
- Clarke, J., & Gibson-Sweet, M. (1999). The use of corporate social disclosures in the management of reputation and legitimacy: a cross sectoral analysis of UK Top 100 Companies. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 8(1), 5-13.
- Colman, A. M., & Olver, K. R. (1978). Reactions to flattery as a function of self-esteem: Self-enhancement and cognitive consistency theories. *British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 17(1), 25-29.
- Cone (2007). Research Report – 2007 Cone Cause Evolution & Environmental Survey. Retrieved from http://www.hreonline.com/pdfs/09012007Extra_EnvironmentalSurvey.pdf
- Crowther D. (2004). Corporate social reporting: genuine action or window dressing?. In

- D. Crowther, & L. Rayman-Bacchus (Eds.). *Perspectives on Corporate Social Responsibility* (140-160). Burlington, VA: Ashgate Publishing Company.
- Crump, M. J. C., McDonnell, J. V., & Gureckis, T. M. (2013). Evaluating Amazon's Mechanical Turk as a tool for experimental behavioral research. *PLoS ONE*, *8*, 1-17.
- de Grosbois, D. (2012). Corporate social responsibility reporting by the global hotel industry: Commitment, initiatives and performance. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *31*(3), 896-905.
- Dann, G., & Cohen, E. (1991). Sociology and tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *18*(1), 155-169.
- Darley, W. K., & Smith, R. E. (1993). Advertising claim objectivity: Antecedents and effects. *The Journal of Marketing* *57*(4), 100-113.
- Davis, K. (1960). Can business afford to ignore social responsibilities?. *California Management Review*, *2*(3).
- Dawkins, J. (2005). Corporate responsibility: The communication challenge. *Journal of Communication Management*, *9*(2), 108-119.
- De Groot, J., & Steg, L. (2007). General beliefs and the theory of planned behavior: The role of environmental concerns in the TPB. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *37*(8), 1817-1836.
- De Groot, J. I., & Steg, L. (2008). Value orientations to explain beliefs related to environmental significant behavior how to measure egoistic, altruistic, and biospheric value orientations. *Environment and Behavior*, *40*(3), 330-354.
- DeGeorge, R.T. (1990). *Business Ethics*. New York, NY: MacMillan Publishing Company.
- Doane, D. (2002). *Market failure: The case for mandatory social and environmental reporting*. Retrieved from <http://www.hapinternational.org/pool/files/doanepaper1.pdf>
- Dolnicar, S., Crouch, G. I., & Long, P. (2008). Environment-friendly tourists: what do we really know about them?. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *16*(2), 197-210.
- Dozier, D. M. (1993). Image, reputation and mass communication effects. In W.

- Armbrecht, H. Avenarius, & U. Zabel (Eds.), *Image und PR* (pp. 227-250). Opladen, Leverkusen: Westdeutscher Verlag Image und PR.
- Drumwright, M. E. (1996). Company advertising with a social dimension: The role of noneconomic criteria. *The Journal of Marketing*, 60(4), 71-87.
- Du, S., Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2010). Maximizing business returns to corporate social responsibility (CSR): The role of CSR communication. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 12(1), 8-19.
- Duncan, T., & Moriarty, S. E. (1998). A communication-based marketing model for managing relationships. *The Journal of Marketing*, 62, 1-13.
- Dunlap, R. E., Van Liere, K. D., Mertig, A. G., & Jones, R. E. (2000). New trends in measuring environmental attitudes: measuring endorsement of the new ecological paradigm: a revised NEP scale. *Journal of Social Issues*, 56(3), 425-442.
- Dwyer, F. R., Schurr, P. H., & Oh, S. (1987). Developing buyer-seller relationships. *The Journal of Marketing*, 51(2), 11-27.
- Eberle, D., Berens, G., & Li, T. (2013). The impact of interactive corporate social responsibility communication on corporate reputation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 118(4), 731-746.
- Ebreo, A., Hershey, J., & Vining, J. (1999). Reducing solid waste linking recycling to environmentally responsible consumerism. *Environment and Behavior*, 31(1), 107-135.
- Edell, J. A., & Staelin, R. (1983). The information processing of pictures in print advertisements. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 10(1), 45-61.
- El Dief, M., & Font, X. (2010). The determinants of hotels' marketing managers' green marketing behaviour. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(2), 157-174.
- Ellen, P. S., Webb, D. J., & Mohr, L. A. (2006). Building corporate associations: Consumer attributions for corporate socially responsible programs. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 34(2), 147-157.
- Ellonen, H. K., Tarkiainen, A., & Kuivalainen, O. (2010). The effect of website usage and virtual community participation on brand relationships. *International Journal of Internet Marketing and Advertising*, 6(1), 85-105.
- Elving, W. J. (2010). Trends and developments within corporate communication: an

- analysis of ten years of CCIJ. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 15(1), 5-8.
- Entman, R. M. (1993). Framing: Toward clarification of a fractured paradigm. *Journal of Communication*, 43(4), 51-58.
- Epstein, S. (1973). The self-concept revisited: Or a theory of a theory. *American Psychologist*, 28(5), 404-416.
- Fein, S. (1996). Effects of suspicion on attributional thinking and the correspondence bias. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70(6), 1164.
- Fein, S., Hilton, J. L., & Miller, D. T. (1990). Suspicion of ulterior motivation and the correspondence bias. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 58(5), 753.
- Flammer, C. (2012). Corporate social responsibility and shareholder reaction: The environmental awareness of investors. *Academy of Management Journal*, 56(3), 758-781.
- Flanagin, A. J., & Metzger, M. J. (2000). Perceptions of Internet information credibility. *Journal & Mass Communication Quarterly*, 77(3), 515-540.
- Flanagin, A. J., & Metzger, M. J. (2007). The role of site features, user attributes, and information verification behaviors on the perceived credibility of web-based information. *New Media & Society*, 9(2), 319-342.
- Fogg, B. J., & Nass, C. (1997). Silicon sycophants: the effects of computers that flatter. *International Journal of Human-Computer Studies*, 46(5), 551-561.
- Folkes, V. S. (1988). Recent attribution research in consumer behavior: A review and new directions. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14(4), 548-565.
- Folkes, V. S., & Kotsos, B. (1986). Buyers' and sellers' explanations for product failure: who done it?. *The Journal of Marketing*, 50(2), 74-80.
- Fombrun, C. J. (1996). *Reputation: Realizing value from the corporate image*, Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Fombrun, C., & Shanley, M. (1990). What's in a name? Reputation building and corporate strategy. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(2), 233-258.
- Fombrun, C., & van Riel, C. (1997). The reputational landscape. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 1(1 & 2), 1-16.

- Font, X., Walmsley, A., Cogotti, S., McCombes, L., & Häusler, N. (2012). Corporate social responsibility: The disclosure–performance gap. *Tourism Management, 33*(6), 1544-1553.
- Ford, G. T., Smith, D. B., & Swasy, J. L. (1990). Consumer skepticism of advertising claims: Testing hypotheses from economics of information. *Journal of Consumer Research, 16*(4), 433-441.
- Foreh, M. R., & Grier, S. (2003). When is honesty the best policy? The effect of stated company intent on consumer skepticism. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 13*(3), 349-356.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*(3), 382-388.
- Franks, D. D., & Marolla, J. (1976). Efficacious action and social approval as interacting dimensions of self-esteem: A tentative formulation through construct validation, *Sociometry, 39*(4), 324-341.
- Frederick, W. C. (2008). Corporate social responsibility: deep roots, flourishing growth, promising future. In A. Crane, A. McWilliams, D. Matten, J. Moon, & D. Siegel (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Corporate Social Responsibility* (pp. 522-531). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Friestad, M., & Wright, P. (1994). The persuasion knowledge model: How people cope with persuasion attempts. *Journal of Consumer Research, 21*(1), 1-31.
- Galarraga, I., Markandya, A. (2004): “Economic techniques to estimate the demand for sustainable products: A case study for fair trade and organic coffee in the United Kingdom”, *Economía Agraria y Recursos Naturales, 4*(7), 109-134.
- Gao, Y. (2011). CSR in an emerging country: a content analysis of CSR reports of listed companies. *Baltic Journal of Management, 6*(2), 263-291.
- Gardberg, N. A., & Fombrun, C. J. (2006). Corporate citizenship: Creating intangible assets across institutional environments. *Academy of Management Review, 31*(2), 329-346.
- Gatersleben, B., Steg, L., & Vlek, C. (2002). Measurement and determinants of environmentally significant consumer behavior. *Environment and Behavior, 34*(3), 335-362.

- Gigerenzer, G. (2004). Fast and frugal heuristics: The tools of bounded rationality. In D. Koehler & N. Harvey (Eds.), *Blackwell handbook of judgment and decision making* (pp. 62-88). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Gilbert, D. T. (1989). Thinking lightly about others: Automatic components of the social inference process. *Unintended Thought* (189-211). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Gilbert, D. T., & Malone, P. S. (1995). The correspondence bias. *Psychological Bulletin*, *117*(1), 21-38.
- Gilbert, D. T., Pelham, B. W., & Krull, D. S. (1988). On cognitive busyness: When person perceivers meet persons perceived. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *54*(5), 733.
- Goldberg, M. E., & Hartwick, J. (1990). The effects of advertiser reputation and extremity of advertising claim on advertising effectiveness. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *17*(2), 172-179.
- Goldstein, N., Cialdini, R., & Griskevicius, V. (2008). A room with a viewpoint: Using norm-based appeals to motivate conservation behaviors in a hotel setting. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *35*(3), 472-482.
- Golob, U., & Bartlett, J. L. (2007). Communicating about corporate social responsibility: A comparative study of CSR reporting in Australia and Slovenia. *Public Relations Review*, *33*(1), 1-9.
- Golob, U., Lah, M., & Jančič, Z. (2008). Value orientations and consumer expectations of corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, *14*(2), 83-96.
- Goodman, M. B. (1998). *Corporate communications for executives*. Albany, NY: SUNY Press.
- Gordon, R. A. (1996). Impact of ingratiation on judgments and evaluations: A meta-analytic investigation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *71*(1), 54.
- Grau, S. L., & Folse, J. A. G. (2007). Cause-related marketing (CRM): The influence of donation proximity and message-framing cues on the less-involved consumer. *Journal of Advertising*, *36*(4), 19-33.
- Gray, E. R., & Balmer, J. M. (1998). Managing corporate image and corporate

- reputation. *Long Range Planning*, 31(5), 695-702.
- Gray, R., Owen, D., & Adams, C. (1996). *Accounting & accountability: changes and challenges in corporate social and environmental reporting*. London, UK: Prentice Hall.
- Groza, M. D., Pronschinske, M. R., & Walker, M. (2011). Perceived organizational motives and consumer responses to proactive and reactive CSR. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 102(4), 639-652.
- Grubb, E. L., & Grathwohl, H. L. (1967). Consumer self-concept, symbolism and market behavior: A theoretical approach. *The Journal of Marketing*, 31(4), 22-27.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective*. Upper Saddle River, N.J: Pearson Prentice Hall
- Hall, R. (1992). The strategic analysis of intangible resources. *Strategic Management Journal*, 13(2), 135-144.
- Heider, F. (1958). *The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations*. New York, NY: Wiley
- Heidinger, A. (2012). *About the role of CSR communication as a determinant of consumer attitudes towards brands-Identification of CSR message features creating positive attitudes towards CSR messages and brands behind it*. Retrieved from the University of Twente, Netherlands.
- Herbig, P., & Milewicz, J. (1997). The relationship of reputation and credibility to brand success. *Pricing Strategy and Practice*, 5(1), 25-29.
- Hetter, K. (2013, Mar. 6). Hotel towel dilemma: Replace or reuse? *CNN*. Retrieved from <http://www.cnn.com/2013/03/06/travel/sustainable-hotels/>
- Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: a theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review*, 94(3), 319-340.
- Higgins, C. A., & Judge, T. A. (2004). The effect of applicant influence tactics on recruiter perceptions of fit and hiring recommendations: a field study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(4), 622-632.
- Hillman, A. J., & Keim, G. D. (2001). Shareholder value, stakeholder management, and social issues: what's the bottom line?. *Strategic Management Journal*, 22(2), 125-139.

- Hiscock, J. (2001). Most trusted brands. *Marketing*, 1(March), 32-3.
- Holbrook, M. B. (1978). Beyond attitude structure: Toward the informational determinants of attitude. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 15(4), 545-556.
- Holcomb, J. L., Upchurch, R. S., & Okumus, F. (2007). Corporate social responsibility: what are top hotel companies reporting?. *International journal of contemporary hospitality management*, 19(6), 461-475.
- Idowu, S. O., & Towler, B. A. (2004). A comparative study of the contents of corporate social responsibility reports of UK companies. *Management of Environmental Quality: an International Journal*, 15(4), 420-437.
- Ihlen, Ø., Bartlett, J., & May, S. (Eds.). (2011). *The handbook of communication and corporate social responsibility*. Oxford, UK: John Wiley & Sons.
- Jones, E. E. (1990). *Interpersonal perception*. New York, NY: WH Freeman/Times Books/Henry Holt & Co.
- Jones, S. C. (1973). Self-and interpersonal evaluations: esteem theories versus consistency theories. *Psychological Bulletin*, 79(3), 185-199.
- Jones, E. E., & Davis, K. E. (1965). From acts to dispositions the attribution process in person perception. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 2, 219-266.
- Jones, E. E., & Harris, V. A. (1967). The attribution of attitudes. *Journal of experimental social psychology*, 3(1), 1-24.
- Kang, K. H., Stein, L., Heo, C. Y., & Lee, S. (2012). Consumers' willingness to pay for green initiatives of the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(2), 564-572.
- Kennedy Nyahunzvi, D. (2013). CSR reporting among Zimbabwe's hotel groups: a content analysis. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 25(4), 595-613.
- Kim, Y. J., & Lee, W. N. (2009). Overcoming consumer skepticism in cause-related marketing: The effects of corporate social responsibility and donation size claim objectivity. *Journal of Promotion Management*, 15(4), 465-483.
- Kirk, D. (1995). Environmental management in hotels. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 7(6), 3-8.

- Klein, J., & Dawar, N. (2004). Corporate social responsibility and consumers' attributions and brand evaluations in a product-harm crisis. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 21(3), 203-217.
- Klein, B., & Leffler, K. B. (1981). The role of market forces in assuring contractual performance. *The Journal of Political Economy*, 89(4), 615-641.
- Klein, J. G., Smith, N. C., & John, A. (2004). Why we boycott: Consumer motivations for boycott participation. *Journal of Marketing*, 68(3), 92-109.
- Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Knowles, T., Macmillan, S., Palmer, J., Grabowski, P., & Hashimoto, A. (1999). The development of environmental initiatives in tourism: responses from the London hotel sector. *International Journal of tourism research*, 1(4), 255-265.
- Kolk, A. M., van der Veen, M., Pinkse, J., & Fortanier, F. (2005). KPMG international survey of corporate responsibility reporting 2005. *KPMG Global Sustainability Services*. Retrieved from <http://www.sba.pdx.edu/faculty/darrellb/dbaccess/AccountingClasses/MIM521/KPMG.pdf>
- Kotler, P. & Lee, N. (2005). *Corporate social responsibility: Doing the most good for your company and your cause*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Kotler, P., & Zaltman, G. (1971). Social marketing: an approach to planned social change. *The Journal of Marketing*, 35(3), 3-12.
- Lafferty, B. A., & Goldsmith, R. E. (1999). Corporate credibility's role in consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions when a high versus a low credibility endorser is used in the ad. *Journal of Business Research*, 44(2), 109-116.
- Lang, T. C. (2000). The effect of the Internet on travel consumer purchasing behaviour and implications for travel agencies. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 6(4), 368-385.
- Lange, D., & Washburn, N. T. (2012). Understanding attributions of corporate social irresponsibility. *Academy of Management Review*, 37(2), 300-326.
- Lantos, G. P. (2001). The boundaries of strategic corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 18(7), 595-632.
- Lee, N. R., & Kotler, P. (2015). *Social marketing: Changing behaviors for good*.

Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

- Lee, W. H., & Moscardo, G. (2005). Understanding the impact of ecotourism resort experiences on tourists' environmental attitudes and behavioural intentions. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 13(6), 546-565.
- Levy, S. E., & Duverger, P. (2010). *Consumer perceptions of sustainability in the lodging industry: examination of sustainable tourism criteria*, International CHRIE Conference-Refereed Track, 31. Retrieved from http://scholarworks.umass.edu/refereed/CHRIE_2010/Friday/31/
- Lichtenstein, D. R., Drumwright, M. E., & Braig, B. M. (2004). The effect of corporate social responsibility on customer donations to corporate-supported nonprofits. *Journal of Marketing*, 68(4), 16-32.
- Liljander, V., & Strandvik, T. (1997). Emotions in service satisfaction. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 8(2), 148-169.
- Lindenmeier, J., Schleer, C., & Priel, D. (2012). Consumer outrage: Emotional reactions to unethical corporate behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, 65(9), 1364-1373.
- Lindgreen, A., & Swaen, V. (2010). Corporate social responsibility. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 12(1), 1-7.
- McGehee, N. G., & Meng, F. (2006). The politics of perception: Legislative images of the tourism industry in Virginia and North Carolina. *Journal of Travel Research*, 44(4), 368-378.
- McGehee, N. G., Wattanakamolchai, S., Perdue, R. R., & Calvert, E. O. (2009). Corporate social responsibility within the US lodging industry: an exploratory study. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 33(3), 417-437.
- McGrath, S. (2011). Skepticism about moral expertise as a puzzle for moral realism. *The Journal of Philosophy*, 108(3), 111-137.
- McWilliams, A., Siegel, D. S., & Wright, P. M. (2006). Corporate social responsibility: Strategic implications. *Journal of Management Studies*, 43(1), 1-18.
- MacKenzie, S. B., & Lutz, R. J. (1989). An empirical examination of the structural antecedents of attitude toward the ad in an advertising pretesting context. *The Journal of Marketing*, 53(2), 48-65.
- Maignan, I., & Ralston, D. A. (2002). Corporate social responsibility in Europe and the

- US: Insights from businesses' self-presentations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 33(3), 497-514.
- Main, K. J., Dahl, D. W., & Darke, P. R. (2007). Deliberative and automatic bases of suspicion: Empirical evidence of the sinister attribution error. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 17(1), 59-69.
- Mainieri, T., Barnett, E. G., Valdero, T. R., Unipan, J. B., & Oskamp, S. (1997). Green buying: The influence of environmental concern on consumer behavior. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 137(2), 189-204.
- Mair, J. (2011). Exploring air travellers' voluntary carbon-offsetting behaviour. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19(2), 215-230.
- Martin, H. (2014, May 25). About half of hotel guests reuse towels to save water, energy, *LA Times*, Retrieved from <http://www.latimes.com/business/la-fi-half-of-hotel-guests-reuse-towels-20140523-story.html>.
- Maslow, A. (1954). *Motivation and personality*. New York, NY: Harper.
- Mathieson, A., & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism, economic, physical and social impacts*. London, UK: Longman.
- Melo, T., & Galan, J. I. (2011). Effects of corporate social responsibility on brand value. *Journal of Brand Management*, 18(6), 423-437.
- Menon, S., & Kahn, B. E. (2003). Corporate sponsorships of philanthropic activities: when do they impact perception of sponsor brand?. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 13(3), 316-327.
- Miao, L., & Wei, W. (2013). Consumers' pro-environmental behavior and the underlying motivations: A comparison between household and hotel settings. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 32, 102-112.
- Milgrom, P., & Roberts, J. (1986). Price and advertising signals of product quality. *The Journal of Political Economy*, 94(4), 796-821.
- Millar, M. (2010). *Travelers' most preferred green attributes for a hotel room*. Retrieved from <http://repository.usfca.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1010&context=hosp>
- Mohr, L. A., Eroğlu, D., & Ellen, P. S. (1998). The development and testing of a measure of skepticism toward environmental claims in marketers' communications. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 32(1), 30-55.

- Mohr, L. A., Webb, D. J., & Harris, K. E. (2001). Do consumers expect companies to be socially responsible? The impact of corporate social responsibility on buying behavior. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, 35(1), 45-72.
- Morsing, M. (2003). Conspicuous responsibility: communicating responsibility - to whom?. In M. Morsing & C. Thyssen (Eds.), *Corporate Values and Responsibility: The Case of Denmark* (pp. 145-154), Samfundslitteratur, Frederiksberg: Gazelle Book Services Limited.
- Morsing, M. (2006). Corporate social responsibility as strategic auto-communication: on the role of external stakeholders for member identification. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 15(2), 171-182.
- Morsing, M., & Schultz, M. (2006). Corporate social responsibility communication: stakeholder information, response and involvement strategies. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 15(4), 323-338.
- Muller, G. F., & Sonnenmoser, M. (1998). Social and moral dimension of environmentally friendly everyday behavior. *Gruppendynamik-Zeitschrift Fur Angewandte Sozialpsychologie*, 29(4), 379-391.
- Nelson, P. (1974). Advertising as information. *The Journal of Political Economy*, 82(4), 729-754.
- Nguyen, N., & Leblanc, G. (2001). Corporate image and corporate reputation in customers' retention decisions in services. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 8(4), 227-236.
- Nicosia, F. M. (1966). *Consumer decision process: Marketing and advertising implications*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Nielsen (2013, Sep. 6). How to engage with socially conscious consumers. Retrieved from <http://www.4hoteliers.com/features/article/7870>
- Nunnally, J. (1978). *Psychometric methods*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Obermiller, C., Spangenberg, E., & MacLachlan, D. L. (2005). Ad skepticism: The consequences of disbelief. *Journal of Advertising*, 34(3), 7-17.
- Oliver, R. L. (1993). A conceptual model of service quality and service satisfaction: compatible goals, different concepts. *Advances in Services Marketing and Management*, 2(4), 65-85.

- Panwar, R., Rinne, T., Hansen, E., & Juslin, H. (2006). Corporate responsibility: balancing economic, environmental, and social issues in the forest products industry. *Forest Products Journal*, 56(2), 4-13.
- Park, J., Stoel, L., & Lennon, S. J. (2008). Cognitive, affective and conative responses to visual simulation: The effects of rotation in online product presentation. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 7(1), 72-87.
- Petty, R. E., Unnava, R. H., & Strathman, A. J. (1991). Theories of attitude change. *Handbook of consumer behavior* (pp. 241-280). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall
- Podnar, K. (2008). Guest editorial: communicating corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 14(2), 75-81.
- Pollach, I. (2005). Corporate self-presentation on the WWW: Strategies for enhancing usability, credibility and utility. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 10(4), 285-301.
- Porter, M. E., & Kramer, M. R. (2002). The competitive advantage of corporate philanthropy. *Harvard Business Review*, 80(12), 56-68.
- Porter, M. E., & Kramer, M. R. (2006). The link between competitive advantage and corporate social responsibility. *Harvard Business Review*, 84(12), 78-92.
- Pracejus, J. W., Olsen, G. D., & Brown, N. R. (2003). On the prevalence and impact of vague quantifiers in the advertising of cause-related marketing (CRM). *Journal of Advertising*, 32(4), 19-28.
- Priego, M. J. B., & Palacios, C. A. (2008). Analysis of environmental statements issued by EMAS-certified Spanish hotels. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 49(4), 381-394.
- Rahman, I., Park, J., & Chi, C. G. Q. (2015). Consequences of “greenwashing” Consumers’ reactions to hotels’ green initiatives. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(6), 1054-1081.
- Reisch, L. (2006). *Communicating CSR to consumers: An empirical study*. In *Strategic CSR Communication*. M. Morsing & S.C. Beckmann (Eds.). Copenhagen: DJOF Publishing.
- Rifon, N. J., Choi, S. M., Trimble, C. S., & Li, H. (2004). Congruence effects in

- sponsorship: The mediating role of sponsor credibility and consumer attributions of sponsor motive. *Journal of Advertising*, 33(1), 30-42.
- Roeser, R. W., & Galloway, M. G. (2002). Studying motivation to learn in early adolescence: A holistic perspective. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Academic motivation of adolescents: Adolescence and Education* (331-372). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.
- Rogers, C. R. (1959). A theory of therapy, personality, and interpersonal relationships, as developed in the client-centered framework. S. Koch (Ed.), *Psychology: A Study of a Science: Vol. 3* (pp. 184-256). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Romani, S., Grappi, S., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2014). Corporate Socially responsible initiatives and their effects on consumption of green products. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1-12. DOI: 10.1007/s10551-014-2485-0
- Russo, M. V., & Fouts, P. A. (1997). A resource-based perspective on corporate environmental performance and profitability. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(3), 534-559.
- Schlegelmilch, B. B., & Pollach, I. (2005). The perils and opportunities of communicating corporate ethics. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 21(3-4), 267-290.
- Schneider, B., & Bowen, D. E. (1999). Understanding customer delight and outrage. *Sloan Management review*, 41(1), 35-45.
- Schnietz, K. E., & Epstein, M. J. (2005). Exploring the financial value of a reputation for corporate social responsibility during a crisis. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 7(4), 327-345.
- Sen, S., & Bhattacharya, C. B. (2001). Does doing good always lead to doing better? Consumer reactions to corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 38(2), 225-243.
- Sheldon, P. J., & Park, S. Y. (2010). An exploratory study of corporate social responsibility in the US travel industry. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(4), 392-407.
- Simon, H. A. (1955). A behavioral model of rational choice. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 69(1), 99-118.
- Simmons, C. J., & Becker-Olsen, K. L. (2006). Achieving marketing objectives through

- social sponsorships. *The Journal of Marketing*, 70(4), 154-169.
- Singh, S., Kristensen, L., & Villaseñor, E. (2009). Overcoming skepticism towards cause related claims: the case of Norway. *International Marketing Review*, 26(3), 312-326.
- Sjovall, A. M., & Talk, A. C. (2004). From actions to impressions: Cognitive attribution theory and the formation of corporate reputation. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 7(3), 269-281.
- Skarmeas, D., & Leonidou, C. N. (2013). When consumers doubt, watch out! The role of CSR skepticism. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(10), 1831-1838.
- Smith, K. T., & Alexander, J. J. (2013). Which CSR-related headings do Fortune 500 companies use on their websites?. *Business Communication Quarterly*, 76(2), 155-171.
- Sorsa, V. P. (2008). How to explain socially responsible corporate actions institutionally: theoretical and methodological critique. *Electronic Journal of Business Ethics and Organization Studies*, 13(1), 32-41.
- Speed, R., & Thompson, P. (2000). Determinants of sports sponsorship response. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28(2), 226-238.
- Stengel, R. (2002). *You're too kind: A brief history of flattery*. New York, NY: Simon and Schuster.
- Stern, P. C., & Dietz, T. (1994). The value basis of environmental concern. *Journal of Social Issues*, 50(3), 65-84.
- Stittle, J. (2002). UK corporate ethical reporting—A failure to inform: Some evidence from company annual reports. *Business and Society Review*, 107(3), 349-370.
- Tanner, C., & Wölfling Kast, S. (2003). Promoting sustainable consumption: Determinants of green purchases by Swiss consumers. *Psychology & Marketing*, 20(10), 883-902.
- Taylor, S. E., & Brown, J. D. (1988). Illusion and well-being: a social psychological perspective on mental health. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103(2), 193-210.
- Taylor, S. E., & Lobel, M. (1989). Social comparison activity under threat: downward evaluation and upward contacts. *Psychological Review*, 96(4), 569-575.

- Tench, R., Sun, W., & Jones, B. (2014). Introduction: CSR communication as an emerging field of study. *Critical Studies on Corporate Responsibility, Governance and Sustainability*, 6, 3-21.
- Tesser, A. (1988). Toward a self-evaluation maintenance model of social behavior. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 21, 181-227.
- Tilt, C. A. (1997). Environmental policies of major companies: Australian evidence. *The British Accounting Review*, 29(4), 367-394.
- Torres, E. N., & Kline, S. (2013). From customer satisfaction to customer delight: Creating a new standard of service for the hotel industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 25(5), 642-659.
- TripAdvisor (2013, Sep. 25). AH&LA integrates TripAdvisor GreenLeaders™ program's eco-friendly requirements: Organizations align to drive increased adoption of sustainability initiatives. Retrieved from <http://ir.tripadvisor.com/releasedetail.cfm?ReleaseID=793135>
- Tzschentke, N. A., Kirk, D., & Lynch, P. A. (2008). Going green: Decisional factors in small hospitality operations. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27(1), 126-133.
- United States Environmental Protection Agency (2012, Nov. 30). Saving waters in hotels. Retrieved from http://www.epa.gov/watersense/commercial/docs/factsheets/hotels_fact_sheet_508.pdf
- U.S. Travel Association (2009). *Travel facts and statistics*. Retrieved from <http://www.ustravel.org/news/press-kit/travel-facts-and-statistics>
- Van der Laan, S. (2009). The role of theory in explaining motivation for corporate social disclosures: Voluntary disclosures vs. 'solicited' disclosures. *Australasian Accounting, Business and Finance Journal*, 3(4), 2.
- Vanhamme, J., & Grobben, B. (2009). "Too good to be true!". The effectiveness of CSR history in countering negative publicity. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 85(2), 273-283.
- Verrecchia, R. E. (1983). Discretionary disclosure. *Journal of Accounting and Economics*, 5, 179-194.
- Vilanova, M., Lozano, J. M., & Arenas, D. (2009). Exploring the nature of the

- relationship between CSR and competitiveness. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 87(1), 57-69.
- Vlachos, P. A., Tsamakos, A., Vrechopoulos, A. P., & Avramidis, P. K. (2009). Corporate social responsibility: attributions, loyalty, and the mediating role of trust. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 37(2), 170-180.
- Vonk, R. (1998). The slime effect: Suspicion and dislike of likeable behavior toward superiors. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(4), 849-864.
- Vonk, R. (2002). Self-serving interpretations of flattery: why ingratiation works. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82(4), 515.
- Vries, G., Terwel, B. W., Ellemers, N., & Daamen, D. D. (2015). Sustainability or profitability? How communicated motives for environmental policy affect public perceptions of corporate greenwashing. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 22(3), 142-154.
- Walker, M., Heere, B., Parent, M. M., & Drane, D. (2010). Social responsibility and the Olympic Games: The mediating role of consumer attributions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 95(4), 659-680.
- Wanderley, L. S. O., Lucian, R., Farache, F., & de Sousa Filho, J. M. (2008). CSR information disclosure on the web: a context-based approach analyzing the influence of country of origin and industry sector. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 82(2), 369-378.
- Webb, D. J., & Mohr, L. A. (1998). A typology of consumer responses to cause-related marketing: From skeptics to socially concerned. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 17(2), 226-238.
- Weber, M. (2008). The business case for corporate social responsibility: A company-level measurement approach for CSR. *European Management Journal*, 26(4), 247-261.
- Weiner, B. (1980). May I borrow your class notes? An attributional analysis of judgments of help giving in an achievement-related context. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72(5), 676-681.
- Winter, L., & Uleman, J. S. (1984). When are social judgments made? Evidence for the spontaneousness of trait inferences. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 47(2), 237-252.

- Winter, L., Uleman, J. S., & Cunniff, C. (1985). How automatic are social judgments?. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 49(4), 904-917.
- Woodward, D. G., Edwards, P., & Birkin, F. (1996). Organizational legitimacy and stakeholder information provision1. *British Journal of Management*, 7(4), 329-347.
- Yoon, Y., Gürhan-Canli, Z., & Schwarz, N. (2006). The effect of corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities on companies with bad reputations. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 16(4), 377-390.
- Ziek, P. (2009). Making sense of CSR communication. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 16(3), 137-145.