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PERCEPTUAL DETERMINANTS OF CONSUMPTION PHILANTHROPY DONATION

INTENTIONS: CONSUMPTION OR PHILANTHROPY?

A Dissertation

by

NESE NASIF

Submitted to the Graduate College of
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In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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PERCEPTUAL DETERMINANTS OF CONSUMPTION PHILANTHROPY DONATION

INTENTIONS: CONSUMPTION OR PHILANTHROPY?

A Dissertation
by
NESE NASIF

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August 2016

ABSTRACT

Nasif, Nese, <u>Perceptual Determinants of Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions:</u>

<u>Consumption or Philanthropy?</u> Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.), August, 2016, 167 pp., 41 tables,

25 figures, references, 208 titles, 6 appendices.

Consumption philanthropy is the concurrent consumption of self-interested products

while contributing to a charitable cause. Although this overarching notion has been widely

investigated in the context of cause-related marketing, there has been little work done in

marketing or other disciplines in its alternative context of donor giving behavior. Thus, the

current research conceptually develops and empirically investigates a model of consumption

philanthropy donation intentions (CPDI) where a potentially valued gift is offered in return for a

monetary donation by an individual consumer. The conceptual model integrates three

fundamental frameworks from marketing and psychology, as well as incorporates a multi-

disciplinary body of prior research in investigating the theoretical relationships among the

determinants of CPDI. The measurement models and hypothesized relationships are assessed

empirically using survey data and partial least squares structural equation modeling. The focal

construct of interest, CPDI, is further evaluated using electroencephalography (EEG) and its

accompanying methodology of hemispheric asymmetry. The conclusions and implications of

empirical testing are discussed, and areas for future research are suggested.

DEDICATION

"If you have built castles in the air, your work need not be lost; that is where they should be. Now put the foundations under them."
-Henry David Thoreau

Thank you to my husband, David Semple, for supporting me in my goal to obtain my PhD without having to sacrifice our aspirations of having a family. The narrative of persevering and sleepless doctoral students applies at least as much to the partners who support them. We could not have accomplished all that we have in the past few years without your commitment to my success and to helping to raise our wonderful girls, Rose and Alice. This dissertation is dedicated to the three of you.

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"Our chief want in life is somebody who shall make us do what we can."
-Ralph Waldo Emerson

My dissertation committee was instrumental to me, not only in their advice on this

project, but in helping me to develop into a marketing scholar throughout these past years. I am

indebted to Dr. Michael S. Minor for inspiring my interest in marketing and encouraging me to

explore the ways that marketing can contribute across various academic disciplines. The

resources he provided for research and teaching were invaluable in my scholarly development,

including access to technology, expertise, and opportunities for publication. Dr. Minor's

commitment to innovations regarding the content of and methodologies in marketing research

has allowed me to spend the dissertation portion of completing my degree working on a topic for

which I have a genuine concern and curiosity. I am grateful to Dr. Xiaojing Sheng, who has been

an unofficial mentor to me from my first year in the PhD program and has served as a role model

of an instructor and research supervisor that is knowledgeable, collegial, and motivating. I hope

to emulate her example in my own career in academia. Thank you to Dr. Penny M. Simpson,

who held me to high standards of scholarship with integrity in coursework, research, and

throughout the completion of this dissertation, including encouraging me to exceed my own

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operationalization of the focal constructs in this research. Although they were not on my

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"To give away money is an easy matter and in any man's power. But to decide to whom to give it and how large and when, and for what purpose and how, is neither in every man's power nor an easy matter."
-Aristotle

The division between non-profit charitable organizations and for-profit business

enterprises had traditionally been clear to consumers. Until recent times, the marketplace was

positioned in consumers' minds and structurally organized such that charitable organizations had

the objective of raising resources to benefit social welfare by relying on the altruistic behaviors

of consumers, and other businesses had a main objective of maximizing profit through value

based exchange with consumers. That's not to say the latter could not promote social welfare, as

well. Indeed, traditional economic and managerial theory espouses that social welfare is

increased primarily through the self-interested profit-maximization of businesses (e.g., Berle

1931, Friedman 1962, Jensen 2002), the logic being that profit-maximization results in increased

jobs and a general increase in standards of living. Nobel Prize winning economist Milton

Friedman affirmed that businesses are ethically obligated to enrich their shareholders for the risk

they took in investing in the business and individual shareholders would then decide which social

initiatives would receive their resources (Friedman 1970) – the corollary to this assertion being

that any use of resources that would otherwise enrich shareholders, such as any charitable

initiatives, would actually be an unethical use of a firm's resources. Adam Smith, a pioneer of

1

political economy, considered any economic altruism to be unnecessary, since a competitive market system of self-interested individuals would naturally result in a maximum level of social welfare (Smith 1776), including the notion that self-interested individuals would naturally engage in charity in order to gain approval from others (Smith 1759).

The delineation between charitable causes and for-profit business activities has become increasingly distorted. For example, in the wake of the 9/11 terrorist attacks and after an appeal from the current U.S. president that consumers should return to shopping to normalize their lives and benefit the economy, many businesses had the strategic response of nationalizing their brand images and co-branding with charities (Dickinson 2005). During this time, a national survey of consumers found that 81 percent were willing to switch to brands that were associated with charitable causes if price and quality were comparable, a dramatic increase from 54 percent of consumers just months before the attacks (Cone Communications 2002). The trend has been sustained, however, with recent studies of consumer behavior showing that consumers both report (e.g., Cone Communications 2013) and act on (e.g., Elfenbein and McManus 2010) intentions to pay more for brands that are linked to charitable causes.

The merger of charitable causes with consumption products and services is prominent today with more than half of U.S. consumers in a recent study reporting product purchases linked to charitable causes (Cone Communications 2013), and it is perceived by marketers to be key to product sales (Einstein 2012). The current research adopts the term "consumption philanthropy" to describe a consumer product, either tangible or service based, where a portion of the purchase price is perceived by the consumer to directly aid a charitable cause (Nickel and Eikenberry 2009). The history of consumption philanthropy is often traced to 1974 with the formation of Carr and Associates International, now known as the Charitable Giving Foundation (CGF), an

organization that encouraged for-profit businesses to spend customer referral fees on charities chosen by customers. CGF's mission has not changed much in the past forty years, with its current business serving as a platform for consumers to purchase products and services from its clients with a percentage of proceeds going to pre-selected charities. Other notable events in the history of consumption philanthropy include the collaboration of Famous Amos cookies products and the Literacy Volunteers of America charity in the late 1970s and the Susan G. Komen for the Cure charity's collaboration with several brands of products since the 1980s. The phrase "cause related marketing" stems from an American Express campaign, whereby a penny of each of their customers' charge card purchases were donated to the Statue of Liberty Restoration project. Besides raising $1.75 million for the charitable cause in 1983, new card accounts and transactions increased by 17 percent and 28 percent, respectively, during the four-month campaign period (Einstein 2012).

The implications of the financial successes of consumer product and charitable cause bundles to both the for-profit firms and the charitable causes are clear – consumption philanthropy as a strategic initiative has a great deal of potential to contribute to profitability. Indeed, it is this notion that has motivated firms to create executive positions concerning cause related operations, such as chief officer of corporate social responsibility, chief philanthropy officer, and chief sustainability officer (Davies 2013; Strand 2013).

The prior literature implies some research gaps pertaining to consumption philanthropy. While there exists multi-disciplinary research on purchase intentions as well as multi-disciplinary research on donor giving intentions, little is known about the drivers of consumption philanthropy intentions. Thus, the first overarching guiding question of the current research is: what are the consumer determinants of consumption philanthropy research intentions? The

academic literature studying the fusion of charitable giving with market-based consumption uses various terms to describe the phenomenon, including cause-related marketing (e.g., Adkins 1999; Varadarajan and Menon 1988), social enterprise (e.g., Reis and Clohesy 2001), marketized philanthropy (e.g., Bajde 2013, Nickel and Eikenberry 2009), and the term adopted here, consumption philanthropy (Eickenberry 2009; Nickel and Eikenberry 2009; Schervish 2008).[1] One contribution to marketing scholarship of the current research is found in the under-researched context of consumption philanthropy, generally. In order to begin to answer the research question about the determinants of consumption philanthropy, however, the context for the current research must be defined, specifically.

Nickel and Eikenberry (2009) coined the term 'marketized philanthropy' as philanthropy that is "conflated with consumption and media celebration" (p. 975) and propose that it is an overarching notion that can be narrated by both consumption philanthropy and celebrity philanthropy (see Figure 1.1). The latter, celebrity philanthropy, involves media attention regarding celebrities volunteering time, donating money, raising money, and/or building awareness for a particular charitable cause. Consumption philanthropy can occur in two ways. The first is synonymous with the more popular term of cause-related marketing when a consumer purchases a product, either tangible or service based, where a portion of the purchase price is perceived by the consumer to directly aid a charitable cause. Examples of this include purchasing a pair of Toms shoes with the perception that an additional pair of shoes will be donated to someone in need, purchasing Tide detergent with the perception that the purchase supports the brand's "Loads of Hope" campaign that brings laundromat services to disaster areas, or

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[1] These concepts should not be confused with social marketing, which applies commercial marketing concepts and methodologies to market social issues (e.g., Kotler and Zaltman 1971).

purchasing (RED) branded apparel at Gap retailers with the perception that a portion of the purchase price goes directly towards HIV/AIDS programs. The second is the research context for the current research: when a consumer receives a good or service in exchange for a monetary contribution to a charitable cause. Often this product is positioned as a "thank you" gift for a minimum donation level. Consumption philanthropy donation intention is defined in the current research as a consumer's intention to donate to a charitable cause that provides the consumer with a potentially valuable product in return. Examples include making a donation to National Public Radio (NPR) and receiving a NPR-branded 'free' t-shirt in return or buying a ticket for *12-12-12: The Concert for Sandy Relief* which supports hurricane relief efforts but also provides access to performances by famous musicians.

Figure 1.1: Consumption Philanthropy as a Conceptual Subcomponent of Marketized Philanthropy
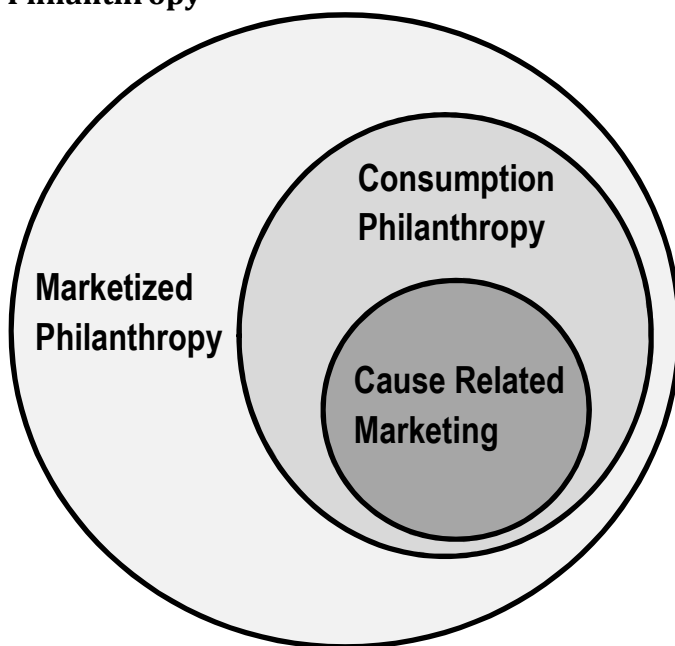
This primary contribution also involves looking at the phenomenon of consumption philanthropy through a fundamental marketing framework to which it has not yet been applied,

another gap in the marketing literature. Commitment-trust theory (Morgan and Hunt 1994) has been used in research settings ranging from profitable business-to-business and business-to-consumer contexts as well as charitable giving behavior. Thus, one conceptual research question the current investigation seeks to answer is to what extent this fundamental marketing theory can be applied in determining a framework to study consumption philanthropy. The nature of consumption philanthropy as well as existing conceptual support in the prior literature, which will be described in the next section, seem to support a commitment-trust model as a major underlying theory in the context of consumption philanthropy. To the author's knowledge, this framework has not yet been applied to study the phenomenon of consumption philanthropy. Similarly, the theory of reasoned action (e.g., Ajzen and Fishbein 1977, 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975) has not yet been applied to provide major conceptual support in the prior literature for the study of consumption philanthropy. Thus, another conceptual research question the current investigation seeks to answer is to what extent the theory of reasoned action can be applied in explaining consumption philanthropy phenomena, particularly in developing the relationships between the determinants of consumption philanthropy donation intentions. The next section will develop a case that behavioral intentions based on attitudes and subjective norms is relevant to explaining consumer behavior in this context. Finally, the current research makes a contribution to the sparsely-researched context of consumption philanthropy by appropriately integrating prior research from psychology, particularly studies on altruism, to prior research in marketing, including studies on donor giving behavior and corporate social responsibility.

Another major contribution to marketing scholarship involves the empirical corroboration of the conceptual support of the theoretical model. The model of the perceptual determinants of

consumption philanthropy donation intentions in the current research is novel in its conceptual development, and so these relationships as a whole will be empirically investigated together for the first time in scholarly research. The measurement model and structural equation model will be assessed based on data from surveys. The focal variable of consumption philanthropy donation intentions, however, will be corroborated and compared to the primary data using neurological data, specifically electroencephalography (EEG) data. It is not a gap *per se* in the literature that there has been little application of consumer neuroscience methodology to studying marketing phenomena. The instrumentation to apply neuroscientific techniques to business scholarly problems has recently become accessible in costs and development of methodologies to do so (Boksem and Smidts 2015). The current research seeks to contribute an answer to the broad marketing disciplinary question of how EEG measurement and its accompanying analytical methodology of hemispheric asymmetry can be used to investigate marketing phenomena, generally, and consumption philanthropy donation intentions, specifically. Thus, the mixed methods approach (e.g., Johnson, Onwuebuzie, and Turner 2007) being utilized in the current research exploits two different types of data collection methodologies, self-reported survey and EEG frequency measurement, in order to both add additional validation in corroborating the conceptual model as well as construct and test a novel methodology in this research context.

The conceptual development and empirical components of this study have the potential to contribute to both academic scholarship and managerial practice. This research contributes to scholarship by logically deriving and empirically corroborating an original model of consumption philanthropy donation intention determinants based on prior theory and the application of certain fundamental frameworks in marketing and psychology. The consumer

neuroscience data collection and analytical methodology contributes to the pioneering use of neuroscientific techniques and instrumentation in marketing research. The contributions of the research contained in this dissertation are summarized in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Proposed Research Contributions

- application of commitment-trust theory (marketing), theory of reasoned action (marketing), and the altruism-empathy hypothesis (psychology) as frameworks in modeling the determinants of consumption philanthropy donation intentions

- developing conceptually the relationships of determinants in model of consumption philanthropy donation intentions based on multi-disciplinary prior research

- corroborating empirically the measurement and structural models of consumption philanthropy donation intentions using survey-based research and structural equation modeling analysis

- corroborating empirically the focal construct of consumption philanthropy donation intentions using EEG instrumentation and hemispheric asymmetry methodology

With the proliferation of charitable causes providing consumers consumption goods as motivators for donations, it is timely that consumer behavior regarding this philanthropy should be conceptually and empirically studied. This dissertation is organized around its two major studies: (1) a comprehensive survey-based exploration of the determinants of consumption philanthropy donation intentions and (2) the use of EEG to measure consumption philanthropy donation intentions. After a literature review in Chapter II that incorporates the conceptual development of the hypotheses of interest, Chapter III contains the first major study. The first study assesses the conceptual foundations of a model of consumer behavior in the context of consumption philanthropy. It develops and assesses the quantitative measurements used to operationalize the constructs that were conceptually derived to be determinants of consumption philanthropy donation intentions. The results of testing the structural model are presented and interpreted, including a further dissection of the complete model into more parsimonious focuses.

The chapter concludes with implications and suggestions for future research. Chapter IV contains the second major study. This study necessarily follows the first, since it involves assessment of the focal variable of interest, consumption philanthropy donation intentions, using neuroscientific instrumentation and analytical methodology. The survey-based conclusions in the first study are used to validate the results of the second study, and a discussion of the implications and future research inspirations resulting from the second study is provided. Chapter V delivers a general conclusion, including additional suggestions for future research that were not directly derived from the results of quantitative analysis but are also interesting and pertinent to the exploration of the consumption philanthropy.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

"Bounty always receives part of its value from the manner in which it is bestowed."
-Samuel Johnson

The current research was motivated by the observation that offering "thank you" gifts in return for monetary charitable donations is pervasive across charitable solicitations to consumers. Individuals, as opposed to organizations, are the largest donors to charities in the United States (Giving USA 2014) and thus a comprehensive understanding of what motivates consumers to donate in this consumption philanthropy context is needed. The prior literature on giving behavior in the presence of gifts is mixed, with some finding that gifts increase donation behaviors and levels (e.g, Falk 2007; Holmes, Miller, and Lerner 2002) and some finding the seemingly counterintuitive effect that gifts decrease donation behaviors and levels (e.g., Ariely, Bracha, and Meier 2009; Krishna 2011; Newman and Shen 2012). The current research evaluates monetary consumption philanthropy donation intentions in the context of gifts offered in exchange for a donation beforehand. This contrasts with the scenario where a gift would be given to the potential donor with a solicitation for a donation but without its necessity for the gift to be consumed. Research in the latter context has largely found a positive effect of gifting beforehand with explanations that consumers give out of a tendency to want to reciprocate (e.g., Alpizar, Carlsson, and Johansson-Stenman 2008; Falk 2007). The current research also only considers discrete monetary charitable donations by individuals, rather than examining contexts where

there is a continued history of donation (e.g., Bennett 2009) or where donors are asked for time or other resources (e.g., Liu and Aaker 2008; Shehu et al. 2015).

The foundational commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing proposed by Morgan and Hunt (1994) provides the initial framework for the current conceptual model. Since its conception, scholars have utilized this model in a diverse variety of research settings, including, most popularly, business-to-business relationships (e.g., Morgan and Hunt 1994; Gilliland and Bello 2002; Sharma, Young, and Wilkinson 2006), as well as culture in international relationship marketing (Samaha, Beck, and Palmatier 2014), patient and physician relationships (Cructchfield and Morgan 2010), consumer and brand relationships (Hess and Story 2005), participation in virtual brand communities (Casalo, Flavian, and Guinaliu 2008), and donor behavior in college athletics (Ko et al. 2014), as just a few examples. The underlying commitment-trust theory posits that commitment and trust are mediating variables for understanding the relationship development process in a buyer-seller context. Morgan and Hunt (1994) define commitment as "an exchange partner believing that an ongoing relationship with another is so important as to warrant maximum efforts at maintaining it" and trust as "confidence in the exchange partner's reliability and integrity" (p. 23). Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) subsequently applied the commitment-trust model to nonprofit giving behavior, finding that these two variables sequentially mediate the relationships between individual donor benefits and donor behavior (see also Sargeant and Lee 2004), supporting the first two foundational hypotheses stated below.

The current research, thus, expands on prior research and makes a contribution to marketing scholarship by (1) applying the prior research to a consumption philanthropy donor intention context, and (2) expanding the prior models to incorporate research on both CSR as

well as the multi-disciplinary conceptualizations of altruism. The initial two foundational hypotheses will address this first step. Consumption philanthropy is the blending of a purchasing behavior and donation behavior. It involves consuming a good or service where the consumer either perceives there to be an allocation of her purchase price to a charitable cause or the consumer receives a valued tangible or service product in exchange for a donation to a charitable cause (Nickel and Eikenberry 2009). Since consumption philanthropy purchases are perceived to contribute to charitable causes to at least some extent, it stands to reason that the motives of consumers who engage in such purchases do so with some consideration to their purchases' charitable benefits (e.g., Krishna 2011). The applicability of commitment-trust theory to this research context is supported by the parallels between the prior research context and the very nature of the consumption philanthropy products. Just as consumption philanthropy is a fusion of pure self-interested consumption and charitable giving, the current model is a marriage of Morgan and Hunt's (1994) profitable relationship marketing context and Sargeant, Ford, and West's (2006) purely non-profit charitable giving context. Just as the former found that trust in an organization is an antecedent of consumer commitment to the organization, the latter found that trust in a charity is an antecedent to donor commitment to it (see also Moorman, Zaltman, and Deshpande 1992). So, if the underlying commitment-trust theory was corroborated to be applicable to the ends of the profitable business context spectrums, it logically follows that it should apply to a research context that merges the two. In other words, the current model can be modestly viewed as Aristotle's "golden mean" of commitment-trust research contexts (e.g., Merzbach and Boyer 2010). The following hypotheses support the current model.

Hypothesis 1: Donor commitment is positively related to trust in charity.

Hypothesis 2: Trust in charity is positively related to consumption philanthropy donation intention.

The secondary underlying theory supporting this research model is the Theory of Reasoned Action (henceforth, TRA), which is a model for predicting behavioral intentions based on attitudes and subjective norms (Ajzen and Fishbein 1977, 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). In marketing, an attitude is popularly defined along the lines of "a learned tendency to respond consistently toward a given object" while norms are defined as "values or attitudes deemed acceptable by the group" (Lamb, Hair, and McDaniel 2014, pp. 106, 116). This model has been studied in several notable consumer contexts including blood donation (Bagozzi 1981; Charng, Piliavan, and Callero 1988), coupon usage (Shimp and Kavas 1984; Bagozzi, Baumgartner, and Yi 1992; Kang et al. 2006), new product trial (Oliver and Bearden 1985; Fu and Elliott 2013), environmental consumption behavior (Schultz and Oskamp 1996; Bang et al. 2000; Polonsky et al. 2012), food preferences (Ryu and Han 2010; Ackermann and Palmer 2014), electronic retailing (Ahrholdt 2011), and housing selection (Wu, Yau, and Lu 2012), among others. It reasons that consumers derive their behavioral intentions based on attitudes (beliefs about a particular behavior and evaluation of those beliefs) and subjective norms (influence on behavior from a consumer's social environment). The underlying support of TRA will be identified throughout each relevant element of the conceptual development of the present research model in the rest of this section.

Altruism and philanthropy in casual thought are perceptibly interconnected concepts. In academic research, however, this linkage becomes increasingly complex as a more holistic picture of their internal constructs and relationships are investigated. Aside from the delineation of the various notions of philanthropy, as surveyed above, the concept of altruism has also been

13

explored for its various dimensions. Philosopher Auguste Comte coined the term *altruisme*

(altruism) and considered it and egoism to be distinct human motives (Batson and Shaw 1991).

Social science scholarship, including economics, political science, psychology, and sociology, as

well as biology, had a significant period where the notion of true altruism was rejected (Piliavin

and Charng 1990). There are examples of prior research in marketing that also separate altruistic

helping motives from egoistic helping motives that enhance the helper's welfare (e.g.,

Bendapudi, Sing, and Bendapudi 1996). That is, there was a general consensus in academia that

any action that appeared altruistic on the surface would have selfish motives upon deeper

exploration.

More contemporary work has explored the notion that individuals may possess

motivations for helping behavior that are based on empathetic altruism as well as egoistic

altruism (e.g., Batson 2011; Batson and Shaw 1991; Cialdini et al. 1987; Hoffman 1981; Krishna

2011; Piliavan and Charng 1990). Eisenberg and Miller (1987) differentiate the notions of

prosocial behavior and altruism, with the latter being a subset of the former. The authors define

prosocial behavior as "voluntary, intentional behavior that results in benefits for another," with

the benefits unspecified. Altruism, however is defined by the authors as prosocial behavior

"which is not performed with the expectation of receiving external rewards or avoiding…

punishments" (p. 92). On the contrary, Batson (1987, 2011) contends that altruism is not

behavior, but rather, motivation for behavior, and altruistic motivations can be either empathetic

motivations or egoistic motivations (see also, Krebs 1991). The altruism-empathy hypothesis,

developed by Batson and his colleagues (e.g., Batson and Shaw 1991), maintains that empathetic

concern (feelings that are congruent with another's perceived welfare) is sufficient to produce

altruistic motivations, but the altruistic motivations can take on either empathetic or egoistic

dimensions. Empathetic concern is deemed an affective construct in the current research in that it, by definition, relates to a tendency to respond empathetically toward another's welfare. (Definitions for all of the constructs in the current study are provided in Table 2.1 at the end of this section.) Thus, based on this seminal work, this research adopts the notion that altruism is a three-dimensional motivational construct that influences subsequent behavior, such as charitable giving and/or consumption, distinguishing it from those studies that either explicitly or implicitly seem to regard altruism as a behavioral construct (e.g., Henry 2000, Hopkins and Powers 2009, Krishna 2011; Rushton, Chrisjohn, and Fekken 1981).

The conceptualization of altruism in the current research is derived from prior works involving humanitarian concern for others as well as the literature on the conspicuous consumption concept. Consumption philanthropy contains opportunities for both philanthropic behavior as well as self-interested consumption. The philanthropic determinant involves values related to the humanitarian concern for others (Clary et al. 1998), which can be defined as "guiding principles" for subsequent behaviors or evaluations (Romani, Grappi, and Bagozzi 2013, p. 196; see also, Schwartz 1992) that involve promoting welfare. Conspicuous consumption is a consumption behavior that involves demonstrating one's wealth and/or status through the use and display of products that are associated with conspicuous symbols (e.g., Belk, Bahn, and Mayer 1982; Nunes, Dreze, and Han 2011; Scott, Mende, and Bolton 2013). It is a behavioral construct that necessitates need for recognition as implicit in its definition. On the surface, conspicuous consumption is not often immediately associated with the more 'selfless' characteristics of being altruistic or giving to charities. However, recent work has linked conspicuous consumption to blatant benevolence, a type of prosocial behavior where a helper performs activities to increase another's welfare for the purpose of publicizing her or his

15

prosocial behavior (Griskevicius et al. 2007). For instance, helping behavior has been found to increase with the presence of an audience (Sierksma, Thijs, and Verkuyten 2014). As another example, 'green' products, those that claim to have a reduced harmful impact on the natural environment, have also found an audience of consumers that have a primary objective of reflecting a status image of being environmentally conscious individuals (Griskevicius, Tybur, and Van den Bergh 2010; Cervellon and Carey 2011; Cervellon and Shammas 2013). The products received in exchange for consumption philanthropy donations are generally branded with the charitable cause. For instance, in 2016, donations to Sierra Club resulted in a conspicuously branded backpack, donations to Public Broadcasting Service (PBS) resulted in a *Downton Abbey* season on DVD or themed coffee mug, and recurring donations to the American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (ASPCA) resulted in a conspicuously branded windbreaker jacket. Generally, conspicuous donations may have a primary perceived benefit to the donor of enhancing status and prestige, with the benefits to the charitable cause being only of secondary importance (Van Vugt and Hardy 2010). Findings such as these in the prior literature suggest that conspicuous consumption behaviors are not only motivated by a desire for exposure, generally, but also by a desire for an elevated social status that is derived from appearances of altruism. Indeed, a wealthy individual may have done more 'good' by donating a large sum of money earned from her regular for-profit work than by volunteering a few hours of charitable labor, but then she would miss out on the conspicuous publicity gained from the activity of volunteering (Griskevicius et al. 2007; see also Ellingsen and Johannesson 2011).

Gierl and Huettl (2010) proposed that conspicuous consumption is a multi-dimensional construct that encompasses three dimensions of expressing social needs and three dimensions of using socially visible products with a symbolic meaning. Schaefers (2014) adapted this model to

investigate consumer behavior with regards to niche products. Of the dimensions of conspicuous consumption, "status orientation" and "susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence" seem to have the most relevant conceptual foundation to the current research model, as they relate to egoistic altruism as described above. According to Schaefers (2014), status orientation is a desire to achieve favorable distinction within a group. Those consumers with a status orientation are more likely to make choices that achieve an elevated social status, similar to the motivations of egoistic altruists. Susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence seems to be, on the surface, contradictory to status orientation. Susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence is a tendency to make choices that garner approval and foster assimilation to perceived social norms. While status orientation seeks differentiation, susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence seeks conformity and approval. However, "conspicuous consumption comprises the simultaneous occurrence of differentiation and assimilation tendencies" (Schaefers 2014, p. 1811; see also Brewer 2003). In other words, the conspicuous consumer seeks to stand out from others, but in a way that also achieves acceptance to social norms. The current model uses only two of the original dimensions of conspicuous consumption, those that align with blatant benevolence as described above, as well as the values element of Clary et al. (1998)'s volunteerism scale that relates to the humanitarian values dimension of altruistic concern. The construct combines two dimensions of attitudes based on subjective norms (status orientation and susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence) since they refer to consistent responses based on social acceptability, and one dimension of altruistic values.

Since this particular specification of altruism is novel to the current research, it seems suitable to also test the opposing notion that the dimensions of humanitarian values, status orientation, and susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence act independently of one

17

another in their relationships to the other determinants of consumption philanthropy purchase intentions. Thus, the current research will construct and investigate two theorized models that are unique only in their conceptualizations of altruism. Model A will explore the notion that altruism is a second order construct that reflects the three dimensions of humanitarian values, status orientation, and susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence. Model B will test the notion that these three dimensions exert independent influence within a holistic system determining consumption philanthropy donation intentions. Thus, the conceptual foundation marrying the works on empathetic concern, altruism, and conspicuous consumption support Hypotheses 3 and 4 for Model A and Hypotheses 3a, 4a, 4b, and 4c for Model B.

Hypothesis 3: Empathetic concern is positively related to altruism.

Hypothesis 3a: Empathetic concern is positively related to humanitarian values.

Hypothesis 4: Altruism is positively related to consumption philanthropy donation intention.

Hypothesis 4a: Humanitarian values is positively related to consumption philanthropy donation intention.

Hypothesis 4b: Social orientation is positively related to consumption philanthropy donation intention.

Hypothesis 4c: Susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence is positively related to consumption philanthropy donation intention.

The utility concept in the current research is derived from Sargeant, Ford, and West's (2006) prior work on charitable giving behavior. Perceived utility, as it is named in this research, is composed of three dimensions, each addressing a specific categorization of perception of

benefits from engaging in charitable giving: demonstrable utility, emotional utility, and familial utility. Demonstrable utility concerns perceptions of economic or other rational benefits from giving. Relating to the egoistic altruism concept and aligned with status orientation, demonstrable utility considers perceived benefits received in return, including tangible benefits, prestige, and direct benefits from the mission of the organization (see also, Stroebe and Frey 1982; Kotler and Andreasen 2007). Emotional utility is a benefit received in the form of emotions experienced from the act of giving (Andreoni 2001). This concept also encompasses the idea that consumers may give to avoid certain emotions that they perceive would result from not giving, notably guilt or foregone responsibility (Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2006, 2008; Hibbert et al. 2007; Chang 2014). Finally, familial utility are perceived benefits of the work of the charity to the giver's self or values that are aligned with her family's priorities (Rosato 2005; Merchant, Ford, and Rose 2011). Closer inspection of the items used in Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) to measure familial utility, however, reveals that this construct encompasses consideration for individuals outside of the potential donor's family, as well. The items reflecting the construct consider "a loved one" as well as "someone I know" (p. 163). Thus, the current research renames this dimension "social utility" in order to better reflect the communal interests of the donor towards individuals extending beyond just family members. The desire for favorable distinction in a group (status orientation) and the tendency to make choices that align with social norms and garner social approval (susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence) should drive the perceptions of, particularly, demonstrable utility. We would logically expect that the values dimension of altruism would be a stronger driver of the emotional and social utility. Since the current research is investigating altruism as both a higher order construct (Model A) as well as the opposing notion that its proposed dimensions may be independent constructs (Model B),

the following hypotheses are proposed. Hypothesis 5 pertains to Model A and Hypotheses 5a, 5b, and 5c pertain to Model B.

Hypothesis 5: Altruism is positively related to perceived utility.

Hypothesis 5a: Humanitarian values are positively related to perceived utility.

Hypothesis 5b: Social orientation is positively related to perceived utility.

Hypothesis 5c: Susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence is positively related to perceived utility.

Commitment, as already defined above, is the notion that a relationship is perceived as important enough so as to warrant efforts by the consumer to maintain it (Morgan and Hunt 1994). Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) found significant support for a causal link between emotional utility and familial utility (social utility) with commitment, but no support for the link between demonstrable utility and commitment. The authors note that "the extent to which a nonprofit is capable of providing personal benefits for its donors" (p. 162) may explain this finding. Since the current study concerns consumption philanthropy, where the consumer receives some sort of tangible or service product in exchange for the perceived charitable sacrifice of the donation price, there seems to be merit to hypothesize that demonstrable utility would drive donor commitment to an extent greater than for pure charitable giving that does not expect a consumable product in return. That is, it is expected that a rational consumer derives self-interested benefits from the goods and services she consumes (e.g., Lovett 2006). Since consumption philanthropy is a consumable good or service, in part, this suggests that it is "capable" of providing such a benefit to the consumer donor. The specific nature of consumption philanthropy goods and services being, in part, products that provide direct self-interested

20

benefits to the consumer, seems to support a logical direct link between perceived utility and consumption philanthropy donation intention, as well. In other words, consumption philanthropy products selected by the consumer as a result of a donation provide rational utility (e.g., Becker 1976) for the consumer. Thus, the following hypotheses can be derived.

Hypothesis 6: Perceived utility is positively related to donor commitment.

Hypothesis 7: Perceived utility is positively related to consumption philanthropy donation intention.

As mentioned in the introduction, consumption philanthropy occurs when a consumer either (1) purchases a product, tangible or service based, where a portion of the purchase price is perceived by the consumer to directly aid a charitable cause or (2) when a consumer receives a product or service in exchange for a contribution to a charitable cause (Nickel and Eikenberry 2009; Bajde 2013). The current research focuses on the second scenario, defining consumption philanthropy donation intention as a consumer's intention to donate to a charitable cause that provides the consumer with a valued product or service in return.

Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) successfully adapted the commitment-trust theory of Morgan and Hunt (1994) to establish that commitment and trust are mediating variables for understanding the relationship of donors and charities. Based on qualitative data and prior research, Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) hypothesized that three organizational factors are driving antecedents of donor trust: performance, responsiveness, and communication. Performance is the notion that donations will be used wisely (see also, Tonkiss and Passey 1999). Responsiveness implies timely and appropriate reactions on the part of the charitable organization, and communications concern consumer perceptions of the charitable organization's

transmitted information (see also Botner, Mishra, and Mishra 2015). Of these three organizational factors, responsiveness was found to be insignificant with a relatively small negative weight. The nature of consumption philanthropy products involve charitable giving, but also utility-driven consumption of a desired good or service. As such, aside from the focus group evidence supporting the conceptual development of Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006), there seems to be no significant reason to believe that the reaction of the charitable organization would drive the desire of a consumer to engage in consumption philanthropy over pure philanthropy. Indeed, if the responsiveness of the charity did not matter when no consumer good was expected in return, there is even less reason to believe that it would when the donor consumer is receiving the benefit of self-interested consumption. Thus, the current model hypothesizes two of the original Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) organizational factors as drivers of trust and also renames this abridged construct organizational perceptions.

Hypothesis 8: The organizational perceptions of performance and communication are positively related to trust in charity.

Consumers have several options for which they can engage in consumption philanthropy. In the United States, more than half of consumers intentionally purchase brands that are associated with a philanthropic cause, and 88 percent self-report that they desire to buy products with social or environmental benefits if given the opportunity to do so (Cone Communications 2013). Thus, it is necessary to understand how consumers choose among their options to engage in consumption philanthropy. One determinant seems to be how closely a particular consumer's perceptions of the characteristics of an organization overlap with her own self-concept. The construct employed in the current research to describe this notion is customer-charity identification (CCI), which has been adapted from the prior academic literature on customer-

corporate congruence or customer-corporate identification. The CCI determinant implies that a consumer will be more likely to support companies and their associated charitable causes that align with priorities that form their own perceived identities (Choi and Ng 2011; Lichtenstein, Drumwright, and Braig 2004; Sen and Bhattacharya 2001). Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) found that customer-corporate identification partially mediates a positive relationship between consumer evaluations of a company and the company's perceived corporate social responsibility, and Choi and Ng (2011) found support for a positive relationship between customer-corporate identification and companies with sustainability initiatives. While these and other prior research (e.g., Bergami and Bagozzi 2000; Dutton, Dukerich, and Harquail 1994) have established the direct benefits of a customer-corporate identification concept to a single organization, Lichtenstein, Drumwright, and Braig (2004) were the first to study the concept in the context of associated, third-party nonprofit organizations. While the authors found generally a positive relationship between customer-corporate identification and direct corporate benefits, with implications for building of brand equity for the main corporate entity, they found mixed results for donations to the associated nonprofit organization and conclude that "the extent to which identification created in one domain (e.g., athletics) can be leveraged in another (e.g., CSR) is unknown" (p. 29). However, the conceptual reasoning of the authors' rationale to have included it in their original research seems to justify its inclusion in the current model, as well. Indeed, there is evidence that consumers prefer or pay more for charity-linked products when all else is equal in the core product (Elfenbein and McManus 2010; Meyer 1999). These results, combined with prior research findings that indicate that intentions to act are a function of social identity perceptions (Bagozzi and Lee 2002), seem to logically necessitate the investigation of a research question concerning whether consumers donate to particular charities based on overlap between

23

their perceived individual identities with their perceptions of the charity's image.

Hypothesis 9: CCI is positively related to consumption philanthropy donation intention.

The current research will also test four moderation effects. In addition to the conceptual support that empathetic concern functions as an independent determinant of altruism, as described above, there seems to be some conceptual support for also testing empathetic concern as a moderator for the relationship between altruism and consumption philanthropy donation. Using the same scale to operationalize empathetic concern as is adapted for the current research (Davis 1980), empathetic concern has been shown to moderate the effects of certain personality traits and interpersonal citizenship behavior (Taylor, Kluemper, and Mossholder 2010). Interpersonal citizenship behavior is helping behavior towards coworkers that exceeds what is required by a job description and is operationalized by an instrument that includes measures on altruism and helping behavior (Coleman and Borman 2000). For the deconstructed model of altruism, the reasoning that empathetic concern would moderate the helping behaviors that are reflected in altruism seems to apply to the humanitarian dimensions only. As a corollary, there seems to be support to also investigate the moderation effect of empathetic concern on the relationship between perceived utility and consumption philanthropy donation intentions. Since the dimensions of perceived utility includes a sort of selfless component (social utility) that considers the benefits of aiding the charitable cause towards individuals other than the actual donor (Sargeant, Ford, and West 2006), it stands to reason that this form of helping behavior could be enhanced by empathetic concern towards those individuals. Prior research has also found that empathy can function as a moderator between identity and behavior (Dovidio et al. 2010; Sevillano, Aragones, and Schultz 2007; Smits et al. 2011). Finally, empathetic concern is a response to the perceived emotions and needs of another person, and as such, should moderate

24

the relationship between commitment to act and intentions to act. Those who experience greater empathetic concern should be more motivated in their intentions to protect or aid others (Xie, Bagozzi, and Gonhaug 2015). This should generalize to scenarios where the empathic concern being elicited by the charitable organization is a positive one, as well. Although a great deal of the literature studying empathy focuses on the internalization of others' distress, empathetic concern can also involve the internalization and sharing of positive emotions (Lazarus 1991), such as gratitude (Lazarus and Lazarus 1994; Xie, Bagozzi, and Gonhaug 2015). The following moderation effects are hypothesized for the current research model. Hypothesis 10 applies to Model A and Hypothesis 10a applies to Model B. Hypotheses 11, 12, and 13 are reflected in both Model A and Model B.

> Hypothesis 10: Empathetic concern enhances the relationship between altruism and consumption philanthropy donation intention.

>> Hypothesis 10a: Empathetic concern enhances the relationship between humanitarian values and consumption philanthropy donation intention.

> Hypothesis 11: Empathetic concern enhances the relationship between customer-charity identification and consumption philanthropy donation intention.

> Hypothesis 12: Empathetic concern enhances the relationship between donor commitment and consumption philanthropy donation intention.

> Hypothesis 13: Empathetic concern enhances the relationship between perceived utility and consumption philanthropy donation intention.

The research model and hypothesized relationships for Model A and Model B are presented in Figure 2.1 and Figure 2.2, respectively.

Figure 2.1: Determinants of Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions (Model A)
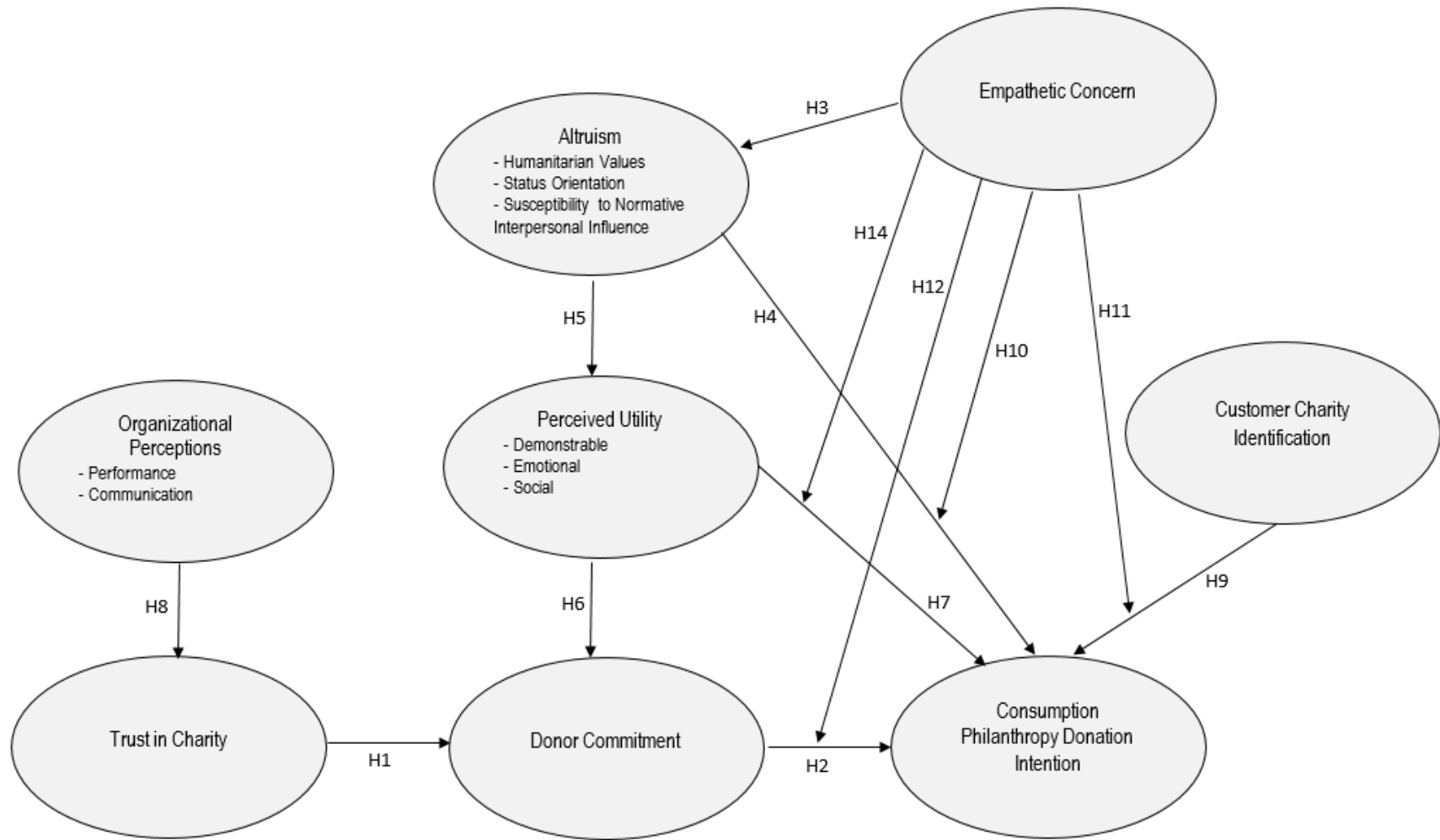
Figure 2.2: Determinants of Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions (Model B)
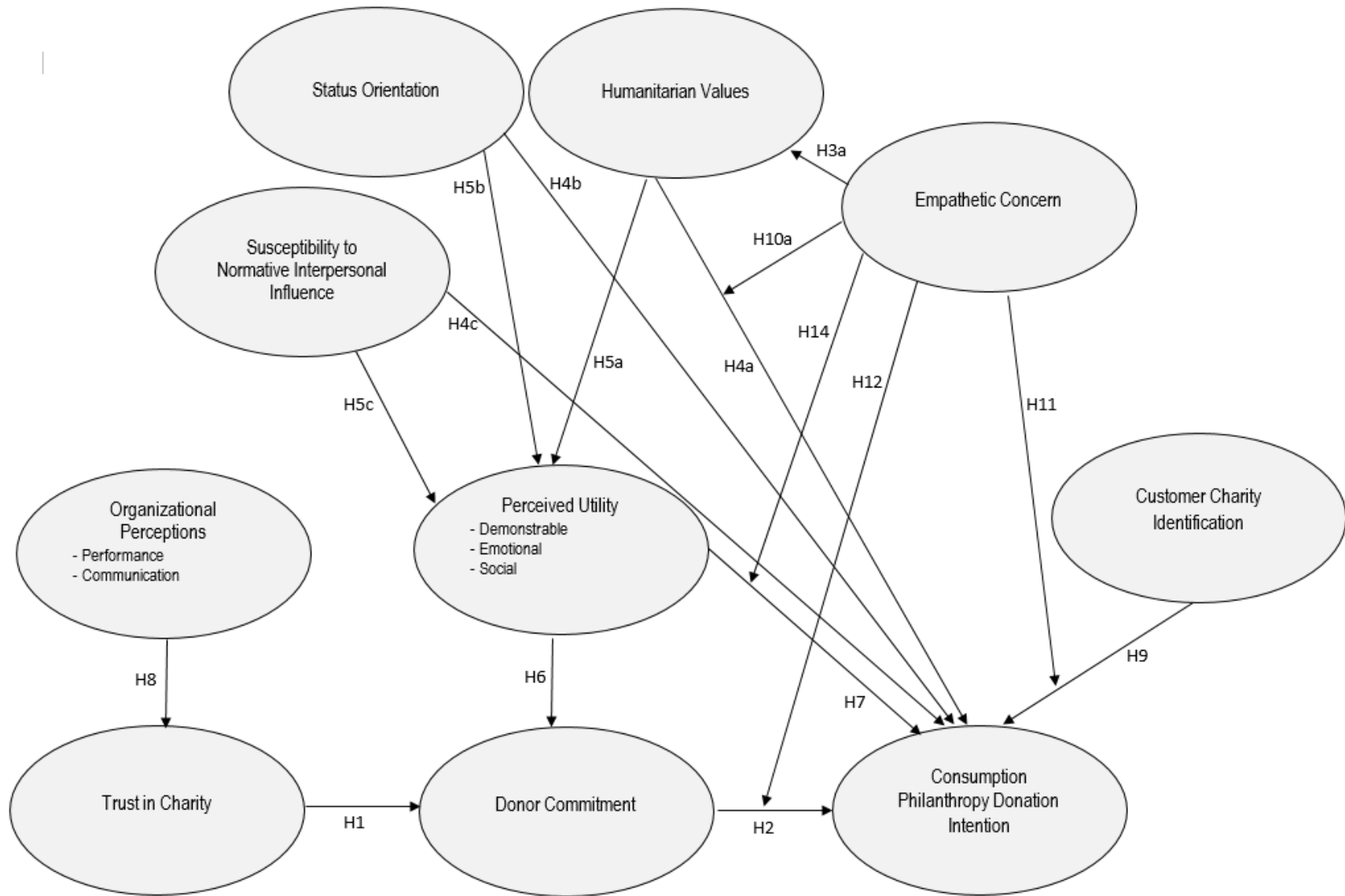
Table 2.1: Construct Summary and Definitions

Construct	Definition
consumption philanthropy donation intention (CPDI)	a consumer's behavioral intention to donate to a charitable cause that provides the consumer with a valued product or service in return
trust in charity (TC)	the extent to which the consumer believes that the charitable organization will follow through with expected actions
donor commitment (DC)	a donor's desire to maintain a valued relationship with the charitable organization
empathetic concern (EC)	feelings that correspond with the perceived welfare of another individual who has an unmet need
humanitarian values (altruism) (HV)	guiding principles for subsequent behaviors or evaluations that involve promoting welfare
status orientation (altruism) (SO)	a desire to achieve favorable distinction within a group
susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence (altruism) (SNII)	a tendency to make choices that garner approval and foster assimilation to perceived social norms
demonstrable utility (perceived utility) (DU)	economic or other self-interested benefits received in return from an exchange
emotional utility (perceived utility) (EU)	benefits in the form of emotions experienced or emotions perceived to be avoided as a result of an exchange
social utility (perceived utility) (SU)	benefits perceived to aid loved ones as a result of an exchange
performance (organizational perceptions) (OPP)	consumer expectation donations will be used wisely
communication (organizational perceptions) (OPC)	consumer perceptions of the organization's transmitted information
customer-charity identification (CCI)	the extent to which a consumer's perceptions of a charitable organization's characteristics overlap with the consumer's own self-concept

CHAPTER III

STUDY 1: A SURVEY BASED EXPLORATION OF THE DETERMINANTS OF
CONSUMPTION PHILANTHROPY DONATION INTENTIONS

"Research is formalized curiosity. It is poking and prying with a purpose."
- Zora Neale Hurston

The current research proposed two major quantitative studies for the purposes of

hypothesis testing, along with some pilot studies and pretests. The methodology described in this

section relates the ultimate goals of corroborating the conceptually developed model using self-

reported survey data in order to empirically test the measurement model (reliability) and the

structural model (hypotheses) using partial least squares structural equation modeling.

Experimental Scenario

Development

Two separate, although related, qualitative surveys were created to gain initial

perspectives on how consumers engage in philanthropy, what stakeholders they believe are

responsible for philanthropic initiatives, as well as the sorts of philanthropy to which they

actively contribute (including the nature of contributions) and the methods by which they

contribute (e.g., direct contributions, consumption of cause-related marketing products, time).

This data was collected to guide the construction of the experimental scenarios for the survey-

based study that well be described presently, as well as the electroencephalography (EEG) study described in the next chapter. Two convenience samples of 72 and 38 undergraduate students for each survey, respectively, showed a variety of charitable concerns, but cancer awareness and cancer research charities dominated other causes in popularity by a wide margin. As a result, the full study of the current research utilized a scenario-based survey and consumer neuroscience design for a hypothetical cancer research and treatment charity in order to capture consumers' attitudes and other influences on consumption philanthropy donation intentions.

Survey Scenarios

The hypothetical charitable organization of a pediatric children's research and treatment hospital was used as the research context to which the conceptual models in the prior chapter were applied. This sort of charitable organization was chosen based on popular answers to the qualitative study showing cancer awareness and research causes as well as those causes pertaining to children having the most popularity among the respondent sample. There are caveats with using an existing popular brand in research on attitudes and behavioral intentions. Namely, consumers may bring in their own prior experiences with the brand and respond to survey items based on experiences and attitudes that are not being directly measured by the variables in the model. Thus, a hypothetical charity was created for the experimental scenario. The hypothetical facility in the experimental scenario was named CCA Children's Research Hospital, and it was modeled after St. Jude's Children's Research Hospital. The picture of the hospital contained in the solicitation is not of St. Jude's, and the details about the hospital, although based on similar descriptors of St. Jude's, are hypothetical.

The three scenarios constructed to elicit donations to CCA as they were presented to survey respondents are provided in Appendix C. Three separate online surveys were constructed

to represent each of the two consumption philanthropy and one pure-donation scenarios being examined in the main study. In the online survey, each scenario is presented as an image that accompanies the survey items containing identical formatting, colors, pictures, background information and description of the charity's work, and suggested levels of donations. Scenario 1 is different in that no gift is offered in exchange for a donation. Scenario 2 is different in that a cancer awareness themed t-shirt is offered as a gift of gratitude by the charity for a minimum donation level of $25. Scenario 2 is different in that a plush bear is offered as a gift of gratitude by the charity for a minimum donation level of $25. The three scenarios allow a manipulation check to see if the presence of the gift and gift type affected donation intentions.

It should be noted, however, that studying the gift type is not an objective of this study. Rather, the main objective of modeling the determinants of consumption philanthropy in order to explain consumer behavior related to it can be accomplished at a minimum with just two scenarios: "no gift" versus "gift." However, the external validity of the "gift" results would be a critical caveat of the study if the results of only one gift scenario was used to generalize to all phenomena involving consumption philanthropy in that there would be no indication to what extent the product attributes of the specific gift chosen influenced the outcome. For instance, if only the t-shirt scenario (Scenario 2) was used as the consumption philanthropy scenario, it would be impossible to detect the sort of influence the product of the t-shirt specifically had on the conceptual outcomes. Thus, the third scenario was created with the consideration that a very different, but realistic, donor gift should be offered. A plush bear could appeal to an even more particular consumer market than a t-shirt. Thus, it could be interpreted that any difference in results across Scenario 2 and Scenario 3 would be a gift-type effect. Moreover, any similarities

in results across Scenario 2 and Scenario 3 could indicate that the results are robust to a gift-type effect.

Brief instructions, also included in Appendix C, were provided to the voluntary online survey participants. As a way to prime the experimental scenario, respondents were directed to pretend that they are given $100 on the condition that they consider donating at least some of it to the charity in the solicitation attached to the survey. They were told that they do not have to donate to keep the money – they just have to consider doing so. Priming is the notion that experimental subjects' exposure to one stimulus will influence their responses to a following stimulus. The objective of this priming was to minimize the barrier of income constraint from the experiment. In other words, it was intended that respondents' reading that they are given a modestly substantial amount of discretionary income will influence them to react to the focal stimulus of the consumption philanthropy donation solicitation rather than their heterogeneously internalized stimuli of individual income constraints. Since it is not a focal objective of the current research to investigate the relationship of income as a determinant to consumption philanthropy donation intentions, any noise in the data from an income effect would have to either be controlled for endogenously in the model (preferred) or sufficiently minimized. Controlling for income effects involves gathering honest data about the respondents' incomes. Annual household income data was requested from respondents, but with the prior consideration that income non-reporting by survey respondents can be substantial (e.g., Turrell 2000). Indeed, as the description of the data in its subsequent section will report, for unknown reasons, income non-reporting was relatively high for this survey. The $100 level in the priming instructions was chosen to be sufficiently high enough that the additional income would allow for, but not excessively coerce, a discretionary charitable donation.

Measures

The following will describe the measurement scales adapted and created to measure the variables of interest. As part of the process of adapting these measures to the current experimental scenario, the issue of whether to retain reverse coded items was considered, with the alternative being that items that were originally reverse coded could have been changed to direct, positive statements. Although reverse coding is used as a strategy to avoid certain response biases (e.g., Churchill 1979), it can also produce issues concerning reduced internal consistency of the scale, dimensionality problems, and lack of generalizability of the scale across cultures (Wong, Rindfleisch, and Burroughs 2003). Including all items assessing both the operationalized variables, respondent background questions, and attention questions, the final survey for the main study contained 55 items to which the respondent was asked to respond. Two of these items contained reverse coding which was retained from their original, adapted scales. All survey items for the pilot study are indicated in Appendix A and all subsequently refined survey items used in the main study are indicated in Appendix B.

Prior to a full sampling of the measurement items, a smaller pilot sample was gathered from a convenience sample of undergraduate students. The purpose of this small sample was to test the internal consistency of the survey, including the clarity of the instrument and research scenarios. A minimum 5:1 ratio of observation points to variables (Gorsuch 1983; Joreskog and Sorbom 1996) to an appropriate 10:1 ratio (Hair et al. 2010) is recommended in the prior literature, including a range in minimal sample size of 100 (Gorsuch 1983) to 150 (Anderson and Gerbing 1984). Thus, approximately 100 to 120 surveys needed to be collected for this pilot test. Completed surveys were gathered from a convenience sample of 117 volunteer undergraduate students across two public universities in Texas, which produced 108 usable surveys for analysis.

Nine surveys were eliminated because the respondents failed to answer correctly one or more of the three 'attention check' questions, which were retained for the larger study and will be described below. The pilot survey included a final free-response section asking respondents to note any difficulties or confusion experienced in taking the survey. The results of this pilot analysis seemed to justify the elimination, addition, and editing of particular survey items as a result of the evaluation of internal consistency, convergent validity, or discriminant validity. These changes will be specified in the descriptions of the measurement items.

Except for one item measuring Customer-Charity Identification, the items operationalizing the core variables of interest were measured using seven-point bipolar scales that ranged from -3 to +3 with a neutral point of 0. Respondents viewed the numerical value of all seven points in their selection options with literal descriptions attached to only the -3, 0, and +3 values. The left-most option of -3 corresponded to feelings and intentions that were negatively associated with the given statement, such as "strongly disagree" or "does not describe me at all." The middle option of 0 corresponded to feelings and intentions that were neutral, unsure, or unassociated with the given statement, such as "neutral" or "describes me moderately well." The right-most option of +3 corresponded to feelings and intentions that were positively associated with the given statement, such as "strongly agree" or "describes me completely."

Trust in Charity (TC)

Sargeant and Lee (2004) adapted the original trust scale developed by Morgan and Hunt (1994) to a charitable giving context. Subsequent use by Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) in the same research context produced a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.96. The five adapted items measuring trust in charity (TC) used a seven-point bipolar scale ranging from -3 = "strongly disagree" to +3 = "strongly agree" and a midpoint of 0 = "neutral." The pilot test assessing initial

reliability of this scale in the current research did not show sufficient reason to edit further or eliminate any of the five adapted items in this scale from their pilot tested versions. A Cronbach's alpha value of 0.89 and a composite reliability value of 0.92 demonstrated internal consistency (Hair et al. 2017; Nunnally and Bernstein 1994). An AVE value of 0.698 and main loadings exceeding 0.7 demonstrated sound convergent validity (Anderson and Gerbings 1988; Fornell and Larcker 1981; Nunnally and Bernstein 1994). The Heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations did show issues with discriminant validity, however. A HTMT matrix value of 0.87 in the correlation of the TC variable with the Organizational Perceptions: Performance (P) variable indicates that the items measuring these two variables may not be sufficiently distinct (Hair et al. 2017; Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt 2015). Due to an additional issue with the Organizational Perceptions (OP) variable, this scale was adjusted further rather than adjusting the TC scale.

Donor Commitment (DC)

Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) adapted the original commitment scale developed by Morgan and Hunt (1994) to a charitable giving context, which produced a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.89 in the authors' application. The current research has adapted the four-item Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) scale to the research context as well as added an additional item of "I desire to maintain a valued relationship with this charity," based on the definition of commitment. The five items measuring donor commitment used a seven-point bipolar scale ranging from -3 = "strongly disagree" to +3 = "strongly agree" and a midpoint of 0 = "neutral." The pilot test assessing initial reliability of this scale in the current research did not show sufficient reason to edit further or eliminate any items in this scale from their pilot tested versions. A Cronbach's alpha value of 0.81 and a composite reliability value of 0.87

demonstrated internal consistency. An AVE value of 0.58 and main loadings exceeding 0.7 demonstrated sound convergent validity. The HTMT matrix did not show any values exceeding 0.85 indicating that DC achieved discriminant validity with the other variables of interest in the study.

Empathetic Concern (EC)

The empathetic concern (EC) scale is a subscale of a larger Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI), which evaluates four separate aspects of empathy (Davis 1980, 1983). This subscale, specifically, assesses a tendency to experience emotional concern, warmth, and compassion for others. Initial tests of the scale by its creator produced Cronbach's alpha coefficients of 0.75 for females and 0.77 for males (Davis 1980). Subsequent applications of this subscale either in isolation or as part of the comprehensive IRI produced Cronbach's alpha coefficients that were consistently higher (e.g., Anaza 2014; Cojuharenco and Squera 2015). The seven items in this scale, including the three that are reverse-coded, were measured with a seven-point bipolar scale ranging from -3 = "does not describe me at all" to +3 = "describes me completely" and a midpoint of 0 = "describes me moderately well." The pilot test in the current research produced a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.88 and a composite reliability value of 0.91 which surpasses the 0.60 threshold for demonstrating internal consistency. However, reliability values above 0.90 are not necessarily desirable since this indicates that the scale may have excessive redundancy in the indicator items (Hair et al. 2017). In other words, there may be too many items measuring the same content phenomena of the scale. Thus, three of the seven original items were eliminated from this scale, including one item that had a low main factor loading. All other factor loadings in this scale exceeded 0.7, and an AVE value of 0.59 demonstrated sound convergent validity.

The HTMT matrix did not show any values exceeding 0.85 indicating that EC achieved discriminant validity with the other variables of interest in the study.

Altruism (A)

The operationalization of altruism (A) in the current study is a novel approach that has not been used in the prior research in this composite form. The variable borrows dimensions from two instruments in the prior literature. Two dimensions of A are measured by adapting Schaefers' (2014) five-dimensional scale measuring conspicuous consumption. Of the dimensions of conspicuous consumption, "status orientation" (SO) and "susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence" (SNII) seem to have the most relevant conceptual foundation to the current research model, as they relate to egoistic altruism as described above. SO is a desire to achieve favorable distinction within a group, and SNII is a tendency to make choices that garner approval and foster assimilation to perceived social norms. Schaefers (2014) reports Cronbach's alpha coefficients of greater than 0.77 for all scales used in his research.

The humanitarian values (HV) dimension of A used in the current research is an adapted scale from the values dimension of Clary et al. (1998)'s volunteerism scale. The authors report a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.80 for the values dimension of their scale. However, the scale used in this current research has been adapted to align with the conceptualization of values as "guiding principles" for subsequent behaviors or evaluations (Romani, Grappi, and Bagozzi 2013, p. 196; see also, Schwartz 1992). As such, the value items in Clary et al. (1998), which in their original form closely resembled the items of EC, were adapted to reflect the wording of guidelines that would drive utility evaluations and consumption philanthropy behavioral intentions. The thirteen items in the scales of all three dimensions of altruism were measured

37

with a seven-point bipolar scale ranging from -3 = "does not describe me at all" to +3 = "describes me completely" and a midpoint of 0 = "describes me moderately well."

In the pilot study for the current research, evaluation of the second-order variable of A produced a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.84 and a composite reliability value of 0.86, demonstrating internal consistency. The HTMT matrix did not show any values exceeding 0.85 with opposing variables, indicating that A achieved discriminant validity with the other variables of interest in the study. The second-order composite variable A did have high HTMT values with its own dimensions, which will be described below. This is not a problem and should be theoretically expected, since these indicator variables are specified to measure the same phenomenon. However, an AVE value of 0.32 and several main loadings below the 0.7 threshold indicate convergent validity issues in modeling A as a higher order composite variable. In other words, the indicator items in A that should be theoretically related may not necessarily be theoretically related enough to justify their grouping under the same construct. This finding provides support for measuring the alternative specification of the entire model (Model B) that specifies the dimensions of A as individual variables.

The pilot data evaluation of the HV dimension of A produced a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.89 and a composite reliability value of 0.92 indicating that there may be excessive redundancy in the indicator items. An AVE value of 0.71 and main loadings on the HV variable exceeded 0.7, demonstrating sound convergent validity. The HTMT matrix did not show any values exceeding 0.85 indicating that DC achieved discriminant validity with the other variables of interest in the study. The SO variable had a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.83 and a composite reliability value of 0.89, which demonstrates internal consistency. Its AVE value was 0.75 and had loadings on its own factor exceeding the 0.7 threshold for convergent validity. The HTMT

values for SO were well below 0.85 showing discriminant validity with opposing variables. SNII produced a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.88 and a composite reliability value of 0.91, indicating possible item redundancy issues. An AVE value of 0.68 and high main loadings on its own factor demonstrated sound convergent validity. Its HTMT values were also well below the 0.85 threshold, indicating that discriminant validity was achieved.

Pilot data analysis of the second order A variable and its three dimensions (HV, SO, SNII) revealed two main prospects. The first is that specifying A as a second order construct with its current dimensions may not achieve good convergent validity for the main study. That is, the Model B specification may be a more appropriate fit for the data as compared to Model A. The second revelation is that the relatively high reliability values indicate that there may be redundancy in the indicator items that measure the three latent dimensions. It should be noted, however, that reliability values are a function of the number of items representing the latent variable. That is, reliability values may be increased simply by increasing the number of items without any conceptual improvement in internal consistency. Thus, while eliminating items from the dimensions of A may decrease Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability to below the 0.90 threshold, it may not come at any conceptual gains and may even produce a loss of content validity (Hair et al. 2017). Moreover, Bagozzi and Yi (2012) note that traditional reliability indicators "should not be applied rigidly to SEMs" (p. 17), since large structural models can still achieve a good fit to the data in hypothesis testing despite occasional deviation from threshold standards. Thus, with only a minor change in wording to one item in HV from "I desire to help the cause this charity supports" to "I desire to help charitable causes" (see Appendix A and Appendix B, respectively, for the surveys used in the pilot and full studies), the full set of items measuring HV, SO, and SNII were retained for sampling in the main study.

Perceived Utility (PU) and Organizational Perceptions (OP)

Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) created an instrument to measure the variables of demonstrable utility, emotional utility, familial utility, performance, and communication using the suggested procedures of Churchill (1979). This instrument was adapted to the pilot study in the current research context, with two notable changes. First, in one item measuring emotional utility ("I give to this charity because I would feel shame if I didn't.") replaced the authors' original term of "guilt" with "shame." The rationale behind this is that guilt is felt as a consequence of a perceived injury that has already been committed. Shame, alternatively, is an emotion felt when falling short of expectations. The second notable change is the addition of an item to emotional utility ("I would feel pride giving to this charity.") to compliment the guilt item described above. Also, the name of the "familial utility" dimension was changed to "social utility" (PUSU) since the indicator items measuring this variable suggest utility derived from a social context that could include relationships extended beyond solely family members. The authors report Cronbach's alpha coefficients exceeding 0.70 for all five measures in their study, but they did not specify the exact values for this variable. In the current research, the five items measuring demonstrable utility, four items measuring emotional utility, and three items measuring social utility utilize a seven-point bipolar scale ranging from -3 = "strongly disagree" to +3 = "strongly agree" and a midpoint of 0 = "neutral."

Pilot data analysis of PU produced a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.77 and a composite reliability value of 0.82, demonstrating internal consistency reliability. The HTMT matrix did not show any values exceeding 0.85 for the second-order PU variable, except with its own three dimensions, indicating that it achieved discriminant validity with the other variables of interest in the study. However, an AVE value of 0.29 and several main loadings below 0.7 indicates poor

convergent validity. Despite the Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) finding of good internal consistency values, the pilot data produced a low a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.54 for the demonstrable utility (PUDU) dimension of PU with a composite reliability value of 0.73. PUDU also had some low main factor loadings. In order to remedy these issues, two items from PUDU were eliminated from inclusion in the main study and two items were reworded (one to provide better clarity based on respondent feedback from the free-response section of the pilot survey and one to increase generalizability). Specifically, "When I give to this charity, I receive some benefit in return" was reworded to "When I give to this charity, this charity gives me something valuable in return" and "I give to this charity to gain local prestige" was reworded to "I give to this charity to gain prestige."

The emotional utility (PUEU) and social utility (PUSU) dimensions of PU produced good internal consistency reliability values of 0.70 and 0.74 for Cronbach's alpha and 0.82 and 0.85 for composite reliability, respectively. Both latter dimensions had sufficient AVE values of 0.53 and 0.66, respectively, to demonstrate convergent validity, and neither had values exceeding 0.85 with opposing variables on the HTMT matrix. However, two items in PUSU were reworded in hopes of increasing content generalizability. Specifically, "I give money to this charity in memory of a loved one" was reworded to "I would give money to this charity in memory of a loved one" and "My family has a strong link to this charity" was reworded to "This charity is important to my family."

Pilot data analysis of OP produced a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.84 and a composite reliability value of 0.88, demonstrating internal consistency reliability. The HTMT matrix did not show any values exceeding 0.85 for the second-order OP variable, except appropriately with its own two dimensions, indicating that OP achieved discriminant validity with the other

variables of interest in the study. However, an AVE value of 0.49 and a small number of main loadings below 0.7 provides evidence of poor convergent validity. The performance (OPP) dimension of OP produced a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.64 which, unlike the higher value obtained in Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006), indicates potential internal consistency issues. The composite reliability value of OPP was 0.85. An AVE value 0.74 and high factor loadings indicate convergent validity. In an attempt to fix the convergent validity issues in OPP both indicator items were reworded and an additional item was added to the scale. Specifically, "This charity is the charity most likely to have an impact on this cause" was reworded to "This charity is likely to have a significant impact on this cause"; "This charity spends a high proportion of its donations on this cause" was reworded to "This charity uses its donations appropriately"; and the additional item of "This charity uses its donations effectively" was added to the OPP scale. The Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability values for the communication (OPC) dimension of OP were 0.80 and 0.86, respectively, indicating sound internal consistency. OPC had high factor loadings for only four of its six indicator items and did produce a high HTMT value with the TC variable, indicating that discriminant validity may be an issue. Thus, two items were eliminated and three items were reworded on the OPC scale. Specifically, "This charity keeps me informed about how my donations are being used" was reworded to "This charity's communications inform me about how my donations are being used"; "I look forward to receiving communications from this charity" was reworded to "I would look forward to receiving communications from this charity"; and "This charity's communications are always courteous" was reworded to "The communication I've seen from this charity is courteous."

Customer-Charity Identification (CCI)

CCI is the degree of overlap in a consumer's self-perception of her identity and her perception of the identity of the charity. As described earlier, the use of this measure gains conceptual support from the prior research of Lichtenstein, Drumwright, and Braig (2004) in an exclusively donor context. The authors used a list of twelve traits based on interviews with corporations and their customers. However, it may be too constraining to preselect the identity traits in the context of the current research. Thus, the scale used for the current measure of CCI has its basis in the cognitive component of the Social Identity scale of Bagozzi and Lee (2002), which identifies personal perceptions of overlap in identity as an antecedent to intentions to act. The authors measured the first item with an eight-point pictorial scale of circles that overlapped far in distance to a complete overlap. The second item was measured using a seven-point bipolar scale ranging from -3 = "not at all" to +3 = "very much" and a midpoint of 0 = "moderately." The current research recreated the pictorial scale used by Bagozzi and Lee (2002) for the first adapted item, as shown in Figure 3.1. The pilot test assessing initial reliability of this scale in the current research did not show sufficient reason to edit further or eliminate either of the items in this scale from their pilot tested versions. Pilot data analysis of this two item scale showed high Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability values of 0.87 and 0.94, respectively. Convergent validity was demonstrated with factor loadings well above 0.7 and an AVE value of 0.89. The HTMT matrix demonstrated discriminant validity with all values below 0.85 for CCI.

Figure 3.1: Pictorial Scale for CCI Item 7-2 ("To what extent would you perceive the degree of overlap between your own personal identity and the identity of this charity?")

My own identity

The identity of the charity as I perceive it

(a) Far apart

(b) Close together but separate

(c) Very small overlap

(d) Small overlap

(e) Moderate overlap

(f) Large overlap

(g) Very large overlap

(h) Complete overlap
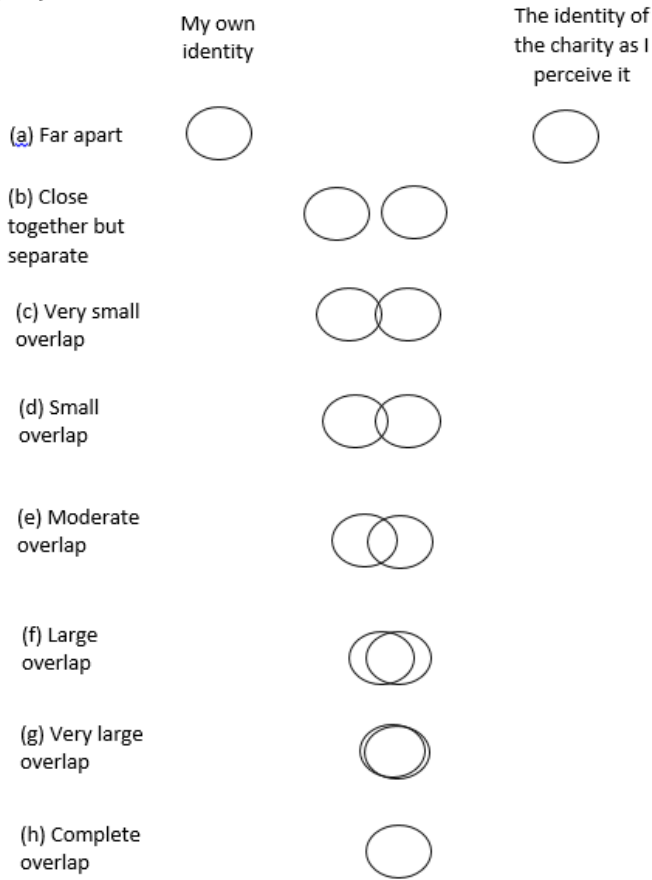
Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intention (CPDI)

Consumption philanthropy donation intention (CPDI) is a construct unique to the current research, although the domain of purchase intention is certainly applied on a regular basis in marketing research (e.g., Chang and Wildt 1994; Herbst et al. 2012; Homburg, Schwemmle, and Kuehnl 2015; Ku, Kuo, and Kuo 2012). Purchase intent is a tendency toward personal action relating to a particular brand. It is distinct from the concept of attitude, which, in some cases does and in other cases does not have a direct effect on behavior (e.g., Bagozzi and Warshaw 1992; Chandon, Morwitz, and Reinartz 2005; Eagly and Chaiken 1993; Kalwani and Silk 1982;

Ostrom 1969). Measuring donation intent is similar to measuring purchase intent. It means gaining an indication that a consumer, in a given context, intends to put effort toward carrying out the behavior of making a donation. The current study measures consumption philanthropy donation intention using a three-item scale that does not appear in the prior literature in its explicit form. The items were constructed based on the definition of consumption philanthropy donation intentions. The first two items were measured with a seven-point bipolar scale ranging from -3 = "strongly disagree" to +3 = "strongly agree" and a midpoint of 0 = "neutral." The final item was measured with a seven-point bipolar scale ranging from -3 = "highly unlikely" to +3 = "highly likely" and a midpoint of 0 = "unsure." The pilot test assessing initial reliability of this scale in the current research produced a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.97 and a composite reliability value of 0.98, demonstrating internal consistency but also likely redundancy of indicator items. An AVE value of 0.94 and main loadings exceeding 0.7 demonstrated sound convergent validity. The HTMT matrix did not show any values exceeding 0.85 indicating that CPDI achieved discriminant validity with the other variables of interest in the study. The pilot test data did not show sufficient reason to edit the items in this scale but based on respondent comments in the free-response section "I intend to donate to this charity" was reworded to "I would donate to this charity in real life."

Demographic Information

Survey respondents were asked for information on age, income, and gender identity. Age and income were measured on a discrete numerical scale from answers filled into a text box by respondents. Gender identity was requested on a nominal categorical scale with "female," "male," and "other" presented as options. Highest level of education completed was requested on a nominal categorical scale with "none," "elementary school," "middle school," "high school,"

"associates degree," "bachelor degree," "master or professional degree," and "PhD or doctorate degree" presented as options. As with all of the survey items, responses were optional in that respondents were not forced to submit answers to any survey items or demographic inquiries in order to continue with or submit the survey.

Attention Checks

Three items dispersed into fixed intervals in the survey were included in order to check that the survey respondent was focused on the task. These "attention check" questions are sometimes referred to as "trap questions" and are intended to maximize the quality of data gathered by filtering out invalid respondents (Jones, House, and Gao 2015; Smith et al. 2016). The first statement was placed about a third of the way through the survey (item 22) and stated, "I will mark strongly agree if I am paying attention." The second statement was placed about two-thirds of the way into the survey (item 49) and stated, "I will indicate that I am reading each item in this survey by selecting describes me completely." The final attention check statement was placed near the end of the survey (item 68) but prior to the collection of demographic information and stated, "I will select strongly disagree if I am alert and reading each question."

<div align="center">

Data

</div>

Based on the conceptual development, adaptations to existing scales, and edits supported by the results of the pilot study, the main survey was constructed with the goal of creating valid and reliable measures of the underlying constructs presented in Chapter 2. The components of survey creation and administration include item design, sampling, and data collection (Fowler 2009). Most of the survey items necessitate responses that capture the intensity of each

respondent's feelings for a given statement, with the ultimate goal of identifying a pattern of feelings in order to create the latent constructs (Likert 1932).

Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval to conduct online data gathering on the final set of survey items was obtained. The approval letter is contained in Appendix F. Data collection for the main study was conducted through the purchase of a Qualtrics Internet survey panel in hopes of producing more generalizable data than convenience sampling using local populations or other online sampling alternatives (e.g., Peterson and Merunka 2014; Smith et al. 2016). The data collection instruments, one for each of the three scenarios, were created on the Qualtrics survey platform licensed by University of Texas – Rio Grande Valley (UTRGV) from which a Qualtrics panel consultant coordinated distribution of the survey links to a U.S.-based adult subset of the company's proprietary panel. A fee of $5 per respondent was paid to Qualtrics for each successfully completed survey, but Qualtrics does not release information about incentives provided to their panel members. Each invited participant was sent the link to only one of the three scenario surveys so that there was no chance that a panel member would participate as a respondent in more than one scenario.

Survey respondents were sent invitations to complete one of the surveys through a link contained in an email from Qualtrics. The initial page of the online survey contained an Online Informed Consent letter (contained in Appendix F). Respondents had to acknowledge that they were more than 18 years of age and that they had read and understood the consent letter before choosing to voluntarily proceed with the survey. The next page of the survey included one of the three scenarios (see Appendix C) and all of the survey items for the main scales of interest (see Appendix B). In order to reduce common method bias, the survey items in this section were randomized (Chang, Witteloostuijn, and Eden 2010).

47

A total of 1,807 respondents completed surveys, each across only one of the three scenarios, for the 10 days for which the survey links were active. Of these responses, only 805 surveys (45%) were retained for analysis in the current research. Six criteria were used to discard the other 1,002 surveys in order to maximize the quality of responses. The first two criteria were that respondents reported being more than 18 years of age and that they voluntarily opted to continue in the study after reading the Online Informed Consent letter shown at the start page of the survey. The survey platform was configured to not allow the respondent to continue unless these two criteria were met. Three other criteria were the attention check questions described in the prior section. If an attention check question was marked incorrectly within the question block in which it was contained, the respondent was redirected to a screen that ended the survey. Thus, the number of failures for the first attention check are much higher than the subsequent two attention checks. The final criterion for eliminating a survey from the research analysis was if it was completed too quickly, with this criterion being defined as quicker than one-third of the median completion time. For the No Gift scenario, the median time to complete a survey was 9:25 minutes (mean: 13:45 minutes, standard deviation: 19:01 minutes). For the T-Shirt Gift scenario, the median time to complete a survey was 9:16 minutes (mean: 12:26 minutes, standard deviation: 11:13 minutes). For the Bear Gift scenario, the median time to complete a survey was 9:37 minutes (mean: 12:48 minutes, standard deviation: 13:36 minutes). The number of surveys discarded for each criterion for each of the three scenario surveys are reported in Table 3.1.

48

Table 3.1: Survey Failure Rates

Scenario	Failure Reasons						Total Discarded	Total Retained
	Not 18	Voluntary Exit	Attention Check 1	Attention Check 2	Attention Check 3	Speeder		
No Gift	6 (1%)	13 (2%)	234 (39%)	30 (5%)	41 (7%)	2 (<1%)	326 (54%)	273 (46%)
T-Shirt Gift	19 (3%)	16 (3%)	220 (35%)	51 (8%)	43 (7%)	0 (0%)	349 (56%)	273 (44%)
Bear Gift	12 (2%)	9 (2%)	221 (38%)	42 (7%)	43 (7%)	1 (<1%)	327 (56%)	259 (44%)

The retained data included a relatively equal split in female and male respondents. The sex of the respondents for the retained surveys generalizes fairly well with the sex distribution of the adult population of the United States (United States Census Bureau 2014), as reported in Table 3.2. However, the age distribution of the survey respondents seems to under-represent somewhat those respondents that are 45 years of age and older, while over-representing somewhat those less than 45 years old.

Table 3.2: Age and Sex Generalizability of Survey Respondents

Characteristic		Distribution		Survey Deviation
		National	Survey	
Age	18-24	13%	15% (117)	+ 2%
	25-34	18%	27% (217)	+ 9%
	35-44	17%	36% (286)	+ 19%
	45-54	18%	4% (34)	− 14%
	55-64	16%	8% (62)	− 8%
	65+	19%	11% (86)	− 8%
Sex	Female	52%	50% (402)	− 2%
	Male	48%	50% (397)	+ 2%

Note: Respondents were informed that providing information on age and sex was voluntary and that they may decline this information without penalty. Numbers in parentheses indicate total surveys in the category and do not sum to the total number of surveys collected due to missing data.

Data on annual income and education levels of the respondents was also requested. The annual income data, however, seems problematic. Only about two-thirds of respondents (65%)

reported income. Of this subset, a great deal of respondents entered values of zero. It is unclear whether this number should be interpreted as the respondent having no income or not wanting to disclose income. Many respondents also entered one- to three-digit values. It is unclear whether these values should be interpreted as being the actual income of the respondents or whether some respondents reported their income in the thousands. For instance, does an entry of "120" mean that the respondent has an annual income of $120 or $120,000? Thus, the income data was not analyzed further in the current research. The distribution of reported education levels for the sample showed that more than 99% of the sample had at least a high school degree, 59% completed a bachelor degree, and 21% had a graduate degree. Thus, the sample in this study is more educated than the general adult population of the United States, where 88% of the adult population has a high school degree, 30% hold a bachelor degree, and 11% have a graduate degree (United States Census Bureau 2015).

Analytical Procedures

Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)

Partial least squares (PLS) describes statistical methodologies that predicts relationships between dependent and independent variables by reducing the independent variables into uncorrelated factors in order to predict the multivariate direction of the independent variables while explaining the variance in the dependent variables. Thus, PLS projects the variables into a separate space that allows the latent components of the model to be uncorrelated so as to provide robust exploratory explanations of the relationships (Gelaldi and Kowalski 1986; Hair et al. 2017; Wold, Sjostrom, and Eriksson 2001). Structural equation modeling (SEM) is used to either

explore or confirm networks of relationships involving directly unobservable latent variables (Bagozzi and Yi 2012; Hair et a. 2017). These variables are measured indirectly through sets of observable indicator variables.

PLS-SEM was selected over a covariance based SEM (CB-SEM) alternative. According to Hair, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2011), who provide guidelines on selecting between PLS- and CB-SEM, the latter has the relevant advantage of comparing alternative theories, including providing a global goodness-of-fit measure. Since an objective of the current research is to assess the model of consumption philanthropy intentions determinants using a second-order altruism construct with respect to an alternative model that considers the three dimensions independently of one another in their relationships within the overall model, CB-SEM is preferable in this regard. However, PLS-SEM has some critical advantages. PLS-SEM is preferable for "identifying key 'driver' constructs" (Hair, Ringle, and Sarstedt 2011, p. 144). An overarching objective of the current research is to identify whether the conceptualized model of consumption philanthropy donation intentions determinants are, in fact, empirically corroborated determinants. A secondary reason in choosing PLS-SEM is that the conceptualized model is complex with many latent variables and respective indicators. PLS-SEM is also less sensitive to distributional skews in the data, and it allows for latent variables with less than three indicators such as the customer-charity identification variable. Finally, if the sample size is sufficiently large, as is the case in the current research, then "PLS-SEM is a good approximation of CB-SEM results" (Hair, Ringle, and Sarstedt 2011, p. 144).

The current research uses the SmartPLS PLS-SEM software to test the hypothesized relationships. The estimation process produces a measurement model and a structural model. The measurement model tests the relationships between the observed indicator variables towards the

latent variables which they are specified *a priori* to represent. This confirmatory method

contrasts with exploratory factor analysis which assesses the internal structure of observed data

without the assumption of a specified *a priori* model. The measurement model investigates joint

variations in the observed indicator variables (survey items) which are modeled as linear

combinations of the prespecified latent variables (factors). Figure 3.2 illustrates this process for

an arbitrary model with n indicator variables that are specified to load on to k factors.

Figure 3.2: Latent Variables in a Structural Equation Model
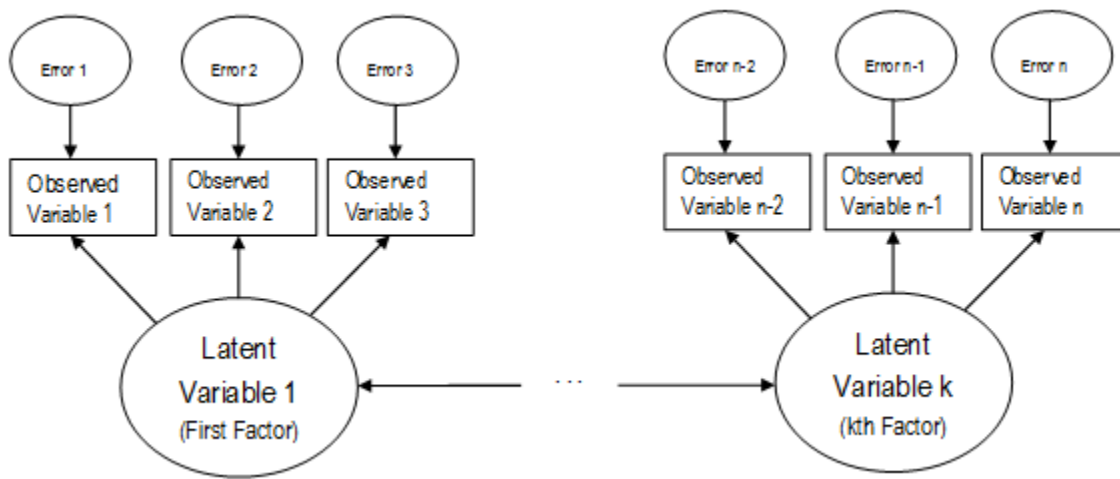
The measurement model and structural model are simultaneously tested in PLS-SEM,

although the researcher will likely reprocess data based on refinements resulting from assessment

of the measurement model before accepting any results from the structural model. The structural

model tests the relationships between the latent variables in the SEM network. SEM seems

particularly appropriate to test the models in the current research because of its ability to provide

causal-based measurement of the relationships, or paths, of latent variables (Byrne 2009).

Results: Measurement Model Assessments

Less than the full number of original items intended to measure the main variables of interest were ultimately used in the construction of the structural equation model. Elimination of survey items was based on critical failures to achieve measurement reliability, discriminant validity, and convergent validity. Moreover, certain discriminant validity issues in the assessment of the measurement model indicated that Model A and Model B needed to be investigated in parsimonious subcomponents, while maintaining the originally hypothesized paths of the construct relationships.

Model A

Model A and Model B were assessed according to the processes recommended for reflective models in Hair et al. (2017), which recommends that prior to assessment of the hypotheses in the structural model, the measurement model of a SEM should be evaluated for indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Unless indicated otherwise, all guidelines and threshold recommendations in this section were obtained from Hair et al. (2017). After confirming that the PLS algorithm converged (stop criterion was reached prior to the preset maximum value of 300 iterations), each of the samples from the three experimental scenarios were assessed independently and concurrently using these criteria. Investigation of the full measurement models of Model A and Model B revealed critical issues in discriminant validity among specific latent variables in the model, namely OP, PU, and DC. The measurement model assessment process for Model A, which will be described presently, illustrates these issues. At the end of this section, the solution of delineating the full model is proposed and completed.

53

Indicator reliability is the extent to which a set of variables is consistent in measuring what it is intended to measure. High outer loading values, represented by values greater than 0.70, suggest that indicator items have enough in common to be measuring the same phenomena. Table D1, Table D2, and Table D3 in Appendix D report the outer loading values as well as any critical cross-loadings for the full set of survey items for each of the three scenarios (the full text of each survey item is contained in Appendix B). Main loadings on factors are expected to exceed a minimum threshold of 0.70 for strong interpretive purposes, although main factor loadings exceeding 0.40 may be acceptable (Hair et al. 2010). Within the three scenario samples, there is one item for EC that falls below this threshold, up to five items that do so for A and its SO dimension, up to three items that do so for PU and its PUDU dimension, and one item that does so for the OPC dimension of OP. Indicator items should be considered for removal if they have a positive effect on internal consistency reliability (increase in the composite reliability value) and maintain an acceptable AVE value. These were evaluated next.

Internal consistency reliability is the extent to which a set of items are consistent in measuring the construct that they propose to measure and is tested by evaluating the composite reliability values and the Cronbach's alpha values, with the former being considered an upper bound and the latter being considered a lower bound. Since Cronbach's alpha is calculated as a function of the number of items in a scale, a large number of items will inflate the Cronbach's alpha value's estimate of reliability. Traditionally, values above 0.70 are considered acceptable, although social sciences research is accepting of values above 0.60, with values lower than this threshold indicating that the estimates are unlikely to be consistent across different measurements. The initial Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability values for all of the variables in the three scenarios are presented in Table D4 in Appendix D. All values are well

above the minimum acceptable threshold. However, many variables have values well above the recommended maximum threshold of 0.90, indicating that there may be item redundancy in the measurement model in that multiple indicator variables may be measuring identical phenomena.

Convergent validity refers to the extent to which indicators of the same construct are related. Thus, those items that are measuring the same latent variable should be highly correlated with each other. AVE values that exceed a 0.50 threshold indicate sufficient convergent validity. Table D5 in Appendix D reports the AVE values for the full survey across each of the three scenario samples. When the full set of items are included, the composite second-order variable of A fails to show acceptable convergent validity.

Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which indicators of different constructs are independent, and so we would expect indicator items measuring different variables to have low correlations with each other. Discriminant validity can be evaluated in SmartPLS by examining the cross loadings, the Fornell-Larcker criterion, and the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT). The HTMT is considered to be the most reliable measure of discriminant validity for reflective constructs as compared to the traditionally popular measures of the Fornell-Larcker criterion and examination of cross-loadings to other variables (Hair et al. 2017; Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt 2015). HTMT values must not exceed 0.90 for conceptually similar constructs in order to demonstrate discriminant validity. Table D6, Table D7, and Table D8 in Appendix D contain the matrices of HTMT values for each of the three scenarios. Values that exceed the 0.90 threshold are shaded. HTMT analysis showed that, if all items are retained in the same model, DC, PU, and OP do not achieve adequate discriminant validity. DC also fails to achieve discriminant validity with CPDI in two of the scenarios. Similarly, the HV dimension of A fails to achieve discriminant validity with EC in two of the scenarios.

Items 3-6 under EC and 4-23 under SO, respectively, were sequentially eliminated due to having critically low main loadings below the 0.40 threshold. While there is also statistical justification for the elimination of other items due to less critically low main loadings, in order to lower the risk of sacrificing content validity, other criteria were subsequently considered prior to further elimination. In order to examine more precisely the items that are problematic, the cross-loadings can be examined to confirm that items have outer loadings on their assigned variables at higher levels than on opposing variables. Prominent guidelines (e.g., Hair et al. 2017; Henseler, Hubona, and Ray 2016; Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt 2015) for examining cross-loadings on SmartPLS do not provide a cutoff point for cross-loaded items, but rather, give the general guideline that the main outer loadings should exceed any cross-loadings. Unlike the traditional factor analysis guidelines of eliminating cross-loadings that exceed 0.30 (e.g., Costello and Osborne 2005), examples in the recent PLS-SEM guidelines retain cross-loaded items that are well above this threshold (e.g., Hair et al. 2017, p. 129). There were very few incidents where the cross-loadings exceeded the main loading. However, many cross-loadings were close to the main loading. Thus, the current analysis investigates any cross-loadings that are within 0.1 units away from the main loading even if the main loading is not exceeded. Table D1, Table D2, and Table D3 in Appendix D contains the matrix of problematic cross-loading values for each scenario sample. The tables list any cross-loadings that are within 0.1 units away from the main loading (even if the main loading is not exceeded) in italics and shading.

There are various approaches for improving discriminant validity by decreasing problematic HTMT values, including: (1) eliminating items that have low correlations with other items that measure the same variable, (2) eliminating items that have high correlations with items that measure different variables, (3) reassigning items that have high correlations to opposing

variables to those variables, (4) splitting a problematic variable into two or more variables, and (5) merging problematic variables into a smaller number of variables (Hair et al. 2017; Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt 2015). For the current research, the structure of these variables and their respective scales largely have support in the prior literature. Thus, the latter three options have the potential to lower the traditionally accepted content validity of the established measurements. For instance, although there is almost complete submersion of the commitment factor (DC) within the second-order perceived utility factor (PU), the commitment variable and its process order in the prior literature investigating commitment-trust is well established in prior research such that merging commitment as a dimension of PU would make only statistical sense without content justification.

In order to fix the reliability and discriminant validity issues, relevant items were eliminated sequentially. After each elimination, indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were reevaluated in order to assess the overall measurement model. Ultimately, the discriminant validity issues of the donor commitment (DC), organizational perceptions (OP), and the perceived utility (PU) variables could not be remedied in the full model without sacrificing so many items that theoretical content validity of the original constructs was critically diminished. In this case, Hair et al. (2017) recommend respecifying the model. Thus, the original hypotheses will be evaluated in three versions of parsimonious models where DC and PU are treated separately and OP is removed from the study. Despite OP's inclusion in Sargeant, Ford, and West's (2006) commitment-trust model for charitable giving, the current study found a critical lack of discriminant validity between OP and DC. That is, respondents in the current study did not show a significantly different pattern of feelings for the indicator statements measuring the two latent

constructs in order to justify their continued treatment as individual constructs. The measurements and paths of the variable relationships for all other constructs are maintained in the parsimonious models. The following subsection reports the indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of the measurement models of the three parsimonious models.

Model 1: Commitment-Trust Framework of Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions

The first parsimonious model (henceforth, "Model 1") exploits the commitment-trust foundation of consumption philanthropy donation intentions justified in the conceptual development of the current research. Figure 3.3 presents Model 1.

Figure 3.3: Commitment-Trust Framework of Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions (Model 1)
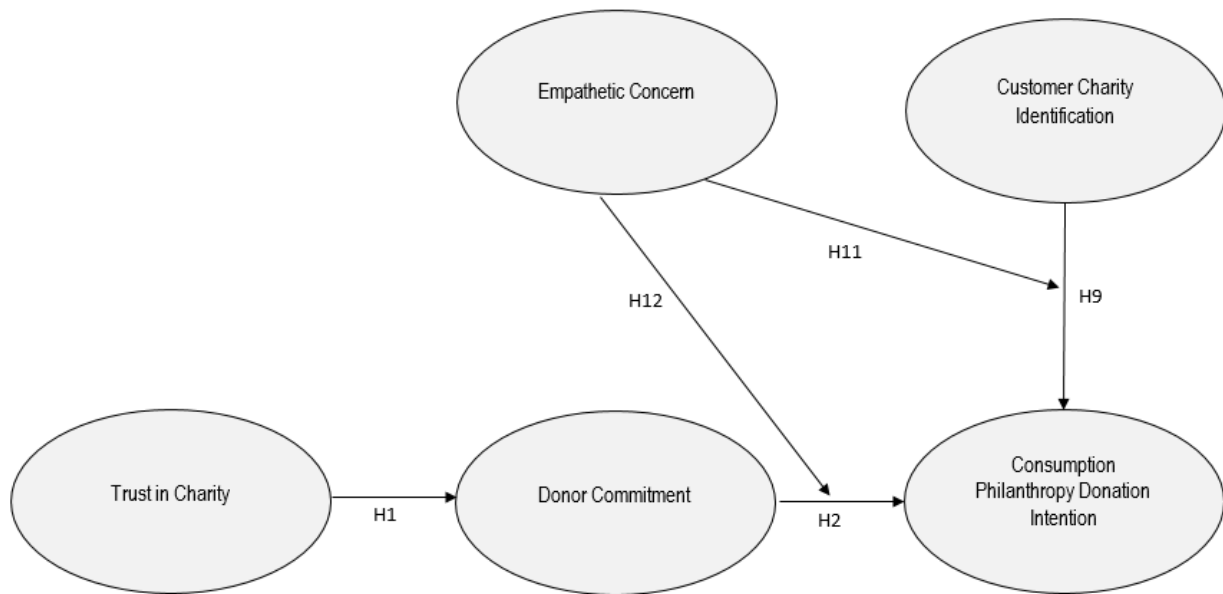
In the assessment of the measurement model for Model 1, all indicator items were maintained except for items 2-2 in the DC and 3-6 in EC scales. These items were eliminated due to low main loadings (<0.40) and significant cross-loadings with opposing variables,

respectively. Table E1 in Appendix E reports the outer loading values for the remaining items for the relevant set of survey items for each of the three scenarios, as well as the one remaining problematic cross-loading in a commitment (DC) survey item in the "bear gift" sample. Since this cross-loading is a discriminant validity problem in only one of the scenario samples, the item was retained.

The Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability values for the variables in Model 1 are presented on Table E2 of Appendix E. All values are well above the minimum acceptable threshold. However, many variables still have values well above the maximum desired threshold of 0.90, indicating that there may be still be some item redundancy in the measurement model (multiple indicator variables may be measuring identical phenomena). Table E3 reports the AVE values for Model 1 across each of the three scenario samples. All values exceed the 0.50 threshold indicating sufficient convergent validity. Table E4 reports the HTMT values for each of the three scenarios. Using 0.90 as the threshold for conceptually similar variables and 0.85 as the threshold for conceptually distinct variables, Model 1 demonstrates discriminant validity.

Model 2: Altruism and Perceived Utility Framework of Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions

The second parsimonious model (henceforth, "Model 2") investigates the prior conceptual support that the higher order construct of altruism (A), composed of dimensions covering humanitarian values and subjective norms, is a determinant of consumption philanthropy donation intentions. This model also includes the perceived utility (PU) but respecified as a first-order construct due to almost complete cross-loadings of its three dimensions. Although Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) treated PU with separate dimensions, the prior reliability analysis in the current research demonstrated that respondents in the current

study did not show a significantly different pattern of feelings for the indicator statements

measuring the PU construct (see Table D1, Table D2, Table D3, Table D6, Table D7, and Table

D8 in Appendix D). The severe lack of discriminant validity across the three dimensions

provides evidence for respecifying PU from a higher-order composite variable to one with

combined indicators that reflect separate content measurements but not separate dimensions of

PU. Figure 3.4 presents Model 2.

Figure 3.4: Altruism and Perceived Utility Framework of Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions (Model 2)
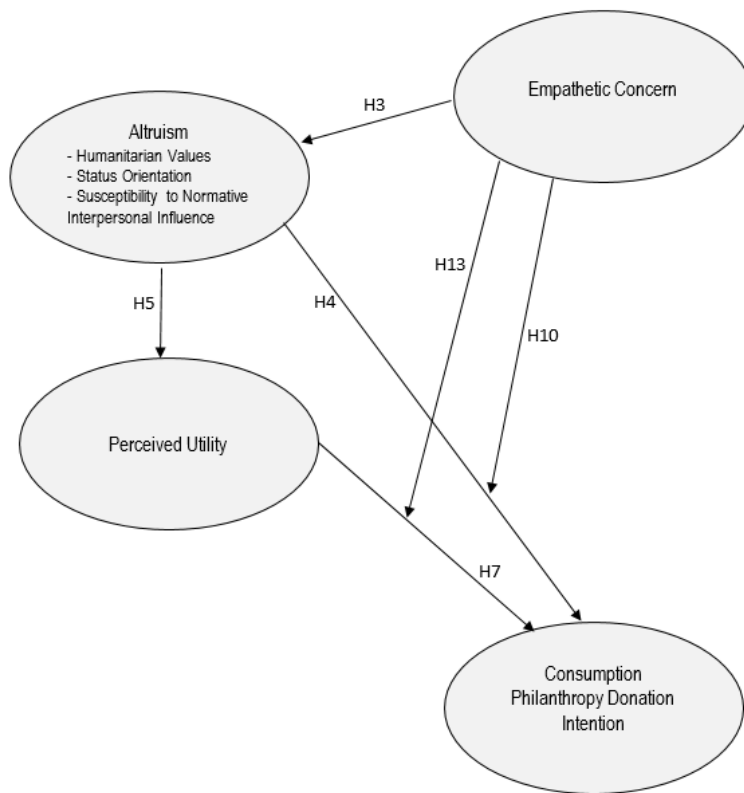
Model 2 was evaluated using the same procedures to test indicator reliability, internal

consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. This analysis resulted in

two additional items, 5-12 and 5-24 from PU, being sequentially eliminated from further analysis

due to high cross-loading values. Item 4-23 from the status orientation (SO) dimension of A was

also eliminated due to a critically low main loading. Table E5, Table E6, and Table E7 in Appendix E report the outer loading values for the remaining items for the relevant set of survey items for each of the three scenarios as well as the problematic cross-loadings of A. Although the main loadings of the indicator items on the second-order construct of A surpass a 0.60 threshold that can be acceptable for social sciences research, the loadings are relatively low and lower than some cross-loadings with EC.

The Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability values for the variables in Model 2 are presented in Table E8 in Appendix E. All values are well above the minimum acceptable threshold. However, many variables still have values well above the maximum desired threshold of 0.90, indicating that there may be still be some item redundancy in the measurement model (multiple indicator variables may be measuring identical phenomena). Table E9 reports the AVE values for Model 2 across each of the three scenario samples. All values exceed the 0.50 threshold indicating sufficient convergent validity, although the higher-order construct of A is very close to it. Table E10, Table E11, and Table E12 report the HTMT values for each of the three scenarios in Model 2. Using 0.90 as the threshold for conceptually similar variables and 0.85 as the threshold for conceptually distinct variables, Model 2 demonstrates discriminant validity except in the overlap of the HV dimension of A with the EC variable in two of the scenario samples.

The indicator reliability, discriminant validity, and convergent validity issues with the higher-order construct A seem to provide evidence that Model 2 may not be a sound specification of the data in the current research. Indeed, the subsequent analysis revealed that Model 3 provided better measurement model indications as well as, as will be shown in the next section evaluating the structural model, a better absolute fit of the data in the structural model.

Model 3: Values, Subjective Norms, and Perceived Utility Framework of Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions

The third parsimonious model (henceforth, "Model 3") investigates Model 2 with altruism (A) removed as a higher order construct and its three former dimensions treated as independent exogenous constructs. This specification aligns with a parsimonious version of Model B, developed conceptually in the prior chapter. Figure 3.5 presents Model 3.

Figure 3.5: Values, Subjective Norms, and Perceived Utility Framework of Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions (Model 3)
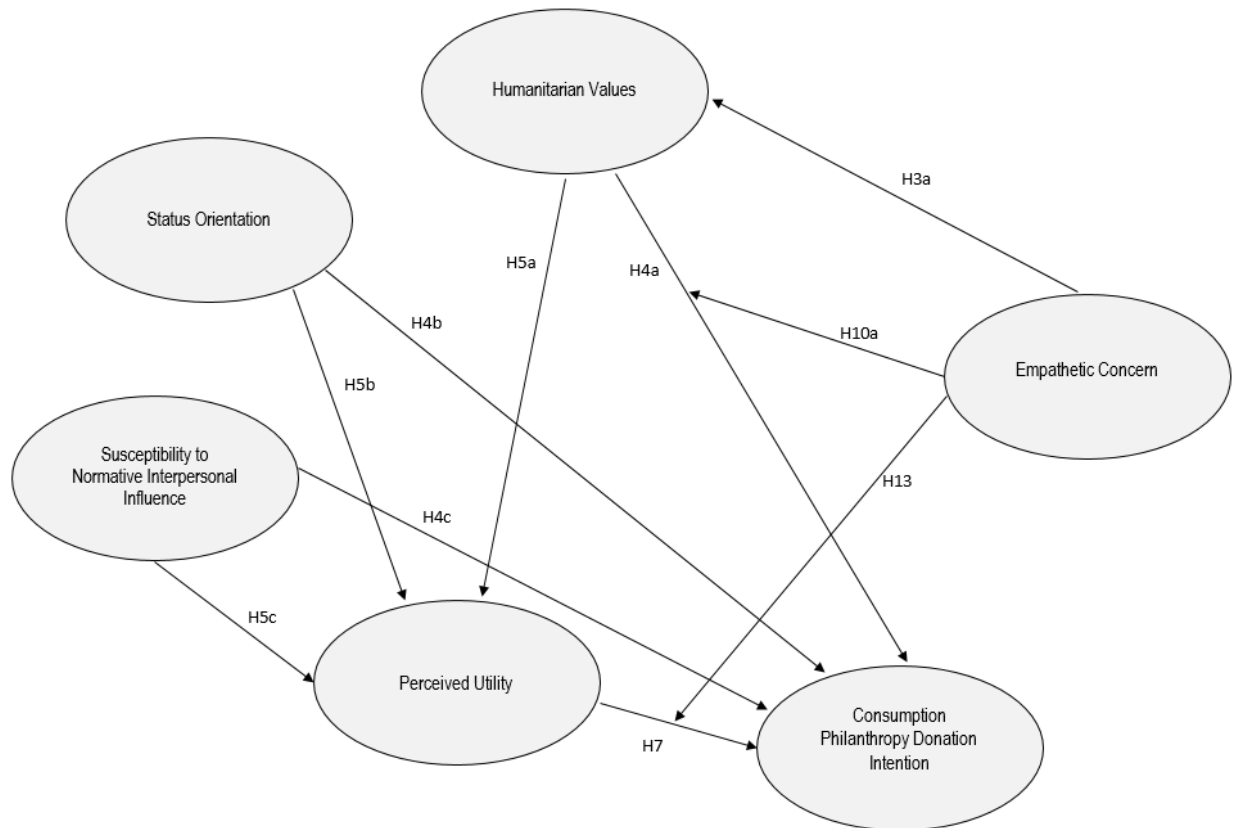
Model 3 was investigated for indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. For the same reasons as in Model 2, items 5-12 and 5-24 from PU and item 4-23 from SO was eliminated from further analysis. Table E13, Table E14, and Table E15 in Appendix E report the outer loading values for the remaining items

for the relevant set of survey items for each of the three scenarios. The Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability values for the variables in Model 3 are presented in Table E16. All values are well above the minimum acceptable threshold. However, many variables still have values well above the maximum desired threshold of 0.90, indicating that there may be still be some item redundancy in the measurement model (multiple indicator variables may be measuring identical phenomena). Table E17 reports the AVE values for Model 3 across each of the three scenario samples. All values exceed the 0.50 threshold indicating sufficient convergent validity. Table E18, Table E19, and Table E20 report the HTMT values for each of the three scenarios in Model 3. Using 0.90 as the threshold for conceptually similar variables and 0.85 as the threshold for conceptually distinct variables, Model 3 demonstrates discriminant validity except in the overlap of the HV and the EC variable in two of the scenario samples.

Empathetic concern and humanitarian values are conceptually similar constructs. Recall that empathetic concern is defined as feelings that correspond with the perceived welfare of another individual who has an unmet need, and humanitarian values are guiding principles for subsequent behaviors or evaluations that involve promoting welfare. While they are demarcated as separate constructs by their conceptual delineations of empathetic concern being an affective construct that precedes the motivational construct of altruism (Batson and Shaw 1991), it makes sense that respondents' intensity of feelings towards their responses to the indicator statements that reflect the two latent variables would be highly correlated. Further analysis showed that the HTMT values could be decreased with the further elimination of four more items, one more from EC (item 3-6 had already been eliminated for a critically low main loading) and three from HV. However, such a drastic elimination of more than half of the items reflecting the constructs certainly diminishes conceptually these constructs' abilities to measure the content of the

phenomena that they were intended to measure. Hair et al. (2017) warn that "elimination of items purely on statistical grounds can have adverse consequences for the content validity of the constructs" (p. 120) and Bagozzi and Yi (2012) advise that "focus should be placed more on the hypotheses under tests in, and goodness-of-fit of, any SEM" as opposed to "rigid" application of traditional reliability standards (p. 17). Thus, the subsequent analysis will proceed while noting the caveat that discriminant validity was not established for these two variables in two of the samples in the analysis.

Results: Structural Model Assessments

The evaluation of the structural models involves empirical assessment of the underlying conceptual relationships in the path models theorized previously. This process provides predictions based on a sufficient level of empirical observations as to the direction, degree, and significance of relationships between the variables of interest, as well as indicators of how well the overall model specification fits actual observations. As with the prior evaluation of the measurement model using Smart PLS, the current research follows the procedure for evaluation of the structural model recommended by Hair et al. (2017). The authors discuss various quality measures in the context of PLS-SEM. The model fit indices recommended to be assessed prior to hypotheses evaluation include the variance inflation factor (VIF), the coefficient of determination (R^2), and the effect sizes (f^2). While a value for the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) is also provided in the SmartPLS algorithm output, the authors question the validity of its interpretation as well as its traditional cutoff value of 0.08 (Hu and Bentler 1998) in a PLS-SEM context where an objective is to maximize the explained variance in a model.

64

Regardless, since the current research does have an objective of model comparison, the SRMR values will be reported along with the other model quality data.

Model 1: Commitment-Trust Framework of Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions

The SRMR values for the scenario samples evaluated to test Model 1 indicate a good fit of the model to the data (No Gift: 0.034, T-Shirt: 0.032, Bear: 0.031). Collinearity issues in the structural model can be detected through the VIF values. VIF values range from 1 to 10, with VIF values higher than 5 indicating collinearity problems. The ranges of inner VIF values for each scenario sample were well below this threshold (No Gift: 1.597-2.501, T-Shirt: 1.661-2.262, Bear: 1.672-2.492), indicating that collinearity among the predictor variables is not an issue. Before presenting predictive values, the R^2 values for the endogenous variables in each sample were assessed in order to confirm that Model 1 has sufficient predictive power. The R^2 value can range from 0 to 1, with higher values indicating better predictive power. The range of R^2 values for each scenario sample (No Gift: 0.563-0.680, T-Shirt: 0.498-0.683, Bear: 0.539-0.717) indicate moderate to substantial predictive power for the endogenous variables (see also, Hair et al. 2011; Henseler et al. 2009). As a final check of model quality prior to testing path relationships, the effect sizes (f^2) for the structural model relationships are examined. The f^2 value indicates the impact of a variable by calculating the change in the R^2 value when it is omitted from the model. Because of a wide range of f^2 values for each endogenous variable, the results of this calculation for each scenario, as well as the interpretation of the values (Cohen 1988), are reported in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Model 1 f^2 Effect Sizes

Variable	No Gift		T-Shirt Gift		Bear Gift	
	CPDI	DC	CPDI	DC	CPDI	DC
TC		0.991 (large)		1.286 (large)		1.172 (large)
DC	0.646 (large)		0.804 (large)		0.784 (large)	
CCI	0.030 (small)		0.003* (no effect)		0.013 (medium)	
CCI * EC	0.005* (no effect)		0.000 (no effect)		0.001* (no effect)	
DC * EC	0.003* (no effect)		0.009* (no effect)		0.015* (small)	

*Note that values less than 0.02 are interpreted as indicating no effect (Cohen 1988).

Table 3.4 reports the results of testing the path coefficients in Model 1 for each scenario sample. The right-most column reports the conclusions of the hypotheses that were stated in Chapter II. It should be noted that the hypotheses were developed for a model of consumption philanthropy, meaning that the research context necessitates that a consumer product be offered in return for a donation. Thus, consumption philanthropy only occurs in the "t-shirt gift" and "bear gift" scenario samples. The "no gift" scenario is included only as an experimental manipulation for comparison, and the hypotheses developed about consumption philanthropy would not apply to it.

It is apparent that Morgan and Hunt's (1994) commitment-trust framework is corroborated as an appropriate basis for explaining consumption philanthropy donation intentions. The paths from trust (TC) to commitment (DC) and commitment (DC) to intentions (CPDI) are positive, relatively large, and significant for all three scenarios. The path from the identification (CCI) to intentions (CPDI) is far from significant in the "no gift" group. In the "t-shirt" group this path is positive and significant, and in the "bear gift" group this path missed the threshold for significance. The moderation effects of empathy (EC) on the paths from

66

commitment (DC) to intentions (CPDI) or from identification (CCI) to intentions (CPDI) are not

supported in any of the three scenarios. The implications of these results will be discussed further

at the end of this chapter.

Table 3.4: Model 1 Structural Path Coefficients and Significance Testing

Path	Path Coefficient	t Value	p Value	Hypothesized Relationship
No Gift (n=273)				
TC → DC	0.750**	25.884	0.000	*not applicable*
DC → CPDI	0.720**	13.119	0.000	*not applicable*
CCI → CPDI	0.044	0.791	0.429	*not applicable*
CCI * EC → CPDI	-0.055	0.903	0.367	*not applicable*
DC * EC → CPDI	-0.043	0.770	0.441	*not applicable*
T-Shirt Gift (n=273)				
TC → DC	0.706**	22.545	0.000	+ (H1 supported)
DC → CPDI	0.681**	12.397	0.000	+ (H2 supported)
CCI → CPDI	0.138*	2.378	0.019	+ (H9 supported)
CCI * EC → CPDI	-0.016	0.299	0.765	+ (H11 not supported)
DC * EC → CPDI	-0.073	1.473	0.141	+ (H12 not supported)
Bear Gift (n=259)				
TC → DC	0.735**	22.411	0.000	+ (H1 supported)
DC → CPDI	0.744**	13.980	0.000	+ (H2 supported)
CCI → CPDI	0.094	1.722	0.085	+ (H9 not supported)
CCI * EC → CPDI	-0.025	0.434	0.664	+ (H11 not supported)
DC * EC → CPDI	-0.089	1.748	0.081	+ (H12 not supported)

* significant at $p < 0.05$; ** significant at $p < 0.01$

Model 2: Altruism and Perceived Utility Framework of Consumption Philanthropy

Donation Intentions

The SRMR values for the scenario samples (No Gift: 0.137, T-Shirt: 0.130, Bear: 0.132)

evaluated to test Model 2 indicate a poor fit of the model to the data. Although Hair et al. (2017)

warn that the traditionally accepted threshold of 0.08 (Hu and Bentler 1998) "is likely too low

for PLS-SEM" (p. 193), this seems to add at least tentative support to the mounting evidence that

the specification in Model 2 is inferior in predicting the hypothesized relationships of interest.

Indeed, the fit indices in Model 3, which will be presented in the next section, show that its alternative specification produced better quality measures for all three of the scenario samples. However, the results of Model 2 will be reported first.

Collinearity issues in the structural model can be detected through the VIF values. The range of inner VIF values for each scenario sample were well below this threshold (No Gift: 1.860-3.229, T-Shirt: 1.901-3.031, Bear: 1.990-2.661), indicating that collinearity among the predictor variables is not an issue. The range of R^2 values for each scenario sample (No Gift: 0.451-0.615, T-Shirt: 0.459-0.622, Bear: 0.528-0.675) indicate generally moderate predictive power for the endogenous variables. Because of a wide range of f^2 values for each endogenous variable, the results of this calculation for each scenario, as well as the interpretation of the values (Cohen 1988), are reported in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Model 2 f^2 Effect Sizes

Variable	No Gift			T-Shirt Gift			Bear Gift		
	CPDI	A	PU	CPDI	A	PU	CPDI	A	PU
EC		0.037 (small)			0.006* (no effect)			0.005* (no effect)	
A	0.012* (no effect)		0.821 (large)	0.024 (small)		0.848 (large)	0.005* (no effect)		1.119 (large)
PU	0.576 (large)			0.578 (large)			0.883 (large)		
A * EC	0.002* (no effect)			0.001* (no effect)			0.012* (no effect)		
PU * EC	0.000 (no effect)			0.002* (no effect)			0.040 (no effect)		

*Note that values less than 0.02 are interpreted as indicating no effect (Cohen 1988).

Table 3.6 reports the results of testing the path coefficients in Model 2 for each scenario sample. However, these should be read with the consideration that this model, specifically the conceptualization of altruism (A) as a composite second-order variable, may not be an optimal fit to the data. (Even if we are to heed Hair et al.'s (2017) warning that SRMR and its traditional threshold may not apply to PLS-SEM models well, the analysis of Model 3 in the next

68

subsection showed a relatively superior fit.) There was no support for the relationship between empathetic concern (EC) to altruism (A) as it was conceptualized as a second-order construct (see the next subsection on Model 3 for different results about the paths for the deconstructed dimensions of altruism). The positive path from altruism (A) to intentions (CPDI) only had support in the "t-shirt" gift sample. The paths from altruism (A) to perceived utility (PU) and from perceived utility (PU) to intentions (CPDI) were positive, relatively large, and significant for all three scenarios. The hypothesized moderating effects had no support, although there was a significant negative moderating effect of empathetic concern (EC) on the relationship between perceived utility (PU) and intentions (CPDI). The implications of these results, including a potential explanation for the latter finding, will be discussed further at the end of this chapter.

Table 3.6: Model 2 Structural Path Coefficients and Significance Testing

Path	Path Coefficient	t Value	p Value	Hypothesized Relationship
No Gift (n=273)				
EC → A	-0.001	1.243	0.214	*not applicable*
A → CPDI	0.104	1.695	0.090	*not applicable*
A → PU	0.671**	18.154	0.000	*not applicable*
PU → CPDI	0.642**	10.611	0.000	*not applicable*
A * EC → CPDI	-0.033	0.644	0.520	*not applicable*
PU * EC → CPDI	-0.002	0.029	0.977	*not applicable*
T-Shirt Gift (n=273)				
EC → A	0.001	0.919	0.358	+ (H3 not supported)
A → CPDI	0.148**	2.245	0.025	+ (H4 supported)
A → PU	0.677**	18.430	0.000	+ (H5 supported)
PU → CPDI	0.656**	10.714	0.000	+ (H7 supported)
A * EC → CPDI	-0.020	0.423	0.672	+ (H10 not supported)
PU * EC → CPDI	-0.034	0.624	0.533	+ (H13 not supported)
Bear Gift (n=259)				
EC → A	0.001	0.613	0.540	+ (H3 not supported)
A → CPDI	-0.066	1.068	0.286	+ (H4 not supported)
A → PU	0.727**	21.931	0.000	+ (H5 supported)
PU → CPDI	0.788**	14.302	0.000	+ (H7 supported)
A * EC → CPDI	0.073	1.369	0.171	+ (H10 not supported)
PU * EC → CPDI	-0.156**	2.473	0.013	+ (H13 not supported)

* significant at $p < 0.05$; ** significant at $p < 0.01$

Model 3: Values, Subjective Norms, and Perceived Utility Framework of Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions

Unlike Model 2, the SRMR values for the scenario samples (No Gift: 0.052, T-Shirt: 0.050, Bear: 0.056) evaluated to test Model 3 indicate a good fit of the model to the data using the traditional threshold of 0.08 for structural equation models (Hu and Bentler 1998). Collinearity issues in the structural model can be detected through the VIF values. The range of inner VIF values for each scenario sample were well below this threshold (No Gift: 1.210-3.637, T-Shirt: 1.270-3.911, Bear: 1.183-3.510), indicating that collinearity among the predictor variables is not an issue. The range of R^2 values for each scenario sample (No Gift: 0.454-0.647, T-Shirt: 0.465-0.660, Bear: 0.540-0.678) indicate generally moderate predictive power for the endogenous variables. Because of a wide range of f^2 values for each endogenous variable, the results of this calculation for each scenario, as well as the interpretation of the values (Cohen 1988), are reported in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7: Model 3 f^2 Effect Sizes

Variable	No Gift			T-Shirt Gift			Bear Gift		
	CPDI	HV	PU	CPDI	HV	PU	CPDI	HV	PU
EC		1.830 (large)			1.942 (large)			1.394 (large)	
HV	0.044 (small)		0.262 (medium)	0.076 (small)		0.219 (medium)	0.004* (no effect)		0.315 (large)
SO	0.015* (no effect)		0.004* (no effect)	0.010* (no effect)		0.039 (small)	0.005* (no effect)		0.061 (small)
SNII	0.011 (small)		0.133 (medium)	0.004 (small)		0.066 (small)	0.016 (small)		0.064 (small)
PU	0.634 (large)			0.615 (large)			0.821 (large)		
AHV * EC	0.003* (no effect)			0.003* (no effect)			0.007* (no effect)		
PU * EC	0.002* (no effect)			0.005* (no effect)			0.029 (small)		

*Note that values less than 0.02 are interpreted as indicating no effect (Cohen 1988).

Table 3.8 reports the results of testing the path coefficients in Model 3 for each scenario sample. In line with the findings of Batson and Shaw (1991) that empathetic concern is a determinant for altruistic motivations, there was a positive, relatively large, and significant path from empathetic concern (EC) to humanitarian values (HV) for all three scenarios. The hypothesized positive direct path from humanitarian values (HV) to intentions (CPDI) was only supported in the "no gift" and "t-shirt gift" scenarios, however. The mediated paths from humanitarian values (HV) to perceived utility (PU) and perceived utility (PU) to intentions (CPDI) were positive, relatively large, and significant for all three scenarios. The direct path from status orientation (SO) to intentions (CPDI) was not supported in any of the scenarios, but the mediated path from status orientation (SO) to perceived utility (PU) and perceived utility (PU) to intentions (CPDI) was supported in the "t-shirt gift" and "bear gift" scenarios. Similarly, while the direct path from normative influences (SNII) to intentions (CPDI) was supported in only the "t-shirt gift" scenario, the mediated path from normative influences (SNII) to perceived utility (PU) and perceived utility (PU) to intentions (CPDI) was supported in all three scenarios. There was no support for the moderated relationships. The implications of these results will be discussed further at the end of this chapter.

Table 3.8: Model 3 Structural Path Coefficients and Significance Testing

Path	Path Coefficient	t Value	p Value	Hypothesized Relationship
No Gift (n=273)				
EC → HV	0.804**	26.252	0.000	*not applicable*
HV → CPDI	0.242**	2.802	0.005	*not applicable*
SO → CPDI	0.107	1.827	0.068	*not applicable*
SNII → CPDI	-0.092	1.697	0.090	*not applicable*
HV → PU	0.416**	7.477	0.000	*not applicable*
SO → PU	0.069	0.908	0.364	*not applicable*
SNII → PU	0.369**	5.382	0.000	*not applicable*
PU → CPDI	0.658**	11.298	0.000	*not applicable*
HV * EC → CPDI	0.037	0.755	0.450	*not applicable*
PU * EC → CPDI	-0.033	0.532	0.595	*not applicable*
T-Shirt Gift (n=273)				
EC → HV	0.812**	34.852	0.000	+ (H3a supported)
HV → CPDI	0.324**	3.893	0.000	+ (H4a supported)
SO → CPDI	0.087	1.446	0.148	+ (H4b not supported)
SNII → CPDI	-0.052	1.160	0.246	+ (H4c not supported)
HV → PU	0.386**	7.326	0.000	+ (H5a supported)
SO → PU	0.210**	2.920	0.004	+ (H5b supported)
SNII → PU	0.254**	3.796	0.000	+ (H5c supported)
PU → CPDI	0.656**	10.908	0.000	+ (H7 supported)
HV * EC → CPDI	0.032	0.774	0.439	+ (H10a not supported)
PU * EC → CPDI	-0.046	0.916	0.359	+ (H13 not supported)
Bear Gift (n=259)				
EC → HV	0.763**	21.799	0.000	+ (H3a supported)
HV → CPDI	0.067	0.813	0.416	+ (H4a not supported)
SO → CPDI	0.066	1.136	0.256	+ (H4b not supported)
SNII → CPDI	-0.110*	2.078	0.038	+ (H4c not supported)
HV → PU	0.414**	8.218	0.000	+ (H5a supported)
SO → PU	0.255**	3.470	0.001	+ (H5b supported)
SNII → PU	0.252**	3.917	0.000	+ (H5c supported)
PU → CPDI	0.768**	13.480	0.000	+ (H7 supported)
HV * EC → CPDI	0.044	0.831	0.406	+ (H10a not supported)
PU * EC → CPDI	-0.118	1.870	0.062	+ (H13 not supported)

* significant at $p < 0.05$; ** significant at $p < 0.01$

Table 3.9 summarizes the statistical conclusions of all of the hypothesis testing conducted

across the models reported above.

Table 3.9: Summary of Hypothesis Testing Outcomes ("+" = supported)

Hypothesis	No Gift***	T-Shirt Gift	Bear Gift
H1: TC → DC *(Model 1)*	+	+	+
H2: DC → CPDI *(Model 1)*	+	+	+
H3: EC → A *(Model 2)*	-	-	-
H3a: EC → HV *(Model 3)*	+	+	+
H4: A → CPDI *(Model 2)*	-	+	-
H4a: HV → CPDI *(Model 3)*	+	+	-
H4b: SO → CPDI *(Model 3)*	-	-	-
H4c: SNII → CPDI *(Model 3)*	-	-	-
H5: A → PU *(Model 2)*	+	+	+
H5a: HV → PU *(Model 3)*	+	+	+
H5b: SO → PU *(Model 3)*	-	+	+
H5c: SNII → PU *(Model 3)*	+	+	+
H6: PU → DC	*untested**	*untested**	*untested**
H7: PU → CPDI *(Models 2, 3)*	+, +	+, +	+, +
H8: OP → TC	*untested**	*untested**	*untested**
H9: CCI → CPDI *(Model 1)*	-	+	-
H10: A * EC → CPDI *(Model 2)*	-	-	-
H10a: HV * EC → CPDI *(Model 3)*	-	-	-
H11: CCI * EC → CPDI *(Model 1)*	-	-	-
H12: DC * EC → CPDI *(Model 1)*	-	-	-
H13: PU * EC → CPDI *(Models 2, 3)*	-, -	-, -	-**, -

*Due to a critical lack of discriminant validity and fatally problematic cross-loading issues between the relevant predictor and dependent variables, this path could not be reliably tested.
**Significant negative moderation effect found.
***Since the current research did not develop hypotheses about charitable giving that did not involve consumption philanthropy (i.e., no gifts), a "+" in this column indicates only a significant result.

Discussion

The current research had an initial objective of testing a holistic path model of the determinants of consumption philanthropy donation intentions in a combined framework that exploited the prior research on commitment-trust theory, theory of reasoned action, and an altruism-empathy basis. Investigation of the measurement model of the aggregate model of previously conceptualized constructs showed that in their operationalized forms, consumers were not able to sufficiently delineate the underlying concepts between the indicators three key

variables in the holistic model. As a result, three smaller models were derived to test the paths in a parsimonious context of consumption philanthropy that investigated their theoretical frameworks individually.

Model 1 corroborated the suitability of investigating consumption philanthropy donation intentions in a commitment-trust framework. Specifically, trust in the charity has been found to be an antecedent of consumer commitment to it and that commitment drives donation intentions. Moreover, there did not seem to be any gift effect on this outcome. The trust-commitment-intentions relationship seems to hold whether it is in solely a donor context with no consumer products offered in return, as Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) proposed, or whether it is in a consumption philanthropy context.

An interesting finding in Model 1 was that while the relationship between customer charity identification (CCI) and donation intentions (CPDI) is small and insignificant in the "no gift" scenario, it is larger in both gift scenarios and significant in the "t-shirt gift" scenario (and close to significant in the "bear gift" scenario). This finding has two potential interpretations. The first is that a consumer's perception of her own personal identity with that of the charity, as it affects her intentions to donate to that charity, is significant only when there is potential for the private consumption of a product as a result of the donation. The CCI determinant implies that a consumer will be more likely to support a charity that aligns with priorities that formulate their own perceived identities. We can contemplate the current finding of the significant CCI-CPDI path in the context of a consumable good opportunity through the philosophical viewpoint of capitalist globalization (e.g., Sklair 2004), which espouses that marketplace has become a pivotal institution in the lives of individuals (Firat 1995; Slater and Tonkiss 2000), including re-identifying the human individual as consumer (Cohen 2006; Ewen 1988; Firat 1995). As a result

74

of this modern way of constructing meaning in human lives, material possessions have become endowed with the ability to contribute significantly to its owner's sense of identity and self-esteem (Belk 1988). In other words, consuming, to some extent, produces and reinforces identity in consumers. In the "no gift" scenario, there was no potential for private consumption of a market product. In the "t-shirt gift" scenario, there is the potential to produce and reinforce a consumer's identity of a supporter of children's pediatric cancer healthcare and research. Thus, with an individually consumable product under consideration in tandem with the decision to donate, a consumer may, conscientiously or not, process considerations of the extent to which the charity represented on the consumable product produces and reinforces her identity. When no gift is offered, there is no potential for contributing to her identity through consumption, and thus, customer-charity identity overlap may not be a relevant consideration in that context.

The second interpretation is a corollary of the first interpretation and is based on the observation that CCI was a significant determinant in only the "t-shirt gift" scenario and not in the "bear gift" scenario, indicating a possible gift effect in the consumption context. The t-shirt gift may be in a product category that contributes more significantly to producing and reinforcing consumers' identities through consumption (Belk 1988) than the product category of the plush bear. Although survey respondents were not asked about the features of the gift that were valuable to them personally, it seems reasonable to extrapolate that clothing products, such as t-shirt, would likely communicate a consumer's self-identity to others to a greater extent than a toy, such as a plush bear. Future research that explores the CCI construct in the context of consumption philanthropy donation gift types, including product categories that have varying degrees of importance to consumers' identity generation and reinforcement, would have obvious relevance to managerial practice.

Future research could investigate to what extent the framework in Model 1 can be leveraged to investigate co-branded consumption philanthropy gifts. Charities are increasingly offering branded items and opportunities for celebrity encounters as gifts for contributing to a philanthropic cause. For instance, National Center for Missing and Exploited Children offered Graff branded diamonds and Beats by Dre headphones for large donors and Gabrielle's Angel Foundation for Cancer Research offered an opportunity for lunch with Sony Entertainment CEO Michael Lynton (Holzman 2015). Prior research has not been able to determine the role of identity in a commitment-trust relationship where consumer product brands and non-profit organizations are partnered (Lichtenstein, Drumwright, and Braig 2004). In such a relationship, the corporate brand is using a CSR strategy in hopes of leveraging positive consumer identification from the charity to its profitable brand. The charity, alternatively, hopes to leverage consumption preferences for the branded gift that is offered in order to raise money for its cause. Future research should determine where the trust, commitment, and consumer identification originate in a consumer's decision making process in such a relationship.

Model 2 and Model 3 investigated the altruistic and perceived utility components of determining consumption philanthropy donation intentions. Altruism is a notion that has complex and sometimes conflicting conceptualizations in its multi-disciplinary literature. As an overarching concept, altruistic motivations seem to be reflected in both seemingly selfless "empathetic" and self-interested "egoistic" motivations. The construction of an overarching notion of altruism would, thus, be in consideration of the context to which it is being applied. In the context of charitable donations and consumption philanthropy, there was theoretical support in the prior philosophical and quantitative research that altruism would be reflected in a consumer's humanitarian values (HV), status orientation (SO), and her susceptibility to

normative interpersonal influence (SNII). However, the model incorporating these three constructs as dimensions of an overarching construct of altruism (Model 2) was shown to be inferior to a model that considered them as individual constructs that exacted influence on consumption philanthropy donation intentions and its specific determinants in a discrete framework (Model 3). Thus, while there were some significant relationships between the composite construction of altruism and other determinants in Model 2, there seems to be more external validity in interpreting the deconstructed elements of HV, SO, and SNII as they relate to a model of consumption philanthropy donation intentions.

Nevertheless, one interesting finding in Model 2 was a significant, non-trivial, and negative moderation effect of empathetic concern (EC) on the relationship between perceived utility (PU) and donation intentions (CPDI) in the "bear gift" scenario. This moderating effect was hypothesized to be positive due to the content reflected by perceived utility concerning helping behavior, such as utility derived from the potential benefit of the charity to the donor's family or other close relation. The practical interpretation of this effect is that empathetic concern adversely affects the strength of the positive relationship between PU and CPDI. That is, while the level of perceived utility benefits positively affects intentions to donate, this effect is lessened when empathetic concern is factored into the decision. Given the conceptual justification for the original hypothesis, this is a counter-intuitive result. However, this result may have an explanation in prior neuroscientific research that has shown that it may be physiologically impossible for consumers to activate the part of their brains responsible for processing empathetic altruism when also faced with an opportunity for self-interested consumption. A series of neuroimaging studies (Brafman and Brafman 2008) found that altruistic-type feelings will drive seemingly selfless behavior until financial rewards are

introduced for such behavior, at which time consumers will shift their neurological decision-making activity to the part of the brain that processes financial rationality and pleasure (see also Heyman and Ariely 2009). In other words, consumers are capable of seemingly selfless altruistic behaviors until consumable products become part of the consideration of whether or not to engage in such behaviors, at which point the value of the reward to the consumer becomes the predominant deciding factor towards completing the behavior. So, if the reward is not considered sufficiently valuable, as may be the case of a plush bear for many adult consumers, the reward may not be able to motivate the consumer toward a behavior that would otherwise be driven solely by empathic concern. There are many other cases in the prior academic research showing that offering external rewards for behavior that could otherwise be intrinsically motivated has a negative effect on that behavior (Deci, Koestner, and Ryan 1999).

Model 3 represents a respecification of Model 2 with the individual components of altruism assessed independently rather than contributing dimensions of a higher order construct. HV, SO, and SNII were assessed for their direct and independent impacts on the overall model. Factor loadings, a traditional absolute measure, and hypothesis testing seem to support that Model 3 is a better representation of the data in all three scenarios. While the path from empathetic concern (EC) to altruism in Model 2 was not supported, the path from EC to HV in Model 3 was supported for all three scenarios, lending support to Batson and Shaw's (1991) conceptualizations that empathetic concern as an attitude drives altruistic motivations. In general, the direct paths from either HV, SO, and SNII individually to CPDI were weaker and less likely to be significant than the mediated paths where these variables are routed through PU. Considering the neuroimaging studies in Brafman and Brafman (2008), this makes sense. Since the part of the brain that is active when an experimental subject is in an altruistic mindset (the

posterior superior temporal sulcus) is not physiologically capable of being active when the part of the brain responsible for focus on financial gain or self-interested pleasure (the *nucleus accumbens*) is active, with the latter seemingly taking over in the presence of a potential reward or financial gains or losses at stake, it can be reasoned that personal utility considerations would determine or enhance strongly the relationship between consumer motivations and consumer intentions in a consumption philanthropy context. PU involves the consideration of rational, self-interested contributors to making the decision to donate or not donate, and so it may account for decision making processes in the *nucleus accumbens*. Since this mediated path was strong and significant in the "no gift" scenario, as well as the scenarios where gifts were offered, it could be the case that any sort of consideration for financial gain or spending, regardless of whether a consumable product is received, could silence the *posterior superior temporal sulcus* and activate the *nucleus accumbens*.

This latter finding, in particular, suggests an area for future research that could involve an experimental manipulation involving the sort of charitable act that is being asked of the consumer. The consumption philanthropy context in the current research asks for a financial sacrifice either in exchange for a gift or not. An interesting future experiment could be to manipulate the contexts to compare scenarios where a monetary donation is solicited to one where another sacrifice is solicited, such as the consumer's time or the consumer's activism on social media. This could be done in both "gift" and "no gift" contexts in order to gain insights as to the effects of the presence of financial considerations and consumer products, individually and in tandem, on altruistic determinants as well as other decision making factors. Moreover, these opportunities for future research could be studied using traditional marketing research methods and instruments collectively with the emerging neuroscientific methodologies and instruments

being applied to marketing phenomena (see next chapter) in order to improve predictions of consumer behavior and identify the underlying mechanisms of consumer behavior (Plassmann et al. 2015).

Another interesting finding from the hypothesis tests of Model 3 is that the path from status orientation (SO) to PU was significant and relatively larger in the "t-shirt gift" and "bear gift" samples than in the "no gift" samples. Those consumers with SO motivations are more likely to make choices that achieve a desired social status (which is a conceptualized element of egoistic altruism). Considering this finding in the context of the existing research showing that helping behavior is increased in the presence of witnesses (e.g., Ariely, Bracha, and Meier 2009; Sierksma, Thijs, and Verkuyten 2014) and that consumers may desire to be conspicuous about their seemingly altruistic behaviors (e.g., Griskevicius, Tybur, and Van den Bergh 2010), it would make sense that consumers with a status orientation would have a significant response to a consumption philanthropy context and no relationship, in isolation, to a purely philanthropic context where there was no potential for witnessing of their giving behavior. The self-interested utility represented by PU likely has a strong component that is driven by status enhancing motivations that would not show up in a context where helping behavior could not easily contribute to enhancing status to others. In other words, it is easier to enhance one's status as a philanthropic person when there are branded gifts that one can wear or display, and if that is an objective of a donor consumer, the self-interested utility from doing so would be present in a consumption philanthropy scenario and absent from a purely philanthropic scenario. This may help to explain why, when Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) did not find a significant path for demonstrable utility, the current study that incorporates direct self-interested benefits to the

80

consumer in exchange for charity in the form of "thank you" gifts, did find this relationship for SO and PU.

Another notable implication comes from the result that humanitarian values (HV) had a significant and relatively large direct path to donation intentions (CPDI) only in the "no gift" and "t-shirt gift" scenarios. The path from HV to CPDI in the "bear gift" scenario had a relatively small coefficient which was insignificant. While it was not an objective of the current research to explain any effect between the gift selections, there seems to be some logical justification as to why this occurred. The "no gift" scenario does not offer any sort of conspicuous reward for the consumer's helping intentions. The "t-shirt gift" and "bear gift" solicitations do offer rewards in the form of the benefits a consumer derives from consuming the t-shirt product or plush bear product, but as described earlier in this chapter, the value of the product features of these gifts to the individual consumer would determine the level and nature of those benefits. As discussed, one product feature and possible benefit of the t-shirt gift is that it provides the consumer with the opportunity to be conspicuous about her philanthropic status or identity perception. However, the t-shirt also has the potential function of spreading the message about the philanthropic cause to others. The act of wearing the t-shirt in front of other individuals brings awareness of the existence of the philanthropic cause as well as introduces to others that there is a market outlet for contributing to it. The plush bear does not provide this opportunity to communicate advocacy for a philanthropic cause to the degree that an item of clothing does. It is unlikely that many consumers of the plush bear would expose it to as many individuals as wearers of a t-shirt would. Thus, it could be that there is a significant proportion of consumers that would engage in the "t-shirt gift" consumption philanthropy scenario that would view the t-shirt product not as a self-interested product to enhance conspicuousness or as an object from which to derive material

utility, but rather, as a medium of communication for the importance of the cause. This is, to a large degree, an empathetic altruistic motivation that would drive giving behavior in the absence of any conspicuous consumption potential like in the "no gift" scenario. It may be, thus, that certain products have the potential to maintain philanthropic decision making processes within the *posterior superior temporal sulcus*, the altruistic part of the brain.

It would be interesting for future research to investigate the explanation that the t-shirt gift may have tapped into consumers' desire to advocate for the philanthropic cause by using the message on the t-shirt as a medium to communicate it. Certainly, neuroimaging studies have a great deal of potential on this sort of topic since they are able to localize specific brain activity as a response to stimuli. Moreover, neuroimaging studies would have the advantage of potentially being able to delineate consumers that view the t-shirt as a material possession for self-interested consumption from those that view it as an instrument to altruistically advocate for a philanthropic cause. Future research of this type would have managerial relevance for charitable organizations making product design decisions about the gifts they offer. For marketing research, it would further researchers' understandings of individual differences in subconscious decision making as well as measuring the implicit processes of such decision making (Plassmann et al. 2015) as they relate to motivations to consume in the philanthropic context.

Finally, the finding that donor commitment (DC), organizational perceptions (OP), and perceived utility (PU) were incompatible as independent variables within the same model due to a lack of discriminant validity merits future research. This result is only somewhat in conflict with Sargeant, Ford, and West (2006) who developed the latter two and used all three variables in their commitment-trust model of donor giving behavior on a sample of 500 individuals. The authors note about these variables that "the inter-item correlations are high" (p. 160), although

82

the specific inter-item correlation values are not reported in their publication. They do report acceptable absolute and incremental fit and indices for their structural models that include these variables, as well as a general statement of good reliability being achieved in the measurement models, although precise reliability values are also not reported. There are new constructs being added to marketing research regularly, many of which are operationalized as latent variables. Conceptualization of constructs necessarily precedes the operationalization of their variables (Jacoby and Kyner 1973). The conceptual rationale for the existence of DC, OP, and PU as independent and contributing constructs to a model of consumption philanthropy donation intentions seems valid, as justified by the prior research assessed in Chapter II. However, future research should continue to develop the delineation of their operationalized variables, including testing these delineations empirically. If the current research as well as related research employing these constructs are to contribute to the ultimate goal of creating general theories to explain consumer behavior, it is continued empirical testing that will justify the external validity of these theories (Hunt 2010).

CHAPTER IV

STUDY 2: USING EEG TO MEASURE AND INVESTIGATE CONSUMPTION
PHILANTHROPY DONATION INTENTIONS

"I not only use all the brains that I have, but all that I can borrow."
- Woodrow Wilson

This chapter describes the second methodology of using electroencephalography (EEG)

measurement on one variable (consumption philanthropy donation intention) in order to both (1)

use a mixed methods approach (e.g., Johnson, Onwuebuzie, and Turner 2007) to add validity to

the conceptual model, as well as (2) contribute innovation to a particular research methodology

that is still in its pioneering stages of application to scholarly marketing research.

Consumer Neuroscience

"Consumer neuroscience," also sometimes referred to as "neuromarketing," is the term

being increasingly adopted to describe the application of neuroscientific theories and instruments

to marketing research. Ariely and Berns (2010) suggest that neuroimaging methodology is

gaining popularity in market-based and academic research, because it can provide "hidden"

information about consumer experiences that is not reliably measured from self-reported or

observational techniques and, as neuroimaging technology becomes increasingly adopted, it

should become a less expensive and faster form of data generation. As of 2013, there were about

thirty business schools with faculty conducting research in consumer neuroscience, as well as

increasing numbers of published papers and special journal issues focusing on this topic (Smidts et al. 2014; Wu 2015).

Using neuroscientific data collection methods and analysis in tandem with self-reported data has several advantages (e.g., Ariely and Berns 2010; Boksem and Smidts 2015; Venkatraman et al. 2015). One advantage of neuroscientific research to investigate marketing issues is that, as such methods continue to evolve in instrumentation and methodology, they are becoming cheaper and faster than the traditional methods of, for example, consumer surveys, focus groups, and consumer observations. Neuroscientific experiments can also produce data that contain less experimental noise than conventional methods. Indeed, since neurological data is gathered from consumers' subconscious reactions to stimuli, there is less chance of intentional or accidental error on the part of the consumer. As a result, consumer neuroscience studies require significantly smaller sample sizes, the number of experimental subjects or observations in a study, in order to achieve experimental accuracy. Finally, consumers are often unable or unwilling to accurately report their preferences when asked directly. Moreover, prior research has indicated that the process of overtly asking consumers to report preferences may even bias the outcome of the study in unintended ways. Consumers are not always consciously aware of why they choose certain things over others, and brain data has the potential to gather this data without the need to compel conscious recollection and explicit statements from consumers.

Plassmann, Venkatraman, Huettel, and Yoon (2015) suggest five ways that consumer neuroscience may be "fruitfully applied to marketing" (p. 427): identifying underlying mechanisms, measuring implicit processes, dissociating between psychological processes, understanding individual differences, and improving predictions of behavior. The authors' final suggestion, improving predictions of behavior, is the objective of the application of EEG to the

current research. Specifically, this study applies hemispheric lateralization as an alternative measure of consumption philanthropy donation intentions.

Electroencephalography (EEG) and Hemispheric Asymmetry Methodology

Electroencephalography (EEG) measurement is a technique that records frequency levels of electrical activity in the brain. Traditional EEG measures several categories of brainwaves: alpha, beta, gamma, delta, theta, and mu. The proposed methodology of hemispheric asymmetry over the frontal cortex, which will be described presently, utilizes alpha waves. Alpha wave emissions peak in a state of wakeful relaxation, meaning that the subject being measured is in a relaxed, although conscious, physical and mental state. The alpha rhythmic frequency occurs at 8 to 12 hertz (Hz) and is generally symmetric across the brain's right and left hemispheres (Rowan and Tolunsky 2005; von Stein and Sarnthein 2000).

Hemispheric asymmetry is the measurement of differences, or asymmetries, in alpha wave frequency bands across the left and right frontal regions of the brain. Prior research has found that such asymmetries are associated with a subject's approach or avoidance response to external stimuli. Specifically, significantly higher alpha band power in the left hemisphere, relative to the right hemisphere, is indicative of an approach response. Conversely, significantly higher alpha band power in the right hemisphere, relative to the left hemisphere, is indicative of an avoidance or withdrawal response (e.g., Davidson 1995, Harmon-Jones and Gable 2009, Ravaja, Somervuori, and Salminen 2013). The hemispheric asymmetry methodology is still in the pioneering stages in its application to academic marketing related research, although it has been successfully used to predict purchase intentions (Ravaja, Somervuori, and Salminen 2013)

86

and risk preferences in consumers (Gianotti et al. 2009). However, there is increasing research using various EEG methodologies in general in the marketing discipline (e.g., Boksem and Smidts 2015; Telpaz, Webb, and Levy 2015; Venkatraman et al. 2015; Wu 2015).

The present experiment presented experimental subjects with the same hypothetical CCA Children's Research Hospital scenario for a philanthropic donation that offers a consumer item in return that was used for the generation of the survey data. Using hemispheric asymmetry interpretation, subjects should emit alpha wave frequency differentials that are associated with the approach response when they are strongly interested in donating to the charity. Conversely, subjects should emit alpha wave frequency differentials that are associated with the avoidance response when they do not have a positive consumption philanthropy donation intention. These results will be compared to the survey measurement results from the same subjects in order to: (1) corroborate that subjects reporting a positive donation intention on the self-reported survey are also displaying an approach response with the EEG instrumentation, (2) corroborate that subjects reporting no donation intention on the self-reported survey are also displaying either an avoidance response or a response not associated with either approach or avoidance with the EEG instrumentation, and (3) that the EEG data leads to reliably and validly comparable conclusions for a parsimonious version of the commitment-trust relationship in the hypothesized conceptual model of consumption philanthropy donation intentions.

Instrumentation

In the present study, EEG data was collected using the Insight headset and its accompanying proprietary software by EMOTIV. It is a high-resolution headset that acquires and

processes EEG signals from five channels. The five channels, with regards to the International

10-20 system, are at AF3, AF4, T7, T8, and Pz. The International 10-20 system is an

internationally recognized method to describe the application of EEG electrodes on the scalp,

shown in Figure 4.1. Each locational description uses a letter and number to identify the lobe and

hemisphere location, respectively. The lobes are frontal (F), temporal (T), parietal (P), and

occipital (O). There is no central (C) lobe, so this letter is used only to describe location. The

right hemisphere is indicated by even numbers and the left hemisphere is indicated by odd

numbers. For instance, for the Insight headset, AF3 and AF4 indicate right hemispheric and left

hemispheric locations, respectively, between the frontal lobe and earlobes. Similarly, T7 and T8

indicate right hemispheric and left hemispheric locations, respectively, in the central regions.

Figure 4.1: International 10-20 System Locations
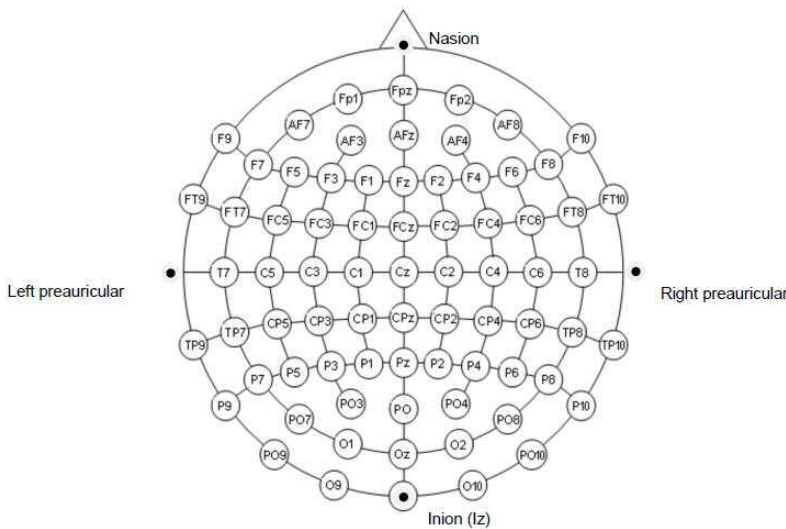
The software accompanying the Insight headset records 128 samples per second per

channel, meaning that for each second of recorded observation there was 256 data points for each

hemisphere of the brain for each experimental subject. The headset reads EEG data within a 1-43

Hz range, which is sufficient to capture the 8-12 Hz range of the alpha rhythmic frequency which is the interest of this study. The EMOTIV EEG technology has been successfully used in a number of journal publications,[2] although only one in a marketing research context (Khushaba et al. 2013).

Additionally, a desktop computer and laptop were used in the experiment. The desktop computer was used to show experimental subjects the powerpoint slideshow containing the experimental stimuli and a separate laptop was used to record the data via wireless USB receiver that processed remote signals from the Insight headset.

Experimental Procedure

The experimental procedure and sampling in the current research received approval from the Institutional Review Board at University of Texas – Rio Grande Valley (UTRGV). The approval letter is contained in Appendix F. Two researchers ("experimenters") were involved in conducting the experimental sessions. The author of this dissertation recruited and scheduled voluntary experimental subjects, managed communication with subjects during the experiment (including the initial briefing and final debriefing), and helped to put on and calibrate the EEG headset on participants. The second experimenter, a PhD student at UTRGV, helped to put on and calibrate the EEG headset on participants and monitored the remote data collection on the laptop computer. The sequence and content of the procedures that were applied to each experimental session were planned in advance and rehearsed by experimenters on volunteers (from whom no data was retained) in order to refine the experiment and promote procedural

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[2] Emotiv EPOC maintains a list of published research on its website. As of November 17, 2015, this list included 36 papers. <https://emotiv.com/paper/?SHOWALL_1=1>

consistency for the actual experiments. The experimental procedure followed will be described presently.

Experimental subjects were scheduled for thirty-minute appointment slots, although few appointments took the full thirty minutes to conduct. Experimentation was conducted on the UTRGV campus in a room that was blocked from outside view and major auditory distractions. After being greeted and signing the IRB-approved informed consent form, permission was obtained from the experimental subject to fit her or him with the Insight headset. The headset channels were manually adjusted while on the subject's head until they registered a "high quality" (e.g., green) signal on the calibration screen of the EMOTIV processing software. Experimental subjects who had longer or thicker hair took more time, in general, to achieve good signals than subjects who had short or thin hair. The calibration of signal quality took anywhere from approximately a minute to up to twenty minutes across experimental subjects. Some subjects were asked to close their eyes for a short interval, since this can facilitate signal quality. Figure 4.2 illustrates the headset placement, and Figure 4.3 shows the graphic portion of the initial software setup screen indicating hypothetical signal quality output where only four of the five channels have registered a sufficient signal.

Figure 4.2: Optimal Headset Placement for an EMOTIV Insight Headset
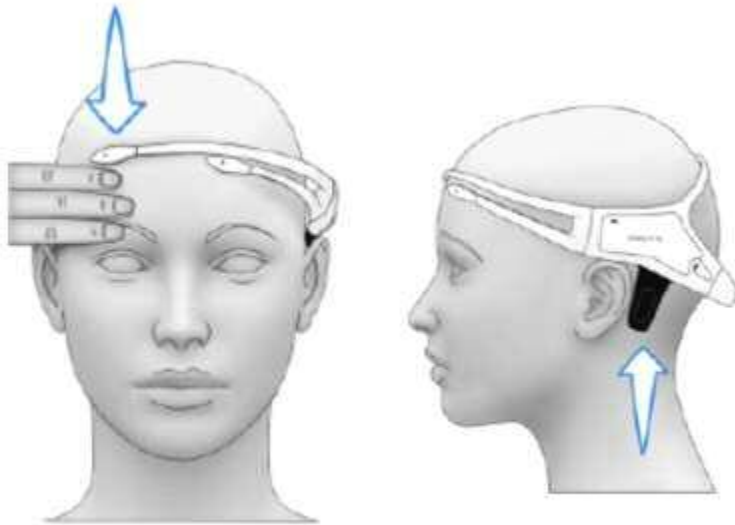
Image Source: Inside My Brain (2016)

Figure 4.3: Signal Quality Example for an EMOTIV Insight Headset
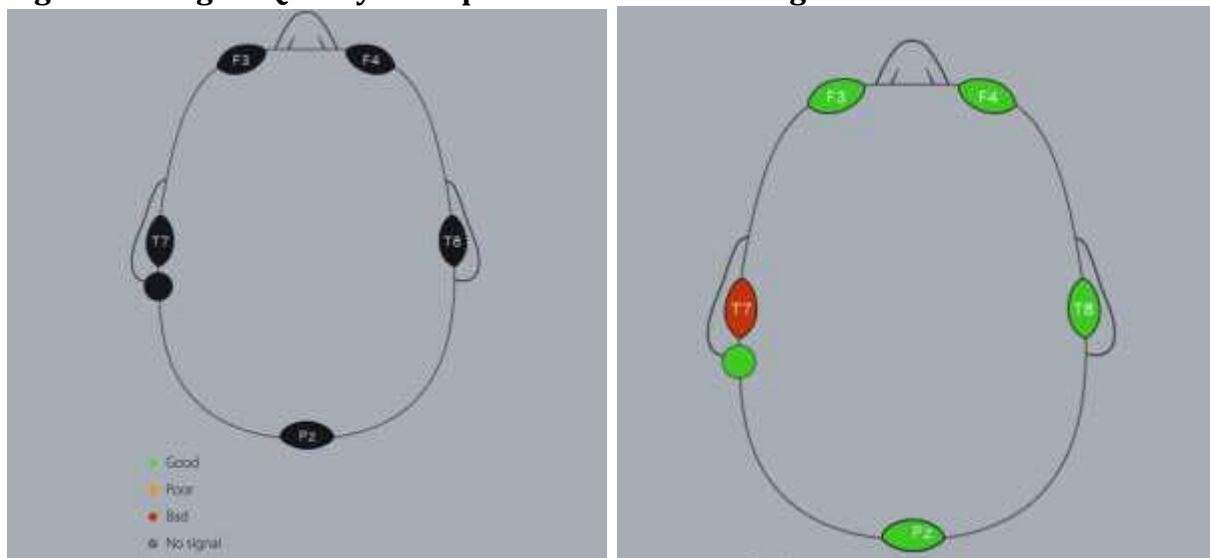
Image Source: Inside My Brain (2016)

Once good signal quality was achieved, the experimental subject was informed that she would be viewing an approximately five-minute powerpoint slideshow where the slides would advance automatically. The subject was asked to not touch the mouse or keyboard while reading

and viewing the text and images in the slideshow. The slideshow contained five slides. The first slide was blank (0:05 minutes), the second slide primed the experimental subject in order to minimize income constraint considerations (1:00 minute), the third slide contained the hypothetical CCA Children's Research Hospital charity description (1:30 minutes), the fourth slide was blank (0:30 minutes), and the fifth slide contained the consumption philanthropy donation solicitation (1:00 minute). The data analyzed in the current research was isolated to solely the last slide. Figure 4.4 shows the second, third, and fifth slide images (larger text from these images are in Appendix C).

Figure 4.4: Experimental Stimuli

Slide 2 (1:00 minute)

Slide 3 (1:30 minutes)

Slide 5 (1:00 minute)

After the slide show concluded, the headset was removed from the experimental subject and she was asked to take a brief survey on the desktop computer. This survey was a shortened version of the survey in the main study that focused mainly on the commitment-trust variables and consumption philanthropy donation intention (CPDI), which included the question: "How

much money would you donate to this charity?" This scale contained the seven options of "$0,"
"$10," "$25," "$50," "100," "$250," and "Other (fill in amount)." The subject was told that the
experimenters would sit at the other desk in the room with their backs turned so as not to view
the subject's screen while she completed the survey. After the survey was submitted, the final
step was that the subject was given a debriefing form (contained in Appendix F) of which the
contents were verbally summarized to her by the experimenters.

Data

Voluntary experimental subjects were recruited from a convenience sample of two
undergraduate elective classes at UTRGV containing mainly business majors in their junior or
senior years. Extra credit not exceeding 1 percent of students' grades in each class (in order to
minimize involuntary coercion) was offered in exchange for participation. Forty-five students
emailed their interest to participate in the experiments.

Before being accepted into the study, candidates were screened to ensure that each was
more than 18 years of age and also asked whether they consider themselves consistently right-
handed, inconsistently right-handed, inconsistently left-handed, or consistently left-handed
individuals. Prior research has shown that non-right-handed individuals have demonstrated
increased right hemispheric alpha wave power relative to consistently-right-handed individuals,
and furthermore, the degree of handedness (consistent versus inconsistent) also has a significant
association with hemispheric asymmetry in resting alpha wave frequencies (Propper et al. 2012).
Since only up to three percent of the population is consistently left-handed, (Lansky, Feinstein,
and Peterson 1988), it was expected that the sample of interested candidates would consist of a

very low number of such individuals. Thus, the decision was made *a priori* to only include those interested volunteers who self-reported being consistently right-handed. Of the 45 interested students, this disqualified 3 interested volunteers. Out of the 42 students who passed the age and handedness eligibility criteria, 34 were scheduled for thirty-minute appointment slots across three separate days within a two week period. Usable EEG data were collected for 30 of these experimental subjects (good signal quality could not be achieved for 4 experimental subjects). There was an equal number of females (15) and males (15) in the usable sample pool. The ages of the experimental subjects ranged from 20 to 41, with a mean age of 24 and median age of 22. Only 11 of the 30 subjects provided information on annual income, which had mean and median values of approximately $33,000 and $18,000, respectively.

Based on an analysis by Wu (2015), the average sample size for 47 EEG studies in marketing since 2000 is 24 subjects. Prior to that, there were fewer studies with an even lower mean sample size. The author also notes that unlike survey-based research, the sample size of an EEG study does not necessarily require as large of a sample size to have sufficient power. Subsequent published scholarship has also addressed the perceived lack of reliability in consumer neuroscientific studies as a result of smaller sample sizes by noting that, for example, "because brain data are considered less noisy than data obtained through conventional marketing methods, data from smaller samples are believed to generate more accurate predictions" (Boksem and Smidts 2015). A recent special issue of *Journal of Marketing Research*[3] published nine articles utilizing consumer neuroscience methodologies and instrumentation. Of these, three utilized EEG with sample sizes in these studies of 15 (Telpaz, Web, and Levy 2015), 29 (Boksem and Smidts 2015), and 40 (Pozharliev et al. 2015). One additional methodological

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[3] Volume 52, Issue 4, August 2015

study utilized several different neuroscientific techniques in a combined analysis that included EEG data from a sample of 29 participants (Venkatraman et al. 2015). Outside of marketing, cognitive neuroscience researchers have recommended samples sizes between 10 and 30 for EEG studies, with many justifying this range with the observed uniformity of brainwaves to stimuli (see Wu 2015 for a comprehensive summary).

Results: Data Reduction

The instrument collected data across both the right and left hemispheres of the brain. However, it was not possible to directly and simultaneously isolate alpha wave frequency differentials across the left and right frontal regions of the brain during data collection through the EMOTIV software. In order to accomplish this, a data reduction procedure was followed for each observation. After the recordings, the EEG data were filtered with 2 Hz high-pass and 64 Hz low-pass filters. After eliminating the data from the first and last second of the recording, the power spectra were derived by the fast Fourier transform (FFT) method which extracted power values (in µV2) within the 8-12 Hz alpha frequency range.

Differentials across the left and right hemispheres for significant differences were calculated on IBM SPSS 20 using independent samples *t* test to determine whether significant differences exist between the left and right hemispheres of the brain for each observation. Half of the observations in the sample exhibited alpha band frequency power values that could be interpreted using the approach/avoidance interpretation in the hemispheric asymmetry methodology. Those observations that demonstrated significantly higher means in left-hemispheric alpha band output were classified as "approach" and those that demonstrated

significantly higher means in left-hemispheric alpha band output were classified as "avoid." Observations that exhibited an insignificant value for Levene's test statistic were interpreted as displaying no significant asymmetries in alpha wave frequency bands across the left and right frontal regions of the brain and classified as "neutral."

Results: Assessment as a Measure for CPDI

The current study proposed that the neurological approach and avoidance responses of consumers could be used as a proxy for intentions. As an initial test for correlation, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated using SPSS 20. The Pearson value can range from -1 to +1 where significant negative values indicate a negative correlation, significant positive values indicate a positive correlation, and a significant value of zero indicates no correlation. The Pearson correlation between the observations' approach/avoid/neutral data (CPDI-EEG) and reported consumption philanthropy donation intention levels (CPDI-survey) was positive and significant at a value of 0.876 ($p<0.001$).

Another proxy that the two variables are measuring the same phenomenon would be to examine their discriminant validity in a larger model. Drawing on the first study examining the determinants of CPDI using survey data only, a parsimonious trust-commitment model was examined using PLS-SEM in SmartPLS. In Figure 4.5, H1 and H2 represent the hypotheses developed for the first study, with H2a mirroring the same conceptual hypothesis of H2. In other words, the right half of the model in Figure 4.5 is not intended to be analyzed as a confirmatory path model as it is specified. Rather, it is specified to test that the measurement model that includes path H2 and path H2a are sufficiently interchangeable. The heterotrait-monotrait ratio

(HTMT) matrix value between CPDI-EEG and CPDI-Survey was 0.876, showing a lack of discriminant validity between these two variables in this model.

Figure 4.5: Comparing CPDI-EEG and CPDI-Survey in a Commitment-Trust Framework
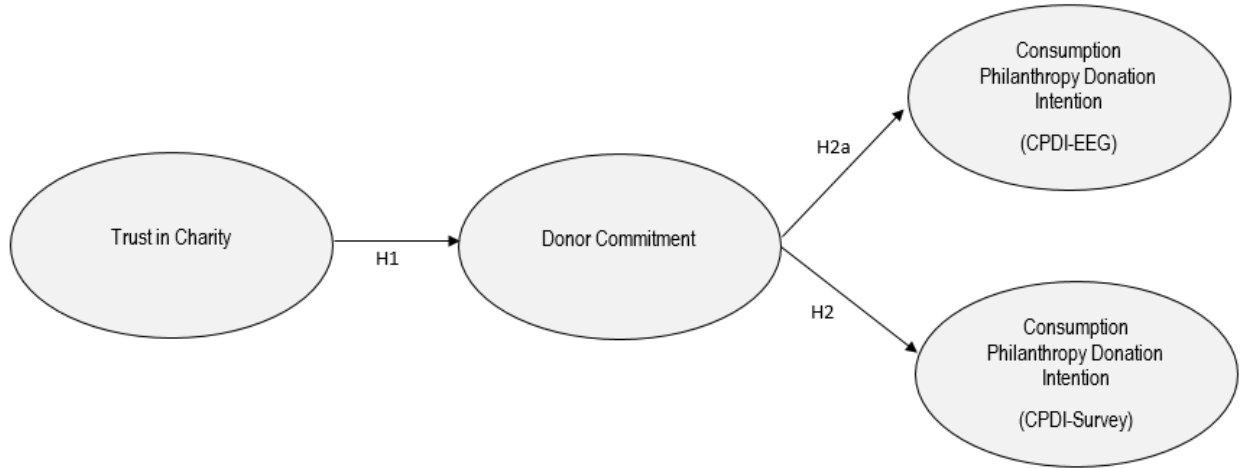
Since the redundancy between CPDI-EEG and CPDI-Survey in Figure 4.5 does not represent a valid structural model, the path coefficients were tested by examining each variable separately in the parsimonious commitment-trust framework (Figure 4.6 and Figure 4.7)

Figure 4.6: CPDI-Survey in a Commitment-Trust Framework

Figure 4.7: CPDI-EEG in a Commitment-Trust Framework

The measurement and structural models with the CPDI-Survey variable were already corroborated in the prior study. The measurement model including just these variables predictably showed similar values for indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. The path coefficients for H1 and H2 were also corroborated again with this smaller dataset, as shown in Table 4.1. Examination of the measurement model for the commitment-trust framework containing CPDI-EEG was necessarily equivalent to the values obtained in the CPDI-Survey model, since the TC and DC data remain unchanged (the only exception is that reliability for CPDI-EEG is not assessed since it is not a latent construct). The path coefficients for H1 and H2a in the CPDI-EEG model were also seemingly exchangeable with those in the CPDI-Survey as demonstrated in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Structural Path Coefficients and Significance Testing of CPDI-Survey and CPDI-EEG

Path	Path Coefficient	t Value	p Value	Hypothesized Relationship
CPDI-Survey				
TC → DC	0.632**	4.520	0.000	+ (H1 supported)
DC → CPDI-Survey	0.773**	9.906	0.000	+ (H2 supported)
CPDI-Survey				
TC → DC	0.636**	5.468	0.000	+ (H1 supported)
DC → CPDI-EEG	0.727**	5.390	0.000	same as H2 (H2a supported)

** significant at $p < 0.01$

Discussion

This study represents an exploratory investigation into whether a particular self-reported measure for consumer intentions could be measured using a technique in consumer neuroscience, namely with EEG instrumentation and its associated hemispheric asymmetry analytical method for data processing. The experimental scenario used successfully in the prior survey-based study was adapted to stimulate a subconscious neurological response in experimental subjects that was

then measured with an EEG headset. The hemispheric asymmetry method was chosen as the analytical methodology due to its prior successful application in producing interpretations of "approach" and "avoidance" responses in consumers. Thus, a major potential contribution of this study is corroboration of this methodology as a use for measuring intentions in consumers. The closest (and only) prior conceptual application to this study is Ravaja, Somervuori, and Salminen (2013) who successfully used hemispheric asymmetry to study purchase intentions. The current study extends the context of its use in consumer behavior research to propose and empirically corroborate that hemispheric asymmetry can successfully be applied to donation intentions in a consumption philanthropy context, producing results that are statistically comparable to the self-reported survey data.

This finding has a great deal of potential to expand consumer neuroscience research in marketing, namely for experimental contexts where consumers are either unable or unwilling to accurately report their consumption intentions when asked directly (e.g., Haire 1950; Mick 1996; Penenberg 2011). When consumers are mostly unaware of or unwilling to report true feelings, we would expect to find a weaker correlation between survey-based data and neuroscientific data in which case neuroscientific output could provide more accurate reflections of consumer responses (Plassmann et al. 2015). Furthermore, the use of EEG, specifically, to obtain this sort of information may be preferred over neuroimaging technology in that EEG can detect reactions to stimuli with a shorter time lag and in a less restrictive and more comfortable environment (Donavan, Minor, and Mowen 2016).

The contribution of the implication of the finding that consumer intentions can be at least as accurately studied using hemispheric asymmetry as self-reported data likely has a significant application to managerial practice, as well. It has been shown that consumer reports of intentions

in surveys can be a poor indicator of actual behavior (e.g., Chandon Morwitz, and Reinartz 2005). However, EEG has been used recently to show that neurological measurement of feelings towards a product can predict market success of that product (Boksem and Smidts 2015). For marketing managers trying to stimulate donations using consumption philanthropy strategies, the implications are that surveying consumers about preferences for consumption philanthropy solicitations or gift products may be inferior to neurologically measuring reactions. The results in this study, that intentions to donate can be measured using EEG at least as accurately as self-reported survey data, combined with the results of other research showing that EEG can more accurately predict commercial success, signals the potential for EEG measurement to narrow the intentions-behavior research gap for academicians. It also provides a potentially more effective use of managerial resources in maximizing the commercial success of products and solicitations based on consumer intentions research, especially when considering that most donations to philanthropic causes come from individuals (Giving USA 2014).

The results of this study imply some areas for future research. In the realm of methodological research, there needs to be continued research corroborating that the approach and avoidance responses interpreted from hemispheric asymmetry analysis accurately represent intentions in several other research contexts and samples. A caveat of the current study is that this conclusion was drawn based on statistical results from a single convenience sample. Of course, the experimental scenario and analytical methodologies were derived conceptually prior to any quantitative processes. However, one study showing correlation and equivalent path relationships between intentions self-reporting and approach-avoidance interpretations is a small step in theory building (Hunt 2010). Efforts should be made to replicate and generalize EEG data

collection and the hemispheric asymmetry analysis to other marketing contexts studying consumer intentions.

A corollary to this point is that there also needs to be more conceptual and empirical research that this study as well as future studies are even valid in interpreting approach and avoidance responses as intentions. Just as researchers have found a gap between intentions and behavior in consumers, there could also be a gap between approach responses and positive intentions. In other words, is a consumer approach response synonymous with consumer intentions – or is it simply a determinant of intentions with a potentially correlated path to intentions?

Another key area of research seems to be the contribution of EEG instrumentation and its related analysis to narrowing the observed gap between consumer intentions and consumer behaviors, as mentioned above. Any model measuring intentions instead of actual observed behavior should be (justifiably) be treated with skepticism by marketing managers. The general validity of intentions-based models for any use outside of academia is compromised if those constructs representing intentions cannot be translated to actual consumer behavior. For research seeking to inform philanthropic causes, where organizational resources that can be dedicated to marketing management are likely considerably more scarce than those of for-profit businesses (e.g., List 2011), relating the link between donation intentions and donation behavior is particularly imperative. This future research recommendation becomes that much more significant when considering that EEG can be cheaper and quicker to obtain than consumer surveys (Boksem and Smidts 2015).

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

"Research is to see what everybody else has seen, and to think what nobody else has thought."
- Albert Szent-Gyorgyi

The overarching context of the two major studies conducted in the current body of

research is consumption philanthropy, which involves the perceived acquisition of a valued good

or service in exchange for contributing to a philanthropic cause. This can be accomplished

through consuming products that engage in cause related marketing, as well as through the

receiving of a valued consumable product in exchange for a philanthropic donation. The current

research concentrates on the latter sub-context, one that has not received a great deal of attention

in marketing scholarship.

The main research question was inspired by two main observations. First, consumption

philanthropy is becoming increasingly prolific in the marketplace. The strategic and social

implications of cause related marketing and the consumption philanthropy nature of current

charitable giving behavior include the observation that consumers are thinking and behaving

differently with regards to the increasing merging of their traditionally polarized self-interested

consumption and altruistic philanthropy (e.g., Krishna 2011; Nickel and Eigkenberry 2009).

Secondly, neurological studies on human biological capabilities with respect to self-interest and

philanthropy have shown that consumers should not neurologically be able to take on a self-

interested and altruistic mindset simultaneously (e.g., Brafman and Brafman 2008). Indeed, even before the popularity of applying neuroscience to study consumer behavior, researchers have found through traditional research methods that intrinsically motivated behaviors may be adversely affected when financial incentives or other self-interested rewards are offered (e.g., Deci, Koestner, and Ryan 1999). So, what does this say for the phenomenon of consumption philanthropy? Are consumers being self-interested consumers, philanthropists, or something else?

The current research does not answer these two questions directly, but rather, takes an important intermediate step in being able to do so with the realization that in order to begin to gather theoretical perspectives on consumption philanthropy, marketing first needs a comprehensive model of the determinants of consumption philanthropy intentions. In other words, marketing needs to answer the question: What determines a consumption philanthropy purchase intention? Since intentions can effectively mediate attitudes and behavior when, among other things, the measurement of intentions is reliable (e.g., Bagozzi, Baumgartner, and Yi 1989), there is a great deal of pertinence in conceptualizing correctly the focal constructs of interest in investigating the consumption philanthropy phenomenon.

Thus, Chapter II proposed a conceptual foundation and experimental methodologies in order to understand the determinants of consumer behavior with regards to consumption philanthropy donation intentions. The conceptual foundation marries prior relevant work from two foundational scholarly marketing theories (commitment-trust theory and theory of reasoned action), as well as prior work in the relevant research contexts of altruism, conspicuous consumption, charitable giving behavior, and corporate social responsibility. The conceptual models encapsulating the prior research in a novel approach were initially validated using a

104

survey-based research methodology in Chapter III. A subsection of the holistic model was investigated further using a consumer neuroscience research methodology in Chapter IV.

The implications to scholarship of the current research include increasing theoretical and applied knowledge concerning consumption philanthropy. Moreover, since consumer neuroscience is a relatively new approach to studying marketing phenomena in academia, the second methodology of electroencephalography (EEG) measurement and hemispheric asymmetry analysis has the potential to contribute to the discussion on using and validating this methodology toward studying consumer behavior. Table 5.1 provides a generalized summary of selected conclusions and implications from the most important findings of this research. The specific results, explanations, implications, and suggestions for subsequent research were discussed within Chapter III and Chapter IV.

Table 5.1: Summary of Selected Research Conclusions

- *Overall research framework*: A conceptual framework based on commitment-trust theory and theory of reasoned action in marketing is suitable for explaining consumer behavior related to consumption philanthropy donation intentions.

- *Empathy as a driver of altruism*: The application of the altruism-empathy hypothesis from psychology was not successful using a higher-order conceptualization of altruism that included 'egoistic altruism' attitudes. Empathy was found to be a determinant of the 'empathetic altruism' construct of humanitarian values.

- *Empathy as a moderator*: The unanticipated negative moderating effect of empathetic concern on the relationship between perceived utility and donation intention could have an explanation in the inconclusive prior research that offering external rewards for behavior that could otherwise be intrinsically motivated (e.g., through feelings of empathy) has a negative effect on that behavior.

- *Customer-charity identification*: A consumer's self-identity perceptions, including perceptions of identity overlap between the charity and the consumer, is significant only in the presence of a gift offering. There is also possible variation in this effect depending on the specific gift being offered.

- *Perceived utility as a mediator*: A path from humanitarian values, social orientation, and susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence that is mediated by perceived values provides a better explanation for consumption philanthropy donation intentions than a direct path. This adds support to the notion that consumption philanthropy involves the consideration of rational, self-interested determinants in making the decision to donate or not donate.

- *Humanitarian values*: The effect of humanitarian values is largest when no gift is offered and for the t-shirt gift. The potential for the t-shirt to communicate advocacy for the cause could be a possible explanation for this finding.

- *Status orientation*: Consideration of status orientation is a significant determinant only in the presence of gifts and does not drive donation intentions when no gifts are offered.

- *Susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence*: Susceptibility to normative interpersonal influence drives donation intentions, regardless of whether a gift is offered, but only when the mediation effect of perceived utility is considered.

- *Intentions measurement using EEG*: EEG instrumentation and analytical methodology were successfully applied to measure consumption philanthropy purchase intentions to an extent that was at least as reliable and internally valid as the survey instrumentation and methodology.

However, there are other areas for future research on consumption philanthropy that do not arise directly from the conclusions of the current research but are nevertheless, suitable for marketing research. One suggestion for future research involves an exploration of the relationship between consumer income and consumption philanthropy donation intentions. Although it was not an objective of the current research to investigate income effects in a consumption philanthropy context, and indeed, the significant non-reporting of income by survey respondents described above would have made this investigation difficult, there is a research gap for investigating the individual differences among consumers who engage in consumption philanthropy. Certain demographic variables have been shown to affect charitable giving both specifically and generally. For the latter, income is a notable variable that has been extensively linked in prior research to charitable giving behavior among consumers (e.g., Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2008; Danko and Stanley 1986; Dawson 1988; List 2011; Peloza and Steel 2005; Verhaert and Van den Poel 2011), with the general finding that higher income leads to higher donation amounts. Interestingly, however, the prior literature has found seemingly conflicting results when charitable giving is conflated with market-based consumption. With some exceptions (e.g., Cui et al. 2003), the bulk of the prior research has found no significant effect of income on cause-related marketing (e.g., Chaney and Dolli 2001; Irwin et al. 2003; Koschate-Fischer, Stefan, and Hoyer 2012; Youn and Kim 2008). Besides lending support for the notion that consumption philanthropy is a separate concept from pure charitable giving, with the latter being an act of giving where no goods or services are expected in return, these findings may demonstrate that consumers have different considerations when they make decisions about pure charitable giving versus consuming a consumption philanthropy product.

The nature of consumption philanthropy, as compared to pure charitable giving, seems to offer a plausible explanation for why income would be a significant predictor for charitable giving but not for marketized philanthropy products. Specifically, the former, charitable giving, is a product that is seemingly less or not at all constrained by a specific price tag. That is, when consumers are simply donating money towards a particular charitable cause, they are only constrained by their own income and perceived effects on income (e.g., charitable tax deductions) as to how much they choose to donate. Alternatively, consumption philanthropy is often presented as a consumption option with a minimum tangible donation price. In other words, although a consumer perceives herself to be donating to a charitable cause through participation in consumption philanthropy, she may be more interested in doing so as a result of the good or service that is offered in exchange for that concrete minimum financial donation amount. Moreover, consumers may split their perceptions of value gained from the transaction between the act of donating to charity and the value derived from the consumption of the good or service purchased, and consumers would likely have less varied valuations toward the good or service than they would towards the value of the philanthropic donation. Indeed, Krishna (2011) found that in the presence of a cause marketing product, total donations to charity from consumers were lower than in consumption contexts where cause marketing was not an option, implying that consumers may not be motivated to participate monetarily in charitable donations beyond the amount that is charged to them as the price for the consumption philanthropy product. Thus, offering a consumption philanthropy product at a price that is perceived as affordable and valuable by a critical mass of consumers seems to moderate income effects on charitable giving. Although the current research did not have a aim of exploring pure charitable giving where no individual consumption goods or services are offered in return, it seems prudent

to investigate a portion of this relationship in future research, in that income should not be expected to have a significant effect on consumption philanthropy donation intentions.

Another area for continuing research in consumption philanthropy is the context where gifts are offered in tandem with the donation solicitation. In Chapter II it was mentioned that, while this context was not the focus of the current research, there has been consensus in the prior literature that this sort of gifting by charities increases donations (Alpizar, Carlsson, and Johansson-Stenman 2008; Falk 2007). However, marketing researchers should assess to what extent this sort of donor behavior and donor solicitation behavior is consumption philanthropy. Indeed, if consumers are simply responding to these "unconditional gifts" out of a perceived obligation of reciprocity, to what extent do the determinants of consumption philanthropy investigated in this and prior research apply to that context. For example, do consumers consider their perceived utility from these gifts or from the act of donating when obligations to reciprocate are driving their donor behaviors? Does the value or usefulness of the gift matter to the consumer, in terms of whether or not to donate, since it may be kept and consumed regardless of whether a donation is made? Does this qualify as consumption philanthropy if the gift is not valued or utilized even if the consumer responds positively to the donation solicitation?

Marketing research should explore to what extent consumption philanthropy encourages (or discourages) lasting relationships with donors. Marketing as a managerial function has evolved over time from a focus on isolated transactions to creating value and maintaining customer relationships (e.g., Ferrell and Hartline 2014). If the explanation posited in some of the prior research and parts of the current research that confounding the traditionally intrinsically motivated task of donating to charity can actually harm overall donation intents and levels is generalizable (Ariely, Bracha, Meier 2009; Briers, Pandalaere, and Warlop 2006; Krishna 2011;

Newman and Shen 2012), then the consumption philanthropy strategies of charities could not only decrease aggregate donation levels, but also, donor retention. Charities, having particularly scarce resources to devote to promotional and recruiting activities (List 2011), may be harming their long-term income by encouraging donors to focus on the gift offered rather than the intrinsically rewarding task of helping a philanthropic cause. Marketing research should investigate to what extent consumption philanthropy motivates switching behavior or reduces donor loyalty as compared to a context of traditional philanthropy that does not incorporate consumer products in the exchange relationship.

An additional interesting idea for future research is the examination of donation behavior as a consumer experience that is consumed in and of itself. While a great deal of charities engage in mass, discrete solicitations from individuals, some are also turning the act of donating into a consumable experience. This goes beyond the sort of consumption philanthropy conceptualized in the introduction, where a consumer may receive a valued gift (t-shirt) or service (concert) in return for an isolated donation. Rather, this suggestion would involve a study of phenomena such as charity dinners, auctions, or other similar entertainments that provide a self-interested (and often conspicuous) experience with the objective of motivating donations. For example, a fundraising event for Charity: Water, a charity that provides access to clean water globally, utilized virtual reality headsets to "transport" potential donors to Ethiopia during their fundraising dinner (Swant 2016). Although marketing research has studied the communicational attributes of prosocial pleas, this sort of solicitation likely goes beyond that of just a plea. The charity entertainment event coupled with the experiences provided by virtual reality make the act of donating in and of itself a consumable experience. Future research could explore to what extent this phenomenon can be classified within the definitional context of consumption

philanthropy illustrated in Figure 1.1 in Chapter I. Researchers could also begin to formulate insights into donation activity as an experience and to what extent this sort of consumer behavior is driven by altruism, economic rationality, or other motivations.

Finally, marketers should collaborate with applied and philosophical researchers in other academic disciplines to investigate the effect of the consumption philanthropy phenomena on how consumers think about philanthropy and aiding charities, in general. Nickel and Eikenberry (2009), who are attributed with coining the term "consumption philanthropy" (e.g., Einstein 2012), state the following.

> *Philanthropy … is increasingly lost in the current market-based discourse of philanthropy that includes consumption of products and consumption of media and celebrities as the basis for benevolent human relations … thereby making philanthropy less likely to catalyze substantive social change. (p. 974)*

The authors argue that this sort of fast capitalism philanthropy has distorted individuals' former innate conceptualizations of the difference between benevolent behaviors and the marketplace transactions. Adam Smith, one of the most notable philosophers of modern capitalist theory, had argued that a competitive market of purely self-interested consumers would result in an optimal level of charity due to, in part, the desire for individuals to signal their altruism in order to gain approval from others (Smith 1759). The current research has found, however, that certain determinants of consumption philanthropy that are related to conspicuous motivations may actually discourage charitable intentions. This adds to the growing body of research showing that charity behaviors and levels are theoretically reduced when the self-interested component of a consumer's mindset is used to drive charitable behavior. Does this body of research present a challenge to classic capitalist theory? Moreover, in practice, what are the existing or potential

social welfare effects of individuals thinking about charity through only the context of consumption philanthropy? Is it the case that consumption philanthropy has changed the way individuals conceive philanthropy in general?

The current research has illuminated somewhat a picture of consumer drivers to engage in charity in the increasingly pervasive context of consumption philanthropy. Charity, by subjective definition, is a humanitarian act involving helping those in need. As such, research that helps charities, including facilitating their understanding of consumers' marketized helping behavior, represents not only a contribution toward accumulating academic knowledge and guiding managerial practice, but also, an inquiry into how the academy can help humanity. This is a body of work that has the potential to truly impact individuals, communities, and the environment during times of vulnerability and need.

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APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

ADAPTED SURVEY ITEMS FOR PILOT STUDY

ᴙIndicates an item that was reverse-coded in the original authors' scales.

Trust in Charity (Morgan and Hunt 1994; Sargaent and Lee 2004; Sargeant, Ford, and West 2006) (adapted)
1-1. I trust this charity to always act in the best interest of the cause.
1-2. I trust this charity to conduct their operations ethically.
1-3. I trust this charity to use donated funds appropriately.
1-4. I trust this charity not to exploit their donors.
1-5. I trust this charity to use fundraising techniques that are appropriate and sensitive.

Donor Commitment (Morgan and Hunt 1994; Sargeant, Ford, and West 2006) (adapted)
2-1. I feel a sense of belonging to this charity.
2-2. I care about the long-term success of this charity.
2-3. I would describe myself as a loyal supporter of this charity.
2-4. I would donate at least as much to this charity next year.
2-5. I desire to maintain a valued relationship with this charity.

Empathetic Concern (Davis 1980; 1983)
3-1. I often have concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me.
3-2. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards them.
3-3. I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.
3-4. I would describe myself as a relatively soft-hearted person.
3.5.ᴙ I don't feel pity for people who are being treated unfairly.
3.6.ᴙ I don't usually feel sorry for people who are having problems.
3.7.ᴙ Other people's misfortunes do not usually bother me.

Altruism (Clary et al. 1998; Schaefers 2014) (adapted)
Humanitarian Values
4-11. I would like to help those less fortunate than myself.
4-12. I desire to help the cause this charity supports.
4-13. I have a desire to help people in need.
4-14. I feel it is important to help others.
4-15. I can do something for causes that are important to me.

Status Orientation
4-21.   I would pay more for a product if it had positive social status.

4-22.   A product is more valuable to me if it has prestige.

4-23.^{я} The prestige of a product is irrelevant to me.

Susceptibility to Normative Interpersonal Influence
4-31.   It is important that others like the products and brands I buy.

4-32.   When buying products, I generally purchase those brands that I think others will approve of.

4-33.   If other people can see me using a product, I often purchase the brand they expect me to buy.

4-34.   I like to know what brands and products make good impressions on others.

4-35.   I achieve a sense of belonging by purchasing the same products and brands that others purchase.

Perceived Utility (Sargeant, Ford, and West 2006) (adapted)
Demonstrable Utility
5-11.   When I give to this charity, I receive some benefit in return.

5-12.   I give to this charity to gain local prestige.

5-13.   I donate to this charity to receive publications or news about them.

5-14.   Contributing to this charity enables me to obtain recognition.

5-15.   I may one day benefit from the work this charity supports.

Emotional Utility
5-21.   I give to this charity because I would feel shame if I didn't.

5-22.   I would feel pride giving to this charity.

5-23.   If I never gave to this charity, I would feel bad about myself.

5-24.   Donating to this charity gives me positive feelings.

Social Utility
5-31.   I give money to this charity in memory of a loved one.

5-32.   Someone I know might benefit from my support of this charity.

5-33.   My family has a strong link to this charity.

Organizational Perceptions (Sargeant, Ford, and West 2006) (adapted)
Performance
6-11.   This charity is the charity most likely to have an impact on this cause.

6-12.   This charity spends a high proportion of its donations on this cause.

Communication
6-21.   This charity's communications make me confident it is using my donations appropriately.

6-22.   This charity keeps me informed about how my donations are being used.

6-23.   I look forward to receiving communications from this charity.

6-24.   I feel safe in my transactions with this charity.

6-25.   This charity's communications are always courteous.

6-26.   This charity's communications are always timely.

<u>Customer-Charity Identification</u> (Bagozzi and Lee 2002; Lichtenstein, Drumwright, and Braig 2004) (adapted)

7-1. To what extent would you perceive the degree of overlap between your own personal identity and the identity of this charity?

7-2. To what extent do you perceive your own self-image to overlap with the image of this charity?

<u>Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intention</u>

8-1. I intend to donate to this charity.

8-2. I will donate some level of money to this charity.

8-3. How likely are you to donate to this charity?

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

ADAPTED SURVEY ITEMS FOR MAIN STUDY

ЯIndicates an item that was reverse-coded in the original authors' scales.

AIndicates an item that was created for the main study based on pilot study results.

EIndicates an item that was eliminated from further analysis during assessment of the measurement model.

<u>Trust in Charity </u>(Morgan and Hunt 1994; Sargaent and Lee 2004; Sargeant, Ford, and West 2006) (adapted)
1-1. I trust this charity to always act in the best interest of the cause.
1-2. I trust this charity to conduct their operations ethically.
1-3. I trust this charity to use donated funds appropriately.
1-4. I trust this charity not to exploit their donors.
1-5. I trust this charity to use fundraising techniques that are appropriate and sensitive.

<u>Donor Commitment </u>(Morgan and Hunt 1994; Sargeant, Ford, and West 2006) (adapted)
2-1. I feel a sense of belonging to this charity.
2-2.E I care about the long-term success of this charity.
2-3. I would describe myself as a loyal supporter of this charity.
2-4. I would donate at least as much to this charity next year.
2-5. I desire to maintain a valued relationship with this charity.

<u>Empathetic Concern </u>(Davis 1980; 1983)
3-1. I often have concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me.
3-3. I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.
3-4. I would describe myself as a relatively soft-hearted person.
3.6.ЯE I don't usually feel sorry for people who are having problems.

Altruism (Clary et al. 1998; Schaefers 2014) (adapted)
Humanitarian Values
4-11. I would like to help those less fortunate than myself.
4-12. I desire to help charitable causes.
4-13. I have a desire to help people in need.
4-14. I feel it is important to help others.
4-15. I can do something for causes that are important to me.
Status Orientation
4-21. I would pay more for a product if it had positive social status.
4-22. A product is more valuable to me if it has prestige.
4-23.[ЯE] The prestige of a product is irrelevant to me.
Susceptibility to Normative Interpersonal Influence
4-31. It is important that others like the products and brands I buy.
4-32. When buying products, I generally purchase those brands that I think others will approve of.
4-33. If other people can see me using a product, I often purchase the brand they expect me to buy.
4-34. I like to know what brands and products make good impressions on others.
4-35. I achieve a sense of belonging by purchasing the same products and brands that others purchase.

Perceived Utility (Sargeant, Ford, and West 2006) (adapted)
Demonstrable Utility
5-11. When I give to this charity, this charity gives me something valuable in return.
5-12.[E] I give to this charity to gain prestige.
5-15. I may one day benefit from the work this charity supports.
Emotional Utility
5-21. I give to this charity because I would feel shame if I didn't.
5-22. I would feel pride giving to this charity.
5-23. If I never gave to this charity, I would feel bad about myself.
5-24.[E] Donating to this charity gives me positive feelings.
Social Utility
5-31. I would give money to this charity in memory of a loved one.
5-32. Someone I know might benefit from my support of this charity.
5-33. This charity is important to my family.

Organizational Perceptions (Sargeant, Ford, and West 2006) (adapted)
Performance
6-11. This charity is likely to have a significant impact on this cause.
6-12. This charity uses its donations appropriately.
6-13.[A] This charity uses its donations effectively.
Communication
6-21. This charity's communications make me confident it is using my donations appropriately.
6-22. This charity's communications inform me about how my donations are being used.
6-23. I would look forward to receiving communications from this charity.
6-25. The communication I've seen from this charity is courteous.

Customer-Charity Identification (Bagozzi and Lee 2002; Lichtenstein, Drumwright, and Braig 2004) (adapted)

7-1. To what extent would you perceive the degree of overlap between your own personal identity and the identity of this charity?

7-2. To what extent do you perceive your own self-image to overlap with the image of this charity?

Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intention

8-1. I would donate to this charity in real life.

8-2. I will donate some level of money to this charity.

8-3. How likely are you to donate to this charity?

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

EXPERIMENTAL SCENARIOS FOR SURVEY DATA COLLECTION

Each voluntary survey participant will see a screen with the following scenario instructions and one of the randomly assigned experimental scenarios followed by survey questions. The experimental scenario will remain on the top of the page containing the survey questions.

Figure C1: Experimental Scenario Priming

> **IMAGINE THAT…**
>
> You've been given $100 dollars on the condition that you consider donating at least some of it to a charity. You do not have to donate anything to keep the money – you just have to consider doing so. You may choose to donate any amount, including none or more than the given amount (from your own funds), to the following charity.
>
> Please read the charity solicitation directly below and then complete the survey honestly.

Figure C2: "No Gift" Scenario

CCA Children's Research Hospital

Finding cures. Saving children.

The **CCA Children's Research Hospital** is a pediatric treatment and research facility focused on children's catastrophic diseases.

Since its founding in 1950, CCA has been a global leader in researching and treating childhood cancer and other life-threatening pediatric diseases.

CCA is a nonprofit medical corporation.

With the help of donors, CCA is able to provide free or affordable treatment to some of the toughest cases of cancer, blood disorders, and other life-threatening diseases, including pediatric cases that have not responded well to other treatments. In addition to research and treatment, CCA also provides family support.

Will you make a one-time donation to help continue the life-saving work of CCA Children's Research Hospital?

☐ yes   ☐ no

Please check the level of your donation amount. Checks and all major payment cards are accepted.

☐ $10   ☐ $100

☐ $25   ☐ $250

☐ $50   ☐ Other (write in amount): _____

Figure C3: "T-Shirt Gift" Scenario

CCA Children's Research Hospital

Finding cures. Saving children.

The **CCA Children's Research Hospital** is a pediatric treatment and research facility focused on children's catastrophic diseases.

Since its founding in 1950, CCA has been a global leader in researching and treating childhood cancer and other life-threatening pediatric diseases.

CCA is a nonprofit medical corporation.

With the help of donors, CCA is able to provide free or affordable treatment to some of the toughest cases of cancer, blood disorders, and other life-threatening diseases, including pediatric cases that have not responded well to other treatments. In addition to research and treatment, CCA also provides family support.

Will you make a one-time donation to help continue the life-saving work of CCA Children's Research Hospital?

☐ yes   ☐ no

Please check the level of your donation amount. Checks and all major payment cards are accepted.

☐ $10   ☐ $100

☐ $25*   ☐ $250

☐ $50   ☐ Other (write in amount): _____

*At this minimum donation level, we will send you the following shirt as a token of our gratitude.

☐ Yes, I have made a donation of $25 or more and would like you to send me the t-shirt in the following size (circle one): XS S M L XL XXL

☐ Yes, I have made a donation of $25 or more but decline to receive the t-shirt.

Figure C4: "Bear Gift" Scenario

CCA Children's Research Hospital

Finding cures. Saving children.

The **CCA Children's Research Hospital** is a pediatric treatment and research facility focused on children's catastrophic diseases.

Since its founding in 1950, CCA has been a global leader in researching and treating childhood cancer and other life-threatening pediatric diseases.

CCA is a nonprofit medical corporation.

With the help of donors, CCA is able to provide free or affordable treatment to some of the toughest cases of cancer, blood disorders, and other life-threatening diseases, including pediatric cases that have not responded well to other treatments. In addition to research and treatment, CCA also provides family support.

Will you make a one-time donation to help continue the life-saving work of CCA Children's Research Hospital?

☐ yes   ☐ no

Please check the level of your donation amount. Checks and all major payment cards are accepted.

☐ $10   ☐ $100

☐ $25*   ☐ $250

☐ $50   ☐ Other (write in amount): _____

*At this minimum donation level, we will send you the following plush toy bear as a token of our gratitude.

☐ Yes, I have made a donation of $25 or more and would like you to send me the plush bear.

☐ Yes, I have made a donation of $25 or more but decline to receive the plush bear.

139

APPENDIX D

TABLES FOR MEASUREMENT MODEL ASSESSMENT OF MODEL A

Shaded boxes represent problematic issues with the data, as explained in the main text.

Table D1: Model A Outer Loadings for "No Gift" Sample

Item	CPDI	TC	DC	EC	A				PU				OP			CCI
					A	HV	SO	SNII	PU	DU	EU	SU	OP	P	C	
8-1	0.935															
8-2	0.940															
8-3	0.944															
1-1		0.909														
1-2		0.935														
1-3		0.957														
1-4		0.899														
1-5		0.919														
2-1			0.887						0.794							
2-2			0.845						0.753				0.803	0.782	0.765	0.770
2-3			0.818						0.740			0.740				
2-4			0.868													
2-5			0.926													
3-1				0.859		0.759										
3-3				0.836												
3-4				0.798												
3-6				0.603												
4-11				0.696	0.709	0.903										
4-12				0.685	0.703	0.905										
4-13				0.764	0.668	0.901										
4-14				0.738	0.631	0.889										
4-15				0.664	0.689	0.859										
4-21					0.717		0.875									
4-22					0.718		0.902									
4-23					0.242		0.520									
4-31					0.706			0.896								
4-32					0.719			0.903								
4-33					0.736			0.912								
4-34					0.727			0.850								
4-35					0.713			0.903								
5-11									0.727	0.833						
5-12									0.509	0.645						
5-15									0.740	0.834						
5-21									0.587		0.711					
5-22									0.788		0.846					
5-23									0.709		0.809					
5-24									0.746		0.793					
5-31									0.686			0.835				
5-32									0.716			0.841				
5-33									0.812			0.830				
6-11		0.750	0.775						0.763		0.766		0.826	0.860	0.735	
6-12		0.837											0.909	0.945	0.810	
6-13													0.910	0.948		
6-21													0.907	0.849	0.894	
6-22													0.875	0.781	0.899	
6-23	0.696		0.808						0.745			0.672	0.770		0.816	
6-25													0.692		0.764	
7-1																0.974
7-2																0.972

142

Table D2: Model A Outer Loadings for "T-Shirt Gift" Sample

Item	CPDI	TC	DC	EC	A				PU				OP			CCI
					A	HV	SO	SNII	PU	DU	EU	SU	OP	P	C	
8-1	0.924															
8-2	0.939															
8-3	0.944															
1-1		0.924														
1-2		0.949														
1-3		0.962														
1-4		0.908														
1-5		0.917														
2-1			0.876													
2-2	0.794		0.849						0.773		0.777		0.792	0.778		
2-3			0.841						0.749							
2-4			0.845													
2-5			0.918						0.832							
3-1				0.860												
3-3				0.846												
3-4				0.824												
3-6				0.323												
4-11				0.718	0.740	0.921										
4-12				0.695	0.713	0.879										
4-13				0.804	0.688	0.911										
4-14				0.700	0.635	0.892										
4-15				0.703	0.673	0.857										
4-21					0.693		0.870									
4-22					0.771		0.910									
4-23					0.300		0.520									
4-31					0.764			0.924								
4-32					0.737			0.924								
4-33					0.765			0.909								
4-34					0.759			0.909								
4-35					0.741			0.910								
5-11			0.722						0.814	0.856						
5-12					0.481			0.558	0.574	0.708						
5-15									0.725	0.825		0.671				
5-21									0.642	0.546	0.736					
5-22			0.771						0.834		0.866		0.777	0.742	0.751	
5-23			0.631						0.728		0.815					
5-24		0.748	0.709						0.744		0.812		0.734	0.730	0.684	
5-31			0.634						0.734			0.830				
5-32									0.792			0.867				
5-33			0.787						0.817	0.757		0.869				
6-11													0.781	0.829	0.685	
6-12		0.834											0.920	0.956	0.822	
6-13		0.840											0.910	0.952		
6-21													0.913	0.819	0.925	
6-22													0.838		0.867	
6-23			0.810						0.779		0.707	0.720	0.797		0.850	
6-25													0.815	0.722	0.840	
7-1																0.957
7-2																0.951

Table D3: Model A Outer Loadings for "Bear Gift" Sample

Item	CPDI	TC	DC	EC	A				PU				OP			CCI
					A	HV	SO	SNII	PU	DU	EU	SU	OP	P	C	
8-1	0.928															
8-2	0.951															
8-3	0.963															
1-1		0.936														
1-2		0.957														
1-3		0.951														
1-4		0.930														
1-5		0.924														
2-1			0.905						0.832							
2-2	0.795		0.846						0.761		0.748			0.799	0.755	
2-3			0.869						0.797							
2-4	0.806		0.886						0.786				0.817		0.793	
2-5			0.940						0.852							
3-1				0.852												
3-3				0.891												
3-4				0.861												
3-6				0.389												
4-11				0.678	0.639	0.883										
4-12				0.633	0.731	0.897										
4-13				0.752	0.628	0.897										
4-14				0.624	0.539	0.833										
4-15				0.582	0.602	0.788										
4-21					0.722		0.906									
4-22					0.780		0.929									
4-23					0.110		0.293									
4-31					0.762			0.901								
4-32					0.752			0.913								
4-33					0.736			0.907								
4-34					0.792			0.869								
4-35					0.806			0.922								
5-11									0.759	0.851			0.671		0.662	
5-12			0.460		0.528		0.485	0.608	0.544	0.687		0.452				
5-15			0.753						0.815	0.838		0.741				
5-21									0.691		0.769					
5-22	0.727	0.729	0.746						0.813		0.855			0.757	0.719	
5-23									0.771		0.843					
5-24	0.831	0.766	0.746						0.785		0.817		0.788	0.758	0.762	
5-31									0.743			0.840				
5-32									0.740			0.856				
5-33									0.855	0.799		0.868				
6-11	0.762		0.789								0.777		0.860	0.877	0.790	
6-12													0.902	0.953		
6-13		0.818											0.913	0.953	0.818	
6-21													0.910	0.836	0.913	
6-22													0.874	0.776	0.903	
6-23	0.735		0.834						0.804	0.718	0.761	0.724	0.811	0.723	0.837	
6-25													0.781		0.832	
7-1																0.975
7-2																0.973

Table D4: Model A Internal Consistency Reliability Values

Variable	No Gift		T-Shirt Gift		Bear Gift	
	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
CPDI	0.934	0.958	0.929	0.955	0.943	0.963
TC	0.957	0.967	0.962	0.971	0.967	0.974
DC	0.919	0.939	0.917	0.938	0.934	0.950
EC	0.789	0.860	0.723	0.822	0.778	0.849
A	0.898	0.915	0.910	0.924	0.895	0.915
HV	0.936	0.951	0.936	0.951	0.912	0.934
SO	0.697	0.821	0.688	0.822	0.633	0.786
SNII	0.936	0.952	0.952	0.963	0.943	0.957
PU	0.887	0.908	0.909	0.925	0.915	0.930
DU	0.666	0.817	0.716	0.840	0.710	0.837
EU	0.801	0.870	0.823	0.883	0.839	0.892
SU	0.784	0.874	0.817	0.891	0.816	0.890
OP	0.932	0.945	0.938	0.950	0.944	0.954
P	0.907	0.942	0.900	0.938	0.919	0.949
C	0.866	0.909	0.894	0.926	0.894	0.927
CCI	0.947	0.974	0.900	0.953	0.946	0.974

Table D5: Model A Average Variance Extracted (AVE) Values

Variable	No Gift	T-Shirt Gift	Bear Gift
CPDI	0.883	0.876	0.897
TC	0.854	0.869	0.883
DC	0.756	0.750	0.792
EC	0.609	0.560	0.603
A	0.461	0.491	0.469
HV	0.795	0.796	0.740
SO	0.617	0.619	0.590
SNII	0.798	0.838	0.815
PU	0.500	0.554	0.572
DU	0.602	0.638	0.632
EU	0.627	0.654	0.675
SU	0.689	0.732	0.731
OP	0.714	0.731	0.749
P	0.844	0.835	0.862
C	0.714	0.759	0.761
CCI	0.950	0.909	0.949

Table D6: Model A Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio Values for "No Gift" Scenario

Variable	CPDI	TC	DC	EC	A	HV	SO	SNII	PU	DU	EU	SU	OP	P	C	CCI
CPDI																
TC	0.783															
DC	0.888	0.837														
EC	0.551	0.537	0.530													
A	0.647	0.578	0.709	0.669												
HV	0.618	0.579	0.578	0.896	0.802*											
SO	0.488	0.385	0.531	0.336	0.892*	0.283										
SNII	0.403	0.359	0.545	0.239	0.975*	0.421	0.799									
PU	0.846	0.759	0.965	0.572	0.763	0.599	0.575	0.606								
DU	0.725	0.659	0.921	0.449	0.737	0.441	0.618	0.695	1.128*							
EU	0.890	0.795	0.905	0.659	0.783	0.691	0.572	0.554	1.059*	0.880						
SU	0.770	0.688	0.939	0.483	0.648	0.530	0.459	0.509	1.051*	0.963	0.816					
OP	0.835	0.908	0.934	0.573	0.677	0.614	0.490	0.464	0.874	0.793	0.877	0.814				
P	0.822	0.944	0.904	0.556	0.657	0.594	0.495	0.444	0.837	0.735	0.871	0.758	1.036*			
C	0.825	0.857	0.937	0.573	0.677	0.616	0.474	0.470	0.885	0.823	0.861	0.840	1.079*	0.955		
CCI	0.634	0.519	0.736	0.475	0.674	0.485	0.566	0.554	0.741	0.763	0.679	0.693	0.639	0.624	0.636	

*It is not problematic that second order latent variables would not achieve discriminant validity with their own dimensions, since the items that indicate the latent dimensions also indicate the second-order variables.

Table D7: Model A Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio Values for "T-Shirt Gift" Scenario

Variable	CPDI	TC	DC	EC	A	HV	SO	SNII	PU	DU	EU	SU	OP	P	C	CCI
CPDI																
TC	0.792															
DC	0.911	0.783														
EC	0.601	0.477	0.638													
A	0.656	0.524	0.726	0.794												
HV	0.637	0.490	0.619	0.950	0.816*											
SO	0.529	0.430	0.576	0.485	0.991*	0.484										
SNII	0.414	0.346	0.546	0.396	0.892*	0.326	0.802									
PU	0.850	0.724	0.955	0.645	0.747	0.601	0.618	0.585								
DU	0.766	0.641	0.924	0.582	0.767	0.511	0.725	0.666	1.109*							
EU	0.887	0.798	0.917	0.644	0.707	0.613	0.550	0.526	1.055*	0.918						
SU	0.801	0.637	0.944	0.643	0.712	0.610	0.554	0.537	1.051*	0.999	0.877					
OP	0.832	0.878	0.891	0.611	0.643	0.580	0.506	0.456	0.849	0.799	0.857	0.807				
P	0.833	0.923	0.880	0.609	0.628	0.572	0.496	0.439	0.812	0.748	0.849	0.750	1.034*			
C	0.806	0.816	0.873	0.595	0.636	0.569	0.499	0.455	0.853	0.816	0.837	0.828	1.059*	0.941		
CCI	0.703	0.588	0.776	0.515	0.698	0.554	0.608	0.541	0.724	0.801	0.734	0.758	0.684	0.682	0.665	

*It is not problematic that second order latent variables would not achieve discriminant validity with their own dimensions, since the items that indicate the latent dimensions also indicate the second-order variables.

Table D8: Model A Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio Values for "Bear Gift" Scenario

Variable	CPDI	TC	DC	EC	A				PU				OP			CCI
					A	HV	SO	SNII	PU	DU	EU	SU	OP	P	C	
CPDI																
TC	0.838															
DC	0.915	0.801														
EC	0.540	0.417	0.586													
A	0.629	0.513	0.767	0.723												
HV	0.597	0.477	0.667	0.862	0.816*											
SO	0.532	0.456	0.634	0.460	1.044*	0.476										
SNII	0.414	0.336	0.566	0.372	0.911*	0.322	0.880									
PU	0.873	0.783	0.972	0.543	0.798	0.633	0.694	0.633								
DU	0.820	0.725	0.991	0.520	0.823	0.591	0.733	0.703	1.116*							
EU	0.918	0.822	0.946	0.549	0.781	0.627	0.690	0.608	1.060*	0.965						
SU	0.810	0.737	0.933	0.525	0.753	0.640	0.624	0.568	1.052*	0.993	0.910					
OP	0.909	0.895	0.940	0.566	0.677	0.636	0.539	0.463	0.893	0.845	0.920	0.846				
P	0.895	0.909	0.917	0.569	0.653	0.630	0.532	0.427	0.864	0.803	0.912	0.804	1.027*			
C	0.896	0.861	0.935	0.549	0.678	0.625	0.531	0.481	0.893	0.857	0.903	0.859	1.059*	0.951		
CCI	0.702	0.591	0.799	0.465	0.681	0.551	0.540	0.550	0.777	0.794	0.747	0.756	0.735	0.706	0.739	

*It is not problematic that second order latent variables would not achieve discriminant validity with their own dimensions, since the items that indicate the latent dimensions also indicate the second-order variables.

APPENDIX E

TABLES FOR MEASUREMENT MODEL ASSESSMENT OF MODELS 1-3

Shaded boxes represent problematic issues with the data, as explained in the main text.

Table E1: Model 1 Outer Loadings

Item	No Gift					T-Shirt Gift					Bear Gift				
	CPDI	TC	DC	EC	CCI	CPDI	TC	DC	EC	CCI	CPDI	TC	DC	EC	CCI
8-1	0.935					0.924					0.928				
8-2	0.939					0.939					0.950				
8-3	0.944					0.944					0.963				
1-1		0.910					0.926					0.937			
1-2		0.934					0.947					0.957			
1-3		0.956					0.961					0.951			
1-4		0.900					0.911					0.931			
1-5		0.918					0.914					0.924			
2-1			0.898					0.898					0.924		
2-3			0.850					0.860					0.886		
2-4			0.881					0.862					0.894		
2-5			0.918					0.907			*0.806*			0.936		
3-1				0.864					0.860					0.851	
3-3				0.842					0.856					0.892	
3-4				0.808					0.821					0.864	
7-1					0.974					0.957					0.975
7-2					0.975					0.951					0.973

Table E2: Model 1 Internal Consistency Reliability Values

Variable	No Gift		T-Shirt Gift		Bear Gift	
	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
CPDI	0.934	0.958	0.929	0.955	0.943	0.963
TC	0.957	0.967	0.962	0.971	0.967	0.974
DC	0.910	0.936	0.905	0.933	0.931	0.951
EC	0.789	0.876	0.801	0.883	0.838	0.902
CCI	0.947	0.974	0.900	0.953	0.946	0.974

Table E3: Model 1 Average Variance Extracted (AVE) Values

Variable	No Gift	T-Shirt Gift	Bear Gift
CPDI	0.883	0.876	0.897
TC	0.854	0.869	0.883
DC	0.787	0.778	0.828
EC	0.703	0.715	0.755
CCI	0.950	0.909	0.949

Table E4: Model 1 Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio Values

	No Gift					T-Shirt Gift					Bear Gift				
	CPDI	TC	DC	EC	CCI	CPDI	TC	DC	EC	CCI	CPDI	TC	DC	EC	CCI
CPDI															
TC	0.783					0.792					0.838				
DC	0.867	0.798				0.880	0.751				0.886	0.769			
EC	0.586	0.561	0.544			0.608	0.487	0.635			0.566	0.451	0.581		
CCI	0.634	0.519	0.743	0.542		0.703	0.588	0.771	0.557		0.702	0.591	0.797	0.516	

Table E5: Model 2 Outer Loadings for "No Gift" Sample

Item	CPDI	EC	A				PU
			A	HV	SO	SNII	
8-1	0.935						
8-2	0.939						
8-3	0.945						
3-1		0.870					
3-3		0.850					
3-4		0.794					
4-11		*0.708*	0.717	0.903			
4-12		*0.690*	0.711	0.905			
4-13		*0.766*	0.679	0.902			
4-14		*0.738*	0.639	0.889			
4-15		*0.675*	0.696	0.859			
4-21			0.701		0.901		
4-22			0.716		0.900		
4-31			0.732			0.897	
4-32			0.720			0.903	
4-33			0.707			0.912	
4-34			0.713			0.849	
4-35			0.707			0.903	
5-11							0.715
5-15							0.736
5-21							0.603
5-22							0.782
5-23							0.737
5-31							0.691
5-32							0.718
5-33							0.830

Table E6: Model 2 Outer Loadings for "T-Shirt Gift" Sample

Item	CPDI	EC	A				PU
			A	HV	SO	SNII	
8-1	0.925						
8-2	0.938						
8-3	0.944						
3-1		0.859					
3-3		0.850					
3-4		0.828					
4-11		*0.719*	0.744	0.921			
4-12		*0.694*	0.721	0.879			
4-13		*0.800*	0.696	0.911			
4-14		*0.697*	0.639	0.892			
4-15		*0.701*	0.680	0.857			
4-21			0.760		0.898		
4-22			0.734		0.918		
4-31			0.762			0.924	
4-32			0.754			0.924	
4-33			0.736			0.910	
4-34			0.691			0.909	
4-35			0.765			0.910	
5-11							0.815
5-15							0.738
5-21							0.634
5-22							0.826
5-23							0.733
5-31							0.742
5-32							0.811
5-33							0.832

Table E7: Model 2 Outer Loadings for "Bear Gift" Sample

Item	CPDI	EC	A				PU
			A	HV	SO	SNII	
8-1	0.926						
8-2	0.951						
8-3	0.963						
3-1		0.852					
3-3		0.893					
3-4		0.861					
4-11		*0.679*	0.674	0.883			
4-12			0.735	0.896			
4-13		*0.750*	0.633	0.898			
4-14		*0.621*	0.542	0.833			
4-15		*0.586*	0.605	0.788			
4-21			0.760		0.914		
4-22			0.749		0.927		
4-31			0.733			0.901	
4-32			0.790			0.913	
4-33			0.804			0.907	
4-34			0.720			0.869	
4-35			0.777			0.922	
5-11							0.750
5-15							0.815
5-21							0.697
5-22		*0.728*					0.807
5-23							0.785
5-31							0.756
5-32							0.751
5-33							0.867

Table E8: Model 2 Internal Consistency Reliability Values

Variable	No Gift		T-Shirt Gift		Bear Gift	
	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
CPDI	0.934	0.958	0.929	0.955	0.943	0.963
EC	0.789	0.877	0.801	0.883	0.838	0.902
A	0.907	0.922	0.917	0.930	0.909	0.924
HV	0.936	0.951	0.936	0.951	0.912	0.934
SO	0.767	0.896	0.787	0.904	0.820	0.917
SNII	0.936	0.952	0.952	0.963	0.943	0.957
PU	0.873	0.900	0.900	0.920	0.907	0.925

Table E9: Model 2 Average Variance Extracted (AVE) Values

Variable	No Gift	T-Shirt Gift	Bear Gift
CPDI	0.883	0.876	0.897
EC	0.704	0.715	0.755
A	0.495	0.525	0.507
HV	0.795	0.796	0.740
SO	0.811	0.824	0.847
SNII	0.798	0.838	0.815
PU	0.532	0.591	0.608

Table E10: Model 2 Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio Values for "No Gift" Scenario

Variable	CPDI	EC	A				PU
			A	HV	SO	SNII	
CPDI							
EC	0.586						
A	0.653	0.732					
HV	0.618	0.931	0.822*				
SO	0.533	0.463	0.952*	0.493			
SNII	0.403	0.264	0.883*	0.283	0.803		
PU	0.843	0.599	0.745	0.591	0.598	0.578	

*It is not problematic that second order latent variables would not achieve discriminant validity with their own dimensions, since the items that indicate the latent dimensions also indicate the second-order variables.

Table E11: Model 2 Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio Values for "T-Shirt Gift" Scenario

Variable	CPDI	EC	A				PU
			A	HV	SO	SNII	
CPDI							
EC	0.608						
A	0.666	0.794					
HV	0.637	0.932	0.833*				
SO	0.585	0.550	0.885*	0.533			
SNII	0.414	0.380	0.944*	0.326	0.785		
PU	0.842	0.671	0.740	0.598	0.666	0.559	

*It is not problematic that second order latent variables would not achieve discriminant validity with their own dimensions, since the items that indicate the latent dimensions also indicate the second-order variables.

Table E12: Model 2 Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio Values for "Bear Gift" Scenario

Variable	CPDI	EC	A				PU
			A	HV	SO	SNII	
CPDI							
EC	0.566						
A	0.640	0.730					
HV	0.597	0.871	0.822*				
SO	0.552	0.488	0.930*	0.447			
SNII	0.414	0.347	0.909*	0.322	0.836		
PU	0.864	0.587	0.795	0.641	0.695	0.604	

*It is not problematic that second order latent variables would not achieve discriminant validity with their own dimensions, since the items that indicate the latent dimensions also indicate the second-order variables.

Table E13: Model 3 Outer Loadings for "No Gift" Sample

Item	CPDI	EC	HV	SO	SNII	PU
8-1	0.935					
8-2	0.939					
8-3	0.945					
3-1		0.878				
3-3		0.858				
3-4		0.778				
4-11			0.901			
4-12			0.903			
4-13			0.903			
4-14			0.892			
4-15			0.859			
4-21				0.894		
4-22				0.906		
4-31					0.898	
4-32					0.905	
4-33					0.913	
4-34					0.849	
4-35					0.899	
5-11						0.715
5-15						0.736
5-21						0.602
5-22						0.783
5-23						0.736
5-31						0.692
5-32						0.719
5-33						0.830

Table E14: Model 3 Outer Loadings for "T-Shirt Gift" Sample

Item	CPDI	EC	HV	SO	SNII	PU
8-1	0.925					
8-2	0.939					
8-3	0.944					
3-1		0.864				
3-3		0.851				
3-4		0.821				
4-11			0.917			
4-12			0.878			
4-13			0.915			
4-14			0.891			
4-15			0.859			
4-21				0.916		
4-22				0.900		
4-31					0.923	
4-32					0.922	
4-33					0.914	
4-34					0.907	
4-35					0.910	
5-11						0.816
5-15						0.738
5-21						0.632
5-22						0.826
5-23						0.731
5-31						0.742
5-32						0.812
5-33						0.832

Table E15: Model 3 Outer Loadings for "Bear Gift" Sample

Item	CPDI	EC	HV	SO	SNII	PU
8-1	0.927					
8-2	0.951					
8-3	0.963					
3-1		0.860				
3-3		0.892				
3-4		0.855				
4-11			0.885			
4-12			0.891			
4-13			0.903			
4-14			0.834			
4-15			0.784			
4-21				0.926		
4-22				0.915		
4-31					0.895	
4-32					0.909	
4-33					0.903	
4-34					0.879	
4-35					0.925	
5-11						0.751
5-15						0.815
5-21						0.695
5-22	*0.728*					0.808
5-23						0.783
5-31						0.757
5-32						0.753
5-33						0.867

Table E16: Model 3 Internal Consistency Reliability Values

Variable	No Gift		T-Shirt Gift		Bear Gift	
	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
CPDI	0.934	0.958	0.929	0.955	0.943	0.963
EC	0.789	0.877	0.801	0.883	0.838	0.902
HV	0.936	0.951	0.936	0.951	0.912	0.934
SO	0.767	0.895	0.787	0.904	0.820	0.917
SNII	0.936	0.952	0.952	0.963	0.943	0.956
PU	0.873	0.900	0.900	0.920	0.907	0.925

Table E17: Model 3 Average Variance Extracted (AVE) Values

Variable	No Gift	T-Shirt Gift	Bear Gift
CPDI	0.883	0.876	0.897
EC	0.704	0.715	0.755
HV	0.795	0.796	0.741
SO	0.811	0.824	0.847
SNII	0.798	0.838	0.814
PU	0.532	0.591	0.608

Table E18: Model 3 Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio Values for "No Gift" Scenario

Variable	CPDI	EC	HV	SO	SNII	PU
CPDI						
EC	0.586					
HV	0.618	0.931				
SO	0.533	0.463	0.493			
SNII	0.403	0.264	0.283	0.803		
PU	0.843	0.599	0.591	0.598	0.578	

Table E19: Model 3 Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio Values for "T-Shirt Gift" Scenario

Variable	CPDI	EC	HV	SO	SNII	PU
CPDI						
EC	0.608					
HV	0.637	0.932				
SO	0.585	0.550	0.533			
SNII	0.414	0.380	0.326	0.785		
PU	0.842	0.671	0.598	0.666	0.559	

Table E20: Model 3 Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) Ratio Values for "Bear Gift" Scenario

Variable	CPDI	EC	HV	SO	SNII	PU
CPDI						
EC	0.566					
HV	0.597	0.871				
SO	0.552	0.488	0.447			
SNII	0.414	0.347	0.322	0.836		
PU	0.864	0.587	0.641	0.695	0.604	

APPENDIX F

APPENDIX F

EXPERIMENTAL APPROVAL, CONSENT, AND DEBRIEFING FORMS

Figure F1: IRB Approval Form for Survey Study

The University of Texas
Rio Grande Valley

The Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects Protection (IRB)
Division of Research, Innovation, and Economic Development
Office of Research Compliance

NOTICE OF APPROVAL

Dear Researcher,

This email is regarding your UTRGV IRB study titled Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions Survey - IRB# 880698-1

The IRB protocol referenced above has been reviewed and APPROVED.

Basis for approval: Expedited, Category # 7

Approval expiration date: March 27, 2017

Recruitment and Informed Consent: You must follow the recruitment and consent procedures that were approved. If your study uses an informed consent form or study information handout, you will receive an IRB-approval stamped PDF of the document(s) for distribution to subjects.

Modifications to the approved protocol: Modifications to the approved protocol (including recruitment methods, study procedures, survey/interview questions, personnel, consent form, or subject population), must be submitted to the IRB for approval. **Changes should not be implemented until approved by the IRB.**

Approval expiration and renewal: Your study approval expires on the date noted above. Before that date you will need to submit a continuing review request for approval. Failure to submit this request will result in your study file being closed on the approval expiration date.

Data retention: All research data and signed informed consent documents should be retained for a *minimum* of 3 years after *completion* of the study.

Closure of the Study: Please be sure to inform the IRB when you have completed your study, have graduated, and/or have left the university as an employee. A final report should be submitted for completed studies or studies that will be completed by their respective expiration date.

Approved by:

Dr. Sharon Schembri
Chair, Institutional Review Board

- 1 -

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160

Figure F2: Online Informed Consent Form for Survey Study

Thank you for agreeing to complete this survey that is being conducted by Nese Nasif at University of Texas – Rio Grande Valley (nese.nasif01@utrgv.edu, 956-665-2635) under the advisement of Dr. Michael S. Minor (michael.minor@utrgv.edu, 956-665-3389).

The purpose of this study is to examine attitudes toward donating to a charity. This survey should take about 5-10 minutes to complete.

Participation in this research is completely voluntary. Choosing not to participate will not adversely affect your standing in any class or the university. You may leave blank any questions or statements to which you prefer not to respond.

You must be at least 18 years old to participate. If you are not 18 or older, please do not complete the survey.

All survey responses that we receive will be treated confidentially and stored on a secure server. However, given that the surveys can be completed from any computer (e.g., personal, work, school), the security of the computer on which you choose to enter your responses cannot be guaranteed. As a voluntary participant, please be aware that certain technologies exist that can be used to monitor or record data that you enter and/or websites that you visit.

Any individually identifiable responses will be securely stored and will only be available to those directly involved in this study. De-identified data may be shared with other researchers in the future, but will not contain information about your individual identity.

This research has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects Protection (IRB). If you have any questions about your rights as a participant, or if you feel that your rights as a participant were not adequately met by the researcher, please contact the IRB at 956-665-2889 or irb@utrgv.edu.

If you wish to voluntarily continue to the survey, please acknowledge your eligibility and desire to do so below.

Select one to continue:

I am 18 years of age or older.

I am NOT 18 years of age or older.

Select one to continue:

I have read and understood the preceding guidelines for voluntary participation on this survey and wish to continue.

I do NOT wish to continue my participation in this survey.

>>

Figure F3: Online Debriefing Statement for Survey Study

Thank you for participating in this survey!

The charity solicitation you just saw is from a fictitious charity organization. The name and description of CCA Children's Hospital were created for research purposes in order to examine charitable donation intentions without having survey-takers bring any prior experiences with a known charity into the study.

You are urged not to discuss this study with anyone else who is currently participating or might participate at a future time. As you can certainly appreciate, we will not be able to examine the issues related to charitable donation intentions in participants who know beforehand that CCA Children's Hospital is not real.

If you have any questions or concerns or you would like to receive a summary of the findings of this study when it is completed, you may contact Nese Nasif (nese.nasif01@utrgv.edu, 956-665-2635) or Michael Minor (michael.minor@utrgv.edu, 956-665-3389).

If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a participant in this research study, you can contact the University of Texas - Rio Grande Valley IRB by email at irb@utrgv.edu or by telephone at 956-665-2889.

Figure F4: IRB Approval Form for EEG Study

The University of Texas
Rio Grande Valley

The Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects Protection (IRB)
Division of Research, Innovation, and Economic Development
Office of Research Compliance

NOTICE OF APPROVAL

Dear Researcher,

This email is regarding your UTRGV IRB study titled EEG Measurement of Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions - IRB# 891336-1

The IRB protocol referenced above has been reviewed and APPROVED.

Basis for approval: Expedited, Category # 4

Approval expiration date: April 13, 2017

Recruitment and Informed Consent: You must follow the recruitment and consent procedures that were approved. If your study uses an informed consent form or study information handout, you will receive an IRB-approval stamped PDF of the document(s) for distribution to subjects.

Modifications to the approved protocol: Modifications to the approved protocol (including recruitment methods, study procedures, survey/interview questions, personnel, consent form, or subject population), must be submitted to the IRB for approval. **Changes should not be implemented until approved by the IRB.**

Approval expiration and renewal: Your study approval expires on the date noted above. Before that date you will need to submit a continuing review request for approval. Failure to submit this request will result in your study file being closed on the approval expiration date.

Data retention: All research data and signed informed consent documents should be retained for a *minimum* of 3 years after *completion* of the study.

Closure of the Study: Please be sure to inform the IRB when you have completed your study, have graduated, and/or have left the university as an employee. A final report should be submitted for completed studies or studies that will be completed by their respective expiration date.

Approved by: _____
Dr. Sharon Schembri
Chair, Institutional Review Board

- 1 -

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163

Figure F5: Informed Consent Form for EEG Study (Page 1)

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The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley

Informed Consent Form

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EEG Measurement of Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions

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Investigators:
Nese Nasif, PhD Candidate (nese.nasif01@utrgv.edu, 956-665-2635)
Jae Young Hwang, PhD Candidate (jaeyoung.hwang01@utrgv.edu, 956-665-7135)
Dr. Michael S. Minor, PhD (michael.minor@utrgv.edu, 956-665-3389)

Background: Thank you for your voluntary participation in this research being conducted by Nese Nasif and Jae Young Hwang, under the advisement of Dr. Michael S. Minor. The purpose of this study is to examine subconscious feelings regarding donating to a charity. These feelings will be measured using a brief Powerpoint slideshow and an electroencephalography (EEG) headset.

Procedure: This entire experiment should not take longer than 20 minutes, including time allocated for any of your questions about the research topic at the end of this study. After you read this consent form, you may ask any questions you have about the content within it. If you agree to the terms explained here, you will be asked to sign this form. Next, the researcher (Nese and/or Jae) will put the EEG headset on you. It should only take a few minutes to place the headset on correctly and should not provide you any discomfort. After this, you will view a 5-minute slideshow. You are asked not touch the computer, keyboard, mouse, or any other equipment during this slideshow. You are also asked to refrain from speaking during this slideshow, unless it is to express discomfort or withdraw from the experiment. When this slideshow is over, we will remove the EEG headset. Finally, we will present you with an informational document with our contact information that you may take with you. At this time, we will also be happy to answer any additional questions you may have about this research or the experiment in which you just participated. The data collected with the EEG headset will be kept confidential and it will not include any information that directly links it with your identity. Please note that you should feel free to stop and withdraw your participation from this study at any time without penalty, comment, or question.

Risks or Possible Discomforts Associated with the Study: There are no anticipated physical risks associated with your participation in this study. Some individuals who dislike physical contact from a stranger may experience discomfort from being touched on the head by the researcher in order to place the EEG headset. Once the experiment begins, the EEG headset will be worn for approximately 5 minutes.

Benefits of Participation: There are no anticipated direct benefits to you from your participation. There is a general benefit to the social scientific community studying charities, donors, and use of EEG in marketing research. If you indicate interest, the researchers will be happy to send you a summary report of the aggregated results of the study after the completion of this research.

Voluntary Participation: Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may discontinue your participation at any time without penalty. If for any reason you decide that you would like to discontinue your participation, simply tell the researcher that you wish to stop.

1 of 2

Figure F5: Informed Consent Form for EEG Study (Page 2)

The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley

Informed Consent Form

<u>Anonymity and/or Confidentiality</u>: This consent form will be stored securely and separately from any EEG data gathered in this session. Knowledge of your participation in this study will only be available to those directly involved in this study or your course instructor (if you indicated that you would like us to pass along that you participated). De-identified EEG data may be shared with other researchers in the future, but will not contain information about your individual identity.

<u>Who to Contact for Research Related Questions</u>: For questions about the research itself, or to report any adverse effects during or following participation, you may contact any of the three investigators listed at the top of this document.

<u>Who to Contact Regarding Your Rights as a Participant</u>: This research has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects Protection (IRB). If you have any questions about your rights as a participant, or if you feel that your rights as a participant were not adequately met by the researcher, please contact the IRB at (956) 665-2889 or irb@utrgv.edu.

<u>Signatures</u>: By signing below, you indicate that you are voluntarily agreeing to participate in this study and that the procedures involved have been described to your satisfaction. The researcher will provide you with a copy of this form for your own reference. In order to participate, you must be at least 18 years of age. If you are under 18, please inform the researcher.

_____   ____/____/_____
Participant's Signature   Date

Figure F6: Debriefing Form for EEG Study

EEG Measurement of Consumption Philanthropy Donation Intentions

Investigators:
Nese Nasif, PhD Candidate (nese.nasif01@utrgv.edu, 956-665-2635)
Jae Young Hwang, PhD Candidate (jaeyoung.hwang01@utrgv.edu, 956-665-7135)
Dr. Michael S. Minor, PhD (michael.minor@utrgv.edu, 956-665-3389)

Thank you for participating in this research!

The charity solicitation you just saw is from a fictitious charity organization. The name and description of CCA Children's Hospital were created for research purposes in order to examine charitable donation intentions without having survey-takers bring any prior experiences with a known charity into the study.

You are urged not to discuss this study with anyone else who is currently participating or might participate at a future time. As you can certainly appreciate, we will not be able to examine the issues related to charitable donation intentions in participants who know beforehand that CCA Children's Hospital is not real.

If you have any questions or concerns or you would like to receive a summary of the findings of this study when it is completed, you may contact any of the investigators listed above.

If you have questions or concerns about your rights as a participant in this research study, you can contact the University of Texas - Rio Grande Valley IRB by email at irb@utrgv.edu or by telephone at 956-665-2889.

If you are taking this survey for extra credit in a course, please tell us the name of the instructor whom we should inform of your participation. None of the data we have collected here will be forwarded to your instructor.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Nese Nasif earned her Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in Business Administration with an emphasis in Marketing from 2010-2016 at The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley. Prior to entering the Ph.D. program, Nese received a Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) in Economics from University of Chicago and a Master of Arts (M.A.) in Education from University of Michigan. Prior to her doctoral studies, she has worked as an analyst in the antitrust and competition policy practice group of a multinational economics consulting firm and as a high school mathematics and economics teacher. During her studies at The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley, Nese published the results of her marketing research for the first time as well as presented at national and regional conferences on marketing topics ranging from consumer behavior, measuring environmentalism in consumers, frugal consumption, public sector services, and public policy regarding for-profit universities. Her current major research interest is consumption philanthropy, which is the focus of her doctoral dissertation. Nese has taught a range of undergraduate marketing and management courses at The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley and at Texas A&M University Corpus Christi during her doctoral studies, including Marketing Strategy, Product and Brand Strategy, Promotional Strategy, Integrated Marketing Communications, Multinational Management, Principles of Marketing, Fashion Design and Popular Culture, Music Marketing, and International Business. She has accepted a position as an Assistant Professor of Marketing at The University of Wisconsin La Crosse, which will begin in Fall 2016, and can be contacted there at nnasif@uwlax.edu.