



Cause-related marketing: The influence of co-creation on personal relevant causes for the consumer

Vitor Simões 152116043

Dissertation written under the supervision of Cláudia Costa

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Student Name	Vitor Manuel Saraiva Simões
Student Number	152116043
Supervisor	Cláudia Costa
Faculty	Católica Lisbon School of Business and Economics
Program	International Master's in management with specialization in Strategy and Consulting
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Abstract

Title: Cause-related marketing: The influence of co-creation on personal relevant causes for the consumer

Author: Vitor Manuel Saraiva Simões

Empowering consumer to co-create with companies can enhance consumers' behavioural attitudes towards the company namely through higher willingness to pay, purchase intentions, loyalty, bond, satisfaction and word-of-mouth. The aim of this paper is to understand whether these outcomes also apply to the empowerment of consumers to co-create social responsibility by giving consumers the choice of campaigns causes in cause-related marketing. Furthermore, personal relevance of causes was only studied indirectly in the context of cause-related marketing, thus this paper aims to study this effect further.

A field study was conducted to gain insights on consumer willingness to pay, purchase intentions and attitudes towards the company, recreating previous studies. Then a survey was designed to understand the mediating effect of personal relevance on consumer loyalty, bond and word-of-mouth.

Results suggest that when the donation size is high enough, there is a statistically significant difference between co-creating or not the campaign. With a higher donation, the level of consumers' perceived personal role increases, which enhances outcomes towards the company. We have not found the same evidence for low levels of donation even when the consumer has the possibility to co-create.

My research indicates that personal relevance is not a factor that makes a difference in consumers' behavioural attitudes because consumers perceive all causes as important.

This paper adds to existing literature on cause-related marketing campaigns and shows that there is no use in co-creating campaigns if the consumer does not perceive the amount donated as having an impact on the cause.

Keywords: cause-related marketing, choice, co-creation, consumers' outcomes towards companies, personal role, donation amount

Resumo

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Dar poder ao consumidor para cocriar com empresas pode fortalecer as atitudes comportamentais dos consumidores para com a empresa, nomeadamente maior disposição para pagar, intenção de compra, lealdade, relação, satisfação e recomendação verbal. O objetivo deste trabalho é compreender se estes comportamentos também se aplicam à cocriação de responsabilidade social dando ao consumidor o poder de escolha da campanha em campanhas de marketing sociais. Além disso, a relevância pessoal das causas só foi estudada indiretamente neste contexto, por isso este trabalho tem o objetivo de estudar este tópico.

Um estudo de campo foi feito para obter informações sobre a disposição para pagar, intenção de compra e atitudes perante a empresa, recreando estudos anteriores. Depois, um questionário foi feito para perceber o efeito da relevância pessoal na lealdade, ligação e recomendação verbal do consumidor.

Os resultados sugerem que quando o tamanho da doação é elevado, existe uma diferença entre cocriar ou não a campanha. Com uma doação maior, o nível de perceção de relevância pessoal do consumidor aumenta, o que fortalece as atitudes perante a empresa. O mesmo não foi encontrado para baixos níveis de doação, mesmo quando o consumidor podia cocriar.

Esta pesquisa indica que a relevância pessoal não é um fator diferenciador nas atitudes comportamentais do consumidor porque os consumidores percecionam todas as causas como importantes.

Este trabalho complementa a literatura existente em campanhas de marketing social e mostra que não faz sentido em cocriar se o consumidor não perceciona a quantia doada como tendo um impacto na causa.

Palavras-chave: campanhas de marketing social, escolha, cocriar, atitudes comportamentais dos consumidores, relevância pessoal, quantia da doação

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1. Introduction

The retail industry is now dominated by the usage of sales promotion. In 2016, the percentage of products sold on promotion in Europe was 28,1% (IRI Worldwide 2016). The UK leads this statistic with 51,5%, while Australia and the US also trade heavily using promotions with 40,6% and 34,9% respectively (IRI Worldwide 2016). Portugal follows this trend and 45% of retail sales are from promotions (Nielson Report 2018). The high level of sales promotions in Portugal is due to the fierce competition of very large companies selling almost the same products for the same prices. Pingo Doce and Continente dominating the market, having more than 50% market share (Público 2017). The director for services in retail of Nielson, Ana Paula Barbosa expressed to Store Magazine her concern with the quantity of promotions used and stated that consumers in retail are not loyal.

The lack of consumer loyalty, high competition among companies and the extensive usage of promotions campaigns erodes companies' profitability. According to Reichheld (1996) disloyalty prevents growth by 25-50% while loyalty brings economic benefits such as increased profits and market share. Furthermore, according to Keller (1998), sales promotion decreases brand loyalty, increase brand switching, decrease quality perceptions and increase price sensitivity of the consumer.

As a result, companies are looking for alternatives to promotions. An option highly regarded is cause-related marketing campaigns that involve the consumer in the campaign. In North America companies are spending over \$1.62 billion in 2010 in cause-related marketing campaigns (Cause Marketing Forum 2011). The co-creation element gives consumers the opportunity to choose the cause to which the donation will go to. This idea is based on previous research of (Strahilevitz & Myers, 1998) (Strahilevitz, 1999) which compared the option of the consumer for discount or donation in hedonic and utilitarian products for large amounts of discount/donations and for low amounts of discount/donations.

Previous research on cause-related marketing campaigns with choice, showed that when the consumer is given the possibility to choose the cause to which the company will donate to, their feelings of personal role are enhanced (Robinson, Irmak, & Jayachandran, 2012) and this feeling of personal role in the donation process translates in stronger brand attachment, positive purchase intentions and higher willingness to pay (Robinson et al., 2012). Moreover, with choice, consumers likelihood of choosing a product from a company who develops a cause-related marketing campaign increases (Arora & Henderson, 2007). Additionally, previous

research about the role of personal relevance on cause-related marketing campaigns suggested that higher involvement translates in attitudes that persist through time from consumers (Andrews, Durvasula & Akhter 1990; Petty and Cacioppo 1979) and more positive attitudes towards the campaign (Grau & Folse, 2007).

Research on co-creation shows that people who are empowered to co-create with a company, reward the company with increased loyalty and trust (Sawhney, Verona, & Prandelli, 2005; Sheth et al. 2000), more positive word-of-mouth, higher bond with the company, higher purchase intentions (Franke, Schreier, & Kaiser, 2010) and have more willingness to pay for co-created products (Schreier, Fuchs, & Dahl, 2012). For consumers who do not participate in co-creation, positive outcomes were also identified when companies empower consumers. These companies are perceived as more customer oriented, which will translate in more positive attitudes towards the company (Fuchs & Schreier, 2011).

Thus, literature shows common positive outcomes for cause-related marketing campaigns with choice and co-creation in general, such as increased purchase intentions and higher willingness to pay. However, there is no evidence in cause-related marketing campaigns with choice literature for other outcomes already studied in co-creation literature, such as loyalty, bond with the company and positive word-of-mouth. Moreover, extant research on co-creation is US based and its insights should be studied in different contexts, especially for culturally different countries according to Hofstede (1980).

“The aim of this research is, first to confirm findings that giving the choice of cause to the consumer increases the perception of personal role, which brings positive outcomes that benefit the company. Second, to understand if giving the choices of the causes that are more personal relevant to the consumers as behavioural consequences such as higher purchase intentions, more willingness to pay, higher campaign participation attitudes, more loyalty, higher bond towards the company and more positive world-of-mouth when compared to less relevant causes”.

The problem statement can be divided into two research questions that go as follows:

Research Question 1: Does the choice factor in cause related marketing campaigns with choice affect consumers' behavioural intentions to the company?

Research Question 2: Does personal relevance enhance consumers' behavioural intentions towards the firm?

This paper could provide brand managers and marketers with insights on best practices in launching cause-related marketing campaigns and provide an alternative for promotions characterized by higher margins of sales and higher loyalty from the consumers in Portugal and other individualistic countries.

The structure of this paper goes as follows: in the literature review, an overview of the theoretical background on the main topic of cause-related marketing with choice and on co-creation was given to draw hypothesis to be tested in the next chapters. The methodology used to test these hypotheses was based on two pretests and two main studies, one qualitative and one quantitative. The objective of the pretests was to reduce bias, the objective of the qualitative study was to replicate the findings of Robinson, Irmak and Jayachandran (2012) for the case of Portugal while the objective of the quantitative test was to further analyse outcomes for the consumer of the usage of this campaigns with choice. In the fourth chapter and fifth chapter I analyse the data collected from the studies and provide explanations for the evidences. Lastly, I provide the limitations of my study, future research and conclude on all my analysis.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The evolution of Value Creation for the consumer

Value creation is changing its locus of action. Traditionally, companies decide the product or service to sell, which means deciding the value for the consumer. In this view, the consumer is merely the target of the company and has little or no role in value creation (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004), as consumers' role begins and ends buying the product or service (the point of exchange).

Over the centuries, evidence shows companies were not the only innovators (von Hippel, 1986). Many lead users, as described by von Hippel, (1986) have been found to innovate for themselves because these users expect to benefit from solving needs they face and that mainstream users will face later in time. Many of these innovations came from hobbyists (development or use of the product is not the main source of income for these individuals) in the field of consumer products, e.g. outdoor sports (Lu, 2004), mountain bike equipment (Christian, Herstatt, & Hippel, 2005) and snowboarding, sailplaning, canyoneering and handicapped cycling equipment (Franke & Shah, 2003).

These shift from the traditional role of the consumer gain even more importance with the proliferation of technology and, in specific, the internet. With the internet, consumers can now engage in dialogue with manufacturers of products and services and can learn about businesses either on their own or through collective knowledge of other consumers (Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2000). This information is the key component for proactivity and maximization of output seeking by the consumer as information cannot be controlled by companies and through its accumulation consumers gain valuable knowledge and skills (Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2000).

In this new view of the market, direct interactions with consumers and consumer communities are critical. Firms must learn as much as possible about the customer through rich dialogue because the consumer is becoming more sophisticated. The information must be centered on the consumer and the company should encourage active consumer participation in all aspects of the co-creation experience, including information search, configuration of products and services, fulfillment and consumption (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004).

Finally, in this new approach the roles of the company and the consumer converge, both are collaborators in co-creating value and competitors for the extraction of economic value, making the market inseparable from the value creation process (Figure 1). This market is a

forum where dialogue among the consumer, the firm, consumer communities, and networks of firms can take place (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004).

Table 1 shows the shift from the traditional company centric to consumer centric view, divided into role of the consumer, interaction of the consumer in new product development and communication flow throughout the time frame of 1970s and early 2000s. (Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2000). Until the late 1990s, consumers were seen by companies simply as buyers, managers wanted to cultivate loyalty and trust and companies tried to fix problems identified by lead users to serve the mass market. From the 2000s onwards, consumers are seen by companies as part of their environment, managers want to actively communicate with consumers and co-create value, educate and shape markets jointly with lead users to generate new products/services.

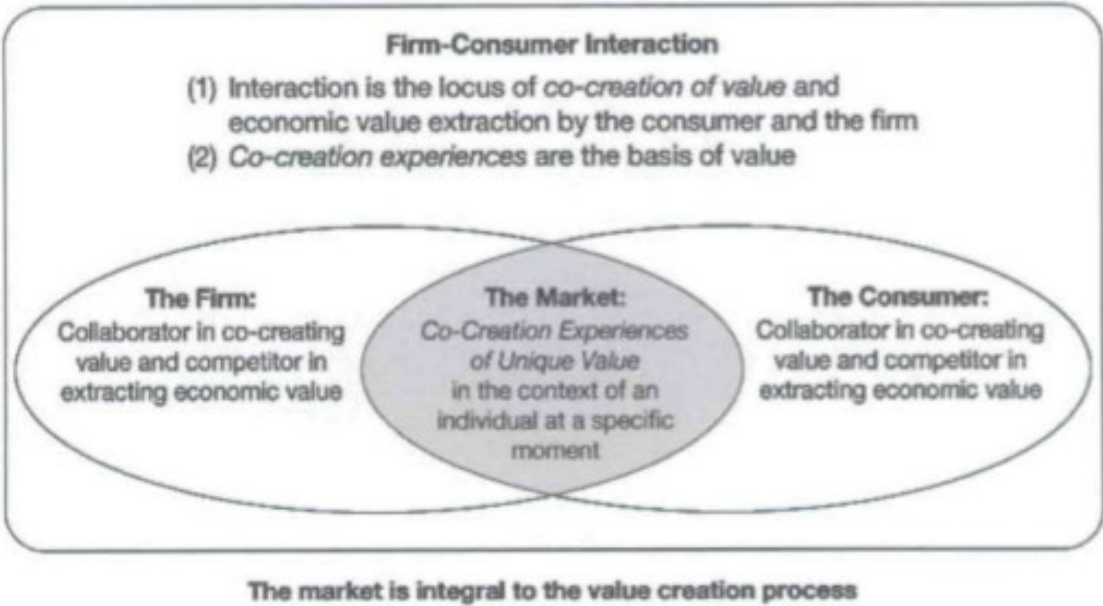


Figure 1 - Emerging concept of market [Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2004]

	Customers as a passive audience			Customers as active players
	Persuading predetermined groups of buyers	Transacting with individual buyers	Lifetime bonds with individual customers	Customers as co-creators of value
Time Frame	1970s, early 1980s	Late 1980s, early 1990s	1990s	Beyond 2000
Managerial mind-set	There are groups of buyers	The customer is an individual statistic in a transaction	The customer is a person; cultivate trust and relationship	The customer is not only an individual but also part of a social and cultural network
Company's interaction with customers	Traditional market research and inquires; products and services are created without much feedback	Shift from selling to helping customers via help desks, call centers and service programs; Identify problems from customers and redesign products and services based on that feedback	Identify solutions from lead users and reconfigure products and services based on deep understanding of customers	Companies and lead users have joint roles in educating, shaping expectations and co-creating market acceptance for products and services
Purpose and flow of communication	One-way communication	Two-way communication; Database marketing	Two-way communication; Relationship Marketing	Multilevel communication; Active dialogue

Table 1 - The evolution and Transformation of customers (adapted from Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2000)

2.2 Co-Creation

Fuchs & Schreier (2011) propose that customer co-creation in new product development can be outlined in terms of two dimensions: (1) customer empowerment to generate ideas for new product designs or create products and (2) customer empowerment to select the product designs that will be produced (see Figure 2).

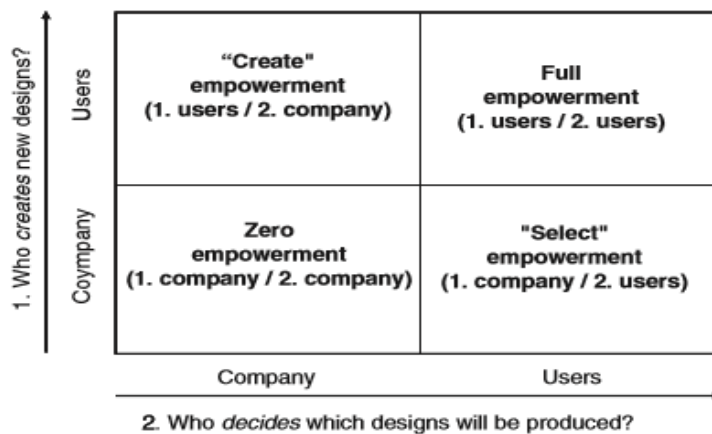


Figure 2 - Customer empowerment strategies in NPD (Fuchs and Schreier 2011)

This table shows the traditional new product development model, or zero empowerment strategy, in which companies are exclusively responsible for having new product idea and for deciding which products will be marketed as well as the forms of co-creation according to Fuchs & Schreier (2011).

In the “create empowerment”, customers are empowered to submit new products or ideas for new products and the company decides if the product should be sold in the market. An example is the BMW Group (Ogawa and Piller, 2006). The company hosts the “Co-creation Lab”, a contest that allows consumers to contribute with their ideas and suggestions to new products. However, internal engineers make the final decision (see BMW group, 2010).

In the “select empowerment”, the company create products and the customer “vote” on which products should be sold in the market.

Finally, in the full empowerment strategy, customers are empowered to submit products or ideas for new products and to “vote” as a community on which products should be sold in the market. An example is Threadless, a Chicago-based fashion start-up explained in the work of Ogawa and Piller (2006). Threadless has an online community of more than 120,000 registered users which are invited to submit new T-shirt designs (the company receives 500

new designs per week) and vote for the T-shirts that will be produced (each design is evaluated by 1500 users on average). Based on this user evaluations, Threadless markets the best five designs every week and rewards the winning designers with \$2,000.

In the next chapters, co-creation as “select empowerment” together with co-creation experiences literature will clarify the categorization of cause-related marketing campaigns as co-creation of social responsibility.

2.3 Perceptions of the consumer to co-creation: participant and non-participant consumer

From the managerial perspective, the outcomes for the consumer of empowering are of great importance because it can determine whether a firm should “hide” (not advertise broadly) empowerment initiatives or “sell” (advertise broadly) empowerment initiatives. (Fuchs & Schreier, 2011).

Some of these outcomes were studied in the literature both in terms of the costumers that participated in the new product development process (Sawhney et al., 2005) and consumers who are aware of, but not actively participated in the process (Fuchs & Schreier, 2011).

For the consumers who actively participate in empowerment activities, they will reward the companies with increased loyalty, as people are more motivated to buy products they helped create and trust developed by the personalized relationships with firms (Sawhney et al. 2005; Sheth et al. 2000).

For consumers who do not participate actively in empowerment initiatives, Fuchs and Schreier (2011) research found that these consumers also prefer companies that employ customer empowerment, because empowerment strategies should lead to higher perceived customer orientation. In the literature, customer orientation refers to the firm’s ability to satisfy customer needs adequately (anticipating and responding to these needs) (Brady & Jr, 2001).

It is the consumer perception that determines a firm’s degree of customer orientation (Krepapa et al. 2003) and the same perception determines the individual company-customer relationship (Stock & Hoyer, 2004). This means that, in general, a consumer that perceives a company as being costumers oriented, will have more favorable corporate attitudes towards the company compared to others with perceived lower costumers orientation, *ceteris paribus* (Fuchs and Schreier 2011).

2.4 Benefits for participating consumers

Furthermore, the stream of literature in behavioral intentions of the consumer found that perceived customer orientation is linked to customer intentions to purchase or repurchase a product of a company and to produce positive word-of-mouth advertising (Brady & Jr, 2001) while, in the same way, positive corporate associations have been found to create a basis for strong behavioral outcomes such as purchase intentions and loyalty (Brown & Dacin, 1997; (P. S. Ellen, Webb, & Mohr, 2006). In the same way, Fuchs and Schreier (2011) showed that participants who were empowered had stronger behavioral intentions towards the product of the firm, translated in more purchase intentions, loyalty, more positive word-of-mouth intentions, corporate commitment and bond.

Finally, Schreier, Fuchs and Dahl (2012) confirms findings from Fuchs and Schreier (2011) and add that empowering consumer also affect positively consumer's willingness to pay. These scholars found that customers were willing to pay 50% more for a user-driven firm's product, outcome that was linked to perceived higher innovation ability and that holds for functional product changes (e.g. improved well-being in cereals) and aesthetic product changes (e.g. taste in cereals).

2.5 Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) activities can be broadly seen as a company's status and activities that go into the category of their perceived social obligations (Brown & Dacin, 1997). This view approaches CSR as a proactive social entity that has a responsibility in a social system but at the same time pursue a long-term role (McGee, 1998).

The definition presented is broad and it is not easy to conceptualize the behaviour a company can have and that go into the sphere of CSR (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). To solve this issue and narrow down the possible activities into subcategories Sen and Bhattacharya use the database contained in *Socrates: The corporate social ratings Monitor* that analyses and rates more than 600 companies in terms of their CSR activities. According to this database there are six domains of CSR: (1) Community Support (e.g. initiatives for community members with economic difficulties), (2) diversity (e.g. gender, race, sexual orientation and disability-based diversity initiatives and personnel), (3) employee support (e.g. safety and job security), (4) environment (e.g. waste management), (5) non-local operations (e.g. overseas labour conditions) and (6) product (e.g. product safety).

More companies than ever before are engaging in CSR initiatives such as corporate philanthropy, cause-related marketing, minority support programs, and socially responsible

employment and manufacturing practices (Drumright 1994; Smith 1994; Varadarajan and Menon 1988).

Research suggests a positive relationship between companies' CSR actions and consumers' attitudes towards that companies and its products (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Ellen, Mohr, & Webb, 2000). More specifically, Brown and Dacin (1997) found that CSR associations influence product evaluations primarily through overall corporate evaluation and validate the existence of a relationship between corporate associations and consumer response to products. This means that negative CSR associations can have a negative effect on product evaluations, whereas positive CSR associations can have a positive effect on product evaluations (Brown & Dacin, 1997).

Research on the effect of CSR on consumers' company evaluation showed general negative reactions towards negative CSR information, whereas only the most supportive of the CSR issue reacted positively to positive CSR information (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001). Therefore, managers should be aware of the hazards of companies being perceived as socially irresponsible and should research and select the CSR initiatives that have the highest and most widespread support among the company's key consumer segments (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001).

Finally, research on the effect of CSR on consumers' purchase intentions shows that CSR efforts can hurt companies selling high-quality products because consumers believe CSR initiatives are a strategy for companies that lack quality products, even for consumers that deeply value CSR (Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001).

Note that the study of Fuchs and Schreier (2011) presented in the previous chapter was centered in T-shirts, furniture and bicycles but this does not mean that these findings hold only in low-tech fields, as it depends on the distribution of knowledge and competence in a product category as perceived by the consumers (Fuchs & Schreier, 2011). Nonetheless, in the field of corporate social responsibility there is no evidence of different outcomes for product complexity. Rather, there is evidence on different outcomes for hedonic and utilitarian products. Research suggests that charity incentives are more effective in promoting hedonic products than utilitarian products (Strahilevitz & Myers, 1998) because the complementarity of feelings generated from hedonic consumption (likely to induce guilt) and the utility from contributing to a good cause (likely to reduce guilt) (Strahilevitz & Myers, 1998). Only for a specific type of hedonic products, the luxury products category, the presence of corporate social

responsibility information decline brand evaluation (Torelli & Kaikati, 2012) because there will be a conflict between the motivations triggered automatically outside conscious awareness (Chartrand, Huber, & Tanner, 2008) by this brand concepts and those activated by CSR (Torelli & Kaikati, 2012).

2.6 Types of Co-creation

2.6.1 Co-creation via Toolkits

The example of Threadless illustrates the mainstream definition of co-creation, which translates a perspective of innovation and new product development through toolkits. Toolkits are defined as “coordinated sets of user-friendly design tools that enable users to develop new product innovations for themselves” (Von Hippel & Katz, 2002). Other “toolkits” only allow users to combine few options from a range of features (Franke & Piller, 2004) which translate in a customization of a large-scale production by the firm while physical production is left to the manufacturer (Franke et al., 2010).

2.6.2 Co-creation via User Communities

The example of the BMW group illustrates the perspective of co-creation as an online user community. An online user community allows for a dispersed crowd of users to collaborate, exchange information and learn about product usage relatively unconstrained by time and space. For an active user community to be developed the product technology features of the company must be easily transferable and the mode of communication (e.g. internet) low cost (Jeppesen & Frederiksen, 2006). The goal of an online community is to generate constant development and content creation, increasing the product value to all users that may eventually result in longer product life-time and sales than the original product (Jeppesen & Molin, 2003).

2.6.3 Co-creation Experiences

In more recent literature, co-creation is seen as the creation of unique experiences between consumer and company with unique value extraction for the single consumer (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004).

There is a difference between the view of co-creation concept of “consumers as innovators” and the view of co-creation as personalized experiences (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004). Both views have common traits, for example, both facilitate dialogue and involve communities (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004) but the difference resides in the availability of options for the consumer to co-create and the level of product centricity (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004). While in the view of consumers as a product developer, consumers have access to tools and a library of compounds to make a custom product (Prahalad and

Ramaswamy, 2004), in the view of co-creation experiences, the individual consumer can choose to interact with the environment of the firm in a specific way (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2003). This means that the first view is product-centric while the second is interaction centric, either with the company or with other consumers.

Co-creation of experiences is almost a “customization” of one individual needs. The premise is that the product or service must give several choices for the consumer to choose from, thus having their own experience. Take for example a visit to a doctor. A visit to the doctor today is different from what it was some years ago because patients have now access to more information, want to engage in dialogue, understand the risk-benefits of alternate modalities of treatment and co-create a modality of treatment that accounts for his/her particular circumstances. The product of the hospital (medical treatment) has not disappeared, but what is emerging is unique value to consumers from their experience in the treatment (which is contextual) and dependent on the choices of patients. Ultimately, given the same network and similar medical problems, the same individual could, in a different context and with different preferences choose other way of treatment, thus having a different experience and derive different value (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004).

2.7 Cause-Related Marketing Campaigns with choice: Co-creation social responsibility of a unique experience

Cause-related marketing campaigns were introduced in 1984, with the American Express campaign to renew the statue of liberty. Nowadays, a very wide range of companies create alliances with worthy causes, creating mutually beneficial relationships for both company and cause (Grau et al., 2007).

Existing literature categorize cause-related marketing campaigns with choice as a transaction-based CSR strategy (Kull & Heath, 2016) stating that “cause related marketing with choice is an emerging form of co-created social responsibility” (Kull & Heath, 2016) and “cause related marketing falls into the larger class of CSR programs” (Robinson et al., 2012).

Cause-related marketing campaigns with choice involve an interaction between consumer and company where the consumer have the power to choose the cause to which the company will donate in response to the consumer’s purchase (Kull & Heath, 2016).

These campaigns can be categorized as select empowerment in the framework of Fuchs and Schreier (2011). Moreover, co-creation of experiences literature can help complement the categorization of cause related marketing campaigns with choice.

In the visit to the doctor example, given the same network and similar medical problems, the same individual could, in a different context and with different preferences, choose other way of treatment, thus having a different experience and derive different value (Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004). Similarly, given the same network, the same individual could, in a different context and with different preferences, choose a different cause, having a different experience and thereby deriving different value (derive more or less joy from his decision).

An example of a company that did a CM campaign with choice was Gucci Parfums in 2014. For a limited time, in their own Chime for Change platform, five designated Gucci fragrances came with a unique code that allowed customers to allocate \$5 donation to the cause of their choice supporting justice, health or education for women and young girls. (Kull & Heath, 2016). Gucci pledged to donate \$1 million and had a page on the website to track the donation progress for various causes, thus making it easier for the consumer to view the progress and impact they had or could have.

2.8 Consumer Perceptions to the co-creation element: choice vs without choice

Research suggest that when the consumer is given the choice of cause in a cause-related marketing campaign, consumers perceive they are part of the donation process, enhancing their perception of personal role, independent of the characteristics of the selected charity (e.g. perceived importance, perceived fit with the company) (Robinson et al., 2012). Choice may affect consumer reactions and thus change perception about the company engaging in these campaigns. For example, choice may enhance consumer feelings of freedom (Reibstein, Youngblood, & Fromkin, 1975), increase involvement and perceived control (Wortman 1975), enhance outcome satisfaction because of increased match between people's preferences and outcomes (Brehm, 1966; Bettman and Johnson, 1993), increase satisfaction of selecting from many options when given a decision that is normally done by the company (Polman, 2012) and create an attachment to that option (Carmon, Wertenbroch, & Zeelenberg, 2003) that lead to more positive evaluations of the chosen cause. Additionally, research demonstrates that allowing consumers to choose a cause from a list increases purchase likelihood (Robinson et

al., 2012) and product choice probabilities (Arora & Henderson, 2007), two outcomes that are strengthened when giving consumers unrestricted choices.

Although a large set of options to choose from may seem initially more appealing to consumers, in the moment of purchase the likelihood to purchase a product is lower than when consumers face a small set of options, due to the reduction of consumers' intrinsic motivation to choose (Iyengar & Lepper, 2000). Moreover, choosing from a large set of options may increase feelings of regret and dissatisfaction (Iyengar & Lepper, 2000), due to increased responsibility of self-made choices and poor outcomes (Botti & McGill, 2006), a feeling enhanced by choosing from a choice set with several equally attractive options (Hedgcock & Rao, 2009).

Even though choice of cause in cause-related marketing campaigns may affect consumer reactions through these processes, research supports that, in general, these campaigns "result in more positive consumer attitudes towards a company and greater purchase likelihood for its products" (Robinson et al., 2012).

Thus, I hypothesize the following:

H1: Consumers display higher behavioural intentions (e.g. willingness to pay, purchase intentions, positive word-of-mouth, satisfaction, loyalty, bond to the company) when he can select the cause of a cause related marketing campaign will be higher.

Additionally, when choice of cause is added (instead of the company choosing the charity to which they donate), brand attachment is strengthened and positive purchase intentions are generated through enhancement of customers' perception of personal role (Robinson et al., 2012) because when given the choice, consumers believe they are "meaningful agents" perceiving greater personal causality (Botti & McGill, 2006) and generating more positive outcomes. Similarly, this effect can be explained because people are motivated to see themselves in a positive way which is accomplished by contributing to an act (Leary and Forsyth, 1987) and because people's own acts are more salient than others' acts (Ross and Sicoly, 1979), which are underweighted (Kruger and Savitsky, 2009).

Research shows evidence of consumers' positive attitudes simply by having the power to choose and customize. Results show that simply choosing the colour of a T-shirt by clicking on a few buttons on the website increases product evaluations through the "I designed it myself effect" (Franke, Keinz, & Steger, 2009).

Thus, I hypothesis the following:

H2: Consumers choice of the cause enhances perceptions of personal role, which will enhance consumers' behavioural intentions towards a company.

2.9 Consumer perceptions related with the type of cause: Personal Relevance

Although it may seem logical that individuals who are more involved with a cause should be more willing to like and participate in campaigns, there is little academic work on this subject (Grau et al., 2007).

The elaboration likelihood model is a dual process theory that aims to explain different ways of processing a persuasive message and allows to understand personal relevance in cause-related marketing. The model draws on the likelihood of a consumer to think exhaustively in a persuasive message or, on the other hand, to focus on peripheral cues. The likelihood of a consumer to elaborate on the message depends on the consumers' motivation, ability and opportunity to think deeply about the central features of a message and to compare different information. If the consumer is motivated, able and cares about the issue, he will be more willing to elaborate and spend considerable time to evaluate the arguments of the persuasive message. However, when the consumer does not have the motivation or ability to think about the message, focus will be given to surface features, such as the communicator's attractiveness or the number of arguments (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), an outcome that will be more likely for consumers less involved with the cause compared to consumers more involved with the cause.

Personal relevance is defined as "the level of perceived personal importance and/or interest evoked by a stimulus within a specific situation (Antil, 1984), and is based on inherent needs, values and interests (Zaichkowsky, 1985)". This personal relevance can be a result of past experiences with the cause (e.g. relative has cancer) or part of the consumer self-concept (e.g. environmentally conscious people are likely to find recycling programs more personally relevant) (Grau et al., 2007).

An example of a CM campaign that account for personal relevance was Avon (Campaign for the Cure) aligned with the Susan G. Komen Breast Cancer Research Foundation as the research it provides is relevant to their primary target of women (Grau et al., 2007). The campaign was launched in 1992 and over 25 years, Avon and the Avon Foundation for Women have contributed more than \$800 million to breast cancer causes, educated 180 million women about this disease, and funded breast health screenings for nearly 20 million women. It is impossible to isolate the effect of the campaign to the company but Bhattacharya and Sen

(2004) state that related campaigns may not only influence customers' perceptions and behaviours towards the company but also enhance their attitudes towards the issue of the cause, a factor that is supported by the amount of money raised by Avon (see Appendix A for the campaign).

Research suggest that higher levels of involvement motivate consumers to form more enduring attitudes and behave accordingly [Andrews, Durvasula and Akhter 1990; Petty and Cacioppo 1979]. More recent research demonstrates that consumers more involved with the cause tend to be more interested in participating to help the cause and have more positive attitudes towards the campaign than less involved consumers (Grau et al., 2007).

Thus, I can hypothesis the following:

H3: Consumer who perceive the cause has more personally relevant will display higher campaign attitudes (more positive feelings) and participation intentions than consumers who perceive the cause as less personally relevant.

2.10 Personal relevance and congruency

Congruency in cause-related marketing campaigns refer to the perceived link between cause's needs and the company's product line, brand image, brand positioning or target market (A. Menon, 1988). Other definition states that congruence relates to the extent to which a cause has strong connections with the firm core business (Simmons & Becker-olsen, 2006). The congruence variable has two valences, and it can either be (1) high-fit or (2) low-fit.

There is a difference between personal relevance and fit. While personal relevance is a relationship between consumer and cause, congruency is a relationship between company and cause. In the example of Avon, the variable personal relevance is much more visible has breast cancer is a personal relevant issue for every consumer of the brand despite of the degree of extent (women are the target). On the other hand, an example of congruence is Company X, a company that sells notebooks and either gives 5% of the sales to environmental-related causes (low-fit) or to education-related causes (high-fit) (Robinson et al., 2012), despite the level of personal relevance.

With this distinction and the success example of Avon my last hypothesis go as follows:

H4: Campaign attitudes and participation intentions will be higher when the cause target is the same as the target of the company.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Design

I conducted face-to-face interviews to make basic inferences on willingness to pay, purchase likelihood and campaign participation intentions. According to Opdenakker (2006), the major strengths of this method are: (1) the possibility of taking advantage of social cues, such as voice and body language; (2) no time delays between question and answer with the possibility of instant reaction, making answers more spontaneous and without much reflection.

Nonetheless, face-to-face interviews also have disadvantages. The main disadvantages are the costs and the time needed to implement these interviews which results in less answers than other methods.

To further analyse my hypothesis, I conducted online surveys. According to Evans & Mathur (2005), the major strengths of this kind of research format are global reach, speed and flexibility. There are billions of internet users globally, especially in industrialized countries as it is the case of Portugal, which withdraws the basic drawback of lack of representativeness and provides easiness to obtain a large sample. Additionally, online surveys can be time-efficient as internet allows for a real-time access for interaction, minimizing the time for data collection, they can be conducted in several formats (e.g. e-mail and link) and easily adapted to participant demographics, language and purchase experience. There are other advantages according to Mathur and Evans (2005). These advantages include the possibility to require completion of answers, control answer order, the ease to follow-up the answers, question diversity, low administration cost and convenience.

Thus, because of time constraints and the necessity of a large number of answers to do a proper analysis of my hypothesis, I ran an online survey in Qualtrics. One important aspect was the randomization of scenarios made possible in this online program because it reduces bias and increases the likelihood that the groups are similar, on average. Nonetheless, random assignment is not guaranteed to control all external and irrelevant variables across conditions, because, just by chance, the participants in one condition might be older, less tired, more motivated or less depressed than the participants submitted to other condition. However, random assignment works very well, especially for large samples, and even if it does not work, the error will be detected when the experiment is replicated.

There are also disadvantages of running an online survey. Mathur and Evans (2005) state that this kind of research method can have unclear answering instructions, skewed

attributes of internet population (e.g. gender, age), privacy issues and some people may lack online expertise. Additionally, the response rate (conversion rate from receiving and finishing the survey) is lower than in other methods (Manfreda & Haas, 2008).

3.2 Control Variables: Campaign Structural Elements

There are factors in the campaign that influence the perceptions of the consumers and, in turn, the image they have of a company engaging in cause related marketing campaigns. These factors can be divided in: (1) Campaign Structural Elements and (2) Consumer Traits.

In what regards to campaign structural elements, prior work demonstrates the benefits of specific types of donations (e.g. product versus money) (Ellen, Mohr, & Webb, 2000; Garretson and Landreth, 2005), product type (e.g. hedonic vs utilitarian) (Strahilevitz & Myers, 1998), donation amount (Dahl and Lavack, 1995; Polonsky and Speed, 2001), donation quantifier types (e.g. donation as an abstract portion of sales or concrete dollar amount) (Pracejus & Olsen, 2004), disclosure, campaign deadlines, donation caps (Polonsky and Speed, 2001) and congruence/fit between firms, causes and consumers (e.g. Ellen et al., 2000; Menon & Kahn, 2003) in affecting consumer perceptions.

These factors were not addressed in this paper, thus the type of donation, amount of donation and donation quantifier type should be the same for every cause.

There are campaign factors that are influenced by the type of company/product and these factors need to be studied with the objective of selecting a company that reduces bias. These factors are type of product (hedonic vs utilitarian) and congruence between company and cause (high vs low).

Type of Product

Product can either be (1) hedonic or (2) utilitarian. Hedonic products are described as pleasure-oriented consumption that is motivated by the desire of sensual pleasure, fantasy and fun while utilitarian products are described as goal-oriented consumption motivated by the desire to fill a basic need or accomplish a functional task (Strahilevitz & Myers, 1998).

This stream of research suggests that charity incentives are more effective in promoting hedonic products than utilitarian products because the complementarity of feelings generated from hedonic consumption (likely to induce guilt) and the utility from contributing to a good cause (likely to reduce guilt) (Strahilevitz & Myers, 1998).

Nonetheless, for a specific type of hedonic products, the luxury products category, the presence of CSR information decline brand evaluation because there will be a conflict between the motivations triggered by this brand concepts and those activated by CSR (Torelli & Kaikati, 2012). More specifically, the self-enhancement associated with luxury brands will conflict with the self-transcendence values triggered at the same time by CSR which leads to less favourable attitude towards a persuasive message because of goal disparity (Cesario, Grant, & Higgins, 2004).

Thus, given that previous research has shown that cause-related marketing is more likely to impact hedonic, as opposed to utilitarian products either positively or negatively I will focus this research on a hedonic brand in line with prior research (Pracejus & Olsen, 2004).

Congruence between firm and cause

Prior research on the field, states that if the fit between cause and company is high then the company is likely to be more capable of helping the cause through transferability of expertise, synergies, products, technologies, markets (Rumelt, 1974), skills and activities (Porter, 1987) reinforcing the positioning of the company (Simmons & Becker-olsen, 2006). This effect was further tested with consumers responding more positively to high-fit between company and cause as consumers give more money to high-fit causes than low-fit causes (Pracejus & Olsen, 2004).

However more recent research argues that when the consumer can choose the cause to which the company will donate, consumers prefer low-fit causes (the purchase intention to buy the product is higher) because it provides them greater responsibility and greater personal role (Robinson et al., 2012). To account for this factor a pretest¹ was made.

Brand Image

Research showed that when brand image is negative adding the opportunity for the consumer to choose the cause of a cause related marketing campaign fails to improve brand outcomes and can even backfire because consumers want to keep their distance to these brands. For neutral and positive image brands giving the consumer the opportunity to choose may benefit as much or more than having the campaign itself (Kull & Heath, 2016). To account for this factor, I created a new company ensuring neutral brand image.

¹ Participants were asked perceived fit for 12 causes. The causes were divided into three terciles.

Number of Choices

The variable number of choices can have two valences: (1) restricted choices and (2) unrestricted choices. (Kull & Heath, 2016).

To isolate the effect of personal relevance and choice in our studies, the number of causes was predefined to four following similar studies (e.g. Robinson et al., 2012).

Consumers may find a company more social responsible if they are involved with four charities rather than one (Robinson et al., 2012), thus when the company chooses the cause, it chooses from the same list of options as the list of the consumer choice.

3.3 Scale

The scale used in measuring data was the numerical Likert-type scaling, with a 1-7 points scale. The advantages of using this scale are, above all, simplicity and versatility because of three main reasons: (1) this scale can be universally applicable which means that it measure very diverse topics; (2) provided that the response option covered the negative-to-positive dimension, the wording can be changed, for example a scale can measure opinions from “disagree strongly” to “agree strongly” or from “strongly disapprove” to “strongly approve”; and (3) because of the comparability of scales from question to question, the same numerical codes can be assigned and this codes can be averaged to give an indication of each participant overall positive or negative orientation towards the topic. While Likert in his 1932 paper used a 5 scale, there is no theoretical rule to leave out different lengths of response scales, but research suggests that data from Likert items become significantly less accurate when the number of scale points drop below five or above seven. Additionally, Symonds (1924) suggested that the reliability of the scale is optimized with seven response categories and Lewis (1993) found that 7-point scales resulted in stronger correlations with t-tests. Based on these findings, on the scale of previous papers I based my studies on, and because a 7-point scale offers more variety of answers than a 5-point scale I will use this scale on all my Likert-type questions.

Lastly, in some cases I use a single-item question to measure a variable of analysis. The use of this method can bring reliability issues. Nonetheless, the reason behind the usage of this type of questions was to comply with previous research where I based my studies and because some research finds single-item questions reliable, as the introduction of synonymous-answer items produces problems (Bergkvist and Rossiter, 2007).

3.4 Field Study

3.4.1 Sample and Procedure

I first conducted a field study to test the prediction that consumers have more positive attitudes, translated in more willingness to pay, higher campaign participation intentions and higher purchase likelihood, when they choose the charity that will receive the donation (vs when the company chooses the charity).

42 adults participated in the field study with mean age approximately 24 years. 60% were male and 40% were female.

The product stimuli for the field test was chocolates, which was one of the hedonic categories identified by Strahilevitz and Meyers (1998). A question was asked on consumer willingness to pay for a bag of M&Ms. The product didn't have a price tag, so consumers paid as much as they wanted for them. Then participants were asked about the campaign participation intentions by randomly presenting respondents with one of two scenarios. One group was told that 5% of the sales would be donated to the charity of M&M's choice from a list of four charities while a second group was told that 5% of the sales would be donated and the consumer could choose from the same list of four charities chosen in a pretest².

3.4.2 Measures

Variable	Scholar	Questions	Scale
WTP	(Robinson et al., 2012)	How much have you paid for the bag of M&Ms?	-
Purchase Intentions	(Robinson et al., 2012)	How likely are you to buy the bag of M&Ms?	1= "extremely unlikely", 7 = "extremely likely"

² A pretest was conducted to account for the effects of perceived fit, importance of the causes and brand image. 21 participants answered two questions on cause importance and two questions on perceived fit from 12 preselected causes (see Appendix B) and two questions on brand image following the pretest questions of Grau and Folse (2007) and Robinson et al (2012). The causes were divided into terciles of importance and the causes in the middle tercile were selected with one exception that scored the lowest in fit. This cause was replaced by the most important cause in the bottom tercile.

Campaign Participation Intentions	(Grau et al., 2007)	I would be willing to participate in this cause related marketing campaign.	1 = “strongly disagree”, 7 = “strongly agree”
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Table 2 - Measures used in the field study

3.4.3 Results

To test H1 we run three independent t-tests to compare the means on willingness to pay, purchase likelihood and campaign participation intentions (dependent variables) between a group of participants that had the possibility of selecting the cause to which the company would donate the money and between a group of participants without that opportunity (independent variables).

The amount of money given was fictitious because I wasn't selling the bag of M&Ms. Instead I was asking in individual interviews the amount of money participants were willing to pay. Thus, participants were not constrained by purchase capacity and three extreme values were given in the sample. These values were outliers, considering the outlier labelling rule (Hoaglin, Iglewicz & Tukey, 1986) and the analyses of the histogram and the stem-and-leaf plot produced in SPSS (see appendix D). Outliers can influence diverse highly sensitive parametric statistics, like means, standard deviations and correlations. Although data should not be excluded just because they are outliers, the lack of restraint in purchase capacity and the unrealistic scenario of a company selling a bag of M&Ms for 20€ makes me remove the outliers from the analysis.

The objective of the independent t-test is to check for H1, testing if giving the cause to the consumer will result in a statistically significant difference in product willingness to pay, purchase likelihood and campaign participation intentions compared to when the company chooses the cause.

Group Statistics				
Variable	Scenario	# obs.	Mean	St. Deviation
WTP	Choice	21	4,1571	1,24843
	No choice	21	3,1667	1,16548
	Choice	21	4,95	1,717

Purchase likelihood	No choice	21	4,33	1,713
Campaign participation intentions	Choice	21	5,38	1,465
	No choice	21	5,19	1,438

Table 3 - Frequency statistics output field study measures

Independent t-test				
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
WTP	Equal variances assumed	2,658	40	0,011
Purchase likelihood	Equal variances assumed	1,170	40	0,249
Campaign participation intentions	Equal variances assumed	0,425	40	0,673

Table 4 - Independent t-tests output field study measures

The t-test showed that, for cause related marketing campaigns, consumers are willing to pay more for the same product, when they have the possibility to select the cause to which the proceeds will be donated (Mchoice = 4,16, Mnochoice = 3,17; $t(40) = 2,658$, $p < 0.05$). This difference is statistically significant, $p < 0.05$ and we reject the null hypothesis of no difference between the means of the amount of money given for the bag of M&M's when participants could choose versus when participants could not choose.

The following t-tests showed that, for cause related marketing campaigns, consumers are likely to purchase the same product with more probability, when they have the possibility to select the cause to which the proceeds will be donated to: (Mchoice = 4,95, Mnochoice = 4,33; $t(40) = 1,170$, $p > 0.05$) and consumers are also more likely to participate in the campaign when they have the possibility to select the cause to which the proceeds will be donated to (Mchoice = 5,38, Mnochoice = 5,19; $t(40) = 0,425$, $p > 0.05$). However, the difference between

means are not statistically significant and we cannot reject the null hypothesis of no difference between the population means.

It is not clear whether we have evidence on H1. It seems that for a donation amount of 100% consumers draw significantly more positive outcomes when they can select the cause and when the donation amount is 5% we don't have evidence on more positive outcomes with choice. This can be due to the variable personal role (Robinson et al., 2012) which can enhance positive outcomes when the consumer feels they are adding more value to the cause. A further quantitative study will analyse the outcomes for a donation amount of 10%.

3.5 Quantitative Study

3.5.1 Sample

In order to further understand H1, H2 and H3, a quantitative research in the format of an online survey based on questions of former studies was made. The survey will feature a fictitious firm with the objective of ensuring greater experimental control as existing firms and brands might create unexplained differences based on consumer perception and image of known brands and firms (Grau et al., 2007). The product stimuli was a theme park company called "Funlandia". The reason behind the choice of a theme parks was because it was one of the hedonic categories identified by Strahilevitz and Myers (1998) and because theme parks were already used in the study of Pracejus and Olsen (2004).

117 adults participated in study 2 with mean age = 24 years. 52% were males and 48% were females. The survey was shared via social media, using Facebook.

3.5.2 Procedure

Participants started by reading an introductory text about the company: "Funlandia is a theme park for children and teenagers, with an educational space where they can attend theatres, magic shows, listen to book readings and play professions and a radical space with roller coasters, inflatable castles and giant slides."

Participants were told that "Funlandia" launched a campaign where they give a percentage of the earnings from the sales of their tickets back to the community. Participants were randomly assigned to one of three scenarios: in scenario 1 the company chooses the cause to which they will donate from a list of four medium (in the middle tercile) importance causes; in scenario 2 the consumer could choose the cause to which the company will donate from the same list of four medium important causes; in scenario 3 the consumer could choose the cause

to which the company will donate from a list of four higher (in the top tercile) importance causes (see Appendix E). The level of cause importance was informed from the results of the pretest.

Participants were questioned about their perceived personal role, perceived involvement with the donation process and perceived control over the donation process. Then participants were asked about their participation intentions, namely about campaign attitude, bond between company and consumer, loyalty, word-of-mouth, purchase intentions and willingness to pay.

3.5.3 Measures

To ensure the credibility of my scale for multiple-item questions I will use the Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha is an estimate of the internal consistency associated with a Likert-scale for a multiple-item question to analyse one possible outcome. All scales with an alpha greater than 0.7 are generally accepted by researchers (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). If the alpha on some of my scale should be improved for higher reliability than some items will be deleted. This analysis is very important because without reliability there is no validity in the tests.

Reliability Statistics		
Variable	Cronbach's alpha	# of items
Personal Role	0,876	3
Bond towards company	0,899	2
Campaign participation Intentions	0,707	3
Attitude towards company	0,925	4

Table 5 - Reliability test output

The measures used to test the dependent variables are summarized in the table:

Variable	Scholar	Questions	Scale
Personal Relevance (Manipulation Check)	(Grau et al., 2007)	The causes Funlandia are supporting are personally relevant to me (causes changes from scenario to scenario)	1= “strongly disagree”, 7 = “strongly agree”
Personal Role	(Robinson et al., 2012)	To what extent do you feel you are adding value to the cause	1= “not at all”, 7 = “very much”
		To what extent do you feel you helped the cause	
		To what extent do you feel you contributed to the cause?	
Perceived control over the donation process	(Robinson et al., 2012)	Concerning the donation process, how much control did you feel you had?	1 = “no control at all”, 7 = “total control”
Involvement with the donation process	(Robinson et al., 2012)	To what extent did you feel involved with Funlandia’s donation campaign?	1= “not involved at all”, 7 = “involved very much”
Campaign participation Intentions	(Grau et al., 2007)	To what extent do you consider you are willing to participate in this campaign?	1= “not at all”, 7 = “very much”
		I would consider purchasing the ticket to provide help for the cause.	1= “strongly disagree”, 7 = “strongly agree”
		It is likely that I would contribute to this cause by	

		getting involved in this campaign.	
Attitudes towards the company	(Grau et al., 2007)	My attitude towards Funlandia is:	1= “very negative”, 7 = “very positive”
		My attitude towards Funlandia is:	1= “very unfavorable”, 7 = “very favorable”
		My attitude towards Funlandia is:	1= “dislike very much”, 7 = “like very much”
		Funlandia is:	1= “not interesting at all”, 7 = “very interesting”
Loyalty	(Fuchs & Schreier, 2011)	I most likely see myself as a loyal customer of the company in the future	1= “strongly disagree”, 7 = “strongly agree”
Bond with the company	(Fuchs & Schreier, 2011)	I feel strongly committed to Funlandia	1= “strongly disagree”, 7 = “strongly agree”
		I feel a strong bond with Funlandia	
World-of-mouth	(Fuchs & Schreier, 2011)	I would recommend Funlandia to a friend.	1= “strongly disagree”, 7 = “strongly agree”

Table 6 - Measures used in quantitative study

4. Findings

4.1 Mediating factor of personal role, control, involvement

To test H2, I ran a MANOVA with personal role, perceived control over the donation process and involvement in the campaign as dependent variables and the different scenarios as the fixed factor for the analysis. In scenario 1, the participant cannot choose the cause and the causes are in the middle tercile of importance according to pretest 1. In scenario 2, the participant can choose a cause from the same middle tercile of importance causes according to pretest 1. Finally, in scenario 3, the participant can choose a cause from the top tercile of importance causes according to pretest 1. The MANOVA will make three one-way ANOVAS for each variable.

As it is visible in the table, the involvement and personal role are higher when participants could not choose the cause, rather than when they could choose, which is surprising. The difference between means is low in every dependent variable which is a hint for statistically insignificant differences between the three scenarios on these dependent variables.

Descriptive Statistics				
Variable	Scenario	Mean	St. Deviation	# observations
Personal Role	No choice medium importance causes	5,3889	0,82999	36
	Choice medium importance causes	5,1111	0,85820	36
	Choice high importance causes	5,0296	1,24483	45
Perceived control over the donation process	No choice medium importance causes	3,92	2,034	36

	Choice medium importance causes	4,19	1,508	36
	Choice high importance causes	4,18	2,003	45
Involvement in the campaign	No choice medium importance causes	4,72	1,485	36
	Choice medium importance causes	4,47	1,502	36
	Choice high importance causes	4,53	1,854	45

Table 7 - Descriptive statistics per scenario for personal role, control over the donation process and perceive involvement

MANOVA						
Origin	Dependent variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Scenario	Personal Role	2,734	2	1,367	1,320	0,271
	Perceived control over the donation process	1,803	2	0,901	0,256	0,774

	Involvement in the campaign	1,238	2	0,619	0,230	0,795
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Table 8 - MANOVA output for differences between scenarios for personal role, control over the donation process and perceive involvement

For perceived control over the donation process, although the level for when the participant can choose the cause is higher than when the participant has no choice, this has not reached significance values ($M_{\text{control_nochoice_mediumimportance}} = 3,92$, $M_{\text{control_choice_mediumimportance}} = 4,19$, $p > 0,05$). Many reasons can explain this surprising outcome: having a limited list of causes instead of unrestricted choice (Kull & Heath, 2016), a limited interaction in the process, only buying the product and selecting the cause (Iyengar & Lepper, 2000) or due to scepticism on the campaign itself, and that the company has a profit motivation instead of an altruistic motivation (Webb & Mohr, 1998). Even if none of the alternative explanations is correct, what is visible in these results is that the choice factor alone is not enough to increase significantly the perception of control by the participants, not verifying H2.

Moreover, respondents reported similar levels of involvement in the campaign in a choice and no choice scenario, ($M_{\text{control_nochoice_mediumimportance}} = 4,72$, $M_{\text{control_choice_mediumimportance}} = 4,47$, $M_{\text{control_choice_highimportance}} = 4,53$) which indicates that with a cause-related marketing campaign the participants feel slightly involved by giving the money, but choice is not sufficient for a significant increase/decrease in involvement. Similarly, for the variable personal role, results show that the choice possibility is not sufficient for a significant increase/decrease on perceived help, value added and contribution to the cause, which implies that the simple factor of giving a percentage of the money to a cause independent of choosing or not the cause, is enough for participants to perceive a moderate personal role (mean = 5.03).

Thus, these results mean that the choice factor alone is not responsible for an increase in the perceptions of perceived control, involvement and personal role in the donation process, thus rejecting H2.

4.3 Outcomes for the consumer in different scenarios

A manipulation check to verify if the manipulation of personal relevance was successful was made in study 2 by asking the same question across the different scenarios.

An ANOVA with scenario 1 (no choice medium importance), scenario 2 (choice medium importance) and scenario 3 (choice high importance) as the independent variables and personal relevance as the dependent variable revealed that there is no significant change on personal relevance of causes between the three scenarios: $M_{\text{scenario1}} = 5,64$, $M_{\text{scenario2}} = 5,47$, $M_{\text{scenario3}} = 5,89$; $F(2,114) = 1,245$, $p > 0.05$. As the p value is higher than 0.05, I cannot reject the null hypothesis that the population means for the three scenarios are not all equal.

Thus, I was unsuccessful in my manipulation despite the higher value of personal relevance of cause attributed to scenario 3, which was in line with pretest 1. This means that I cannot study H3 and any further analysis would be irrelevant. Nonetheless, for the purposes of this thesis I will proceed with the analyses.

Descriptive Statistics							
Variable Personal Relevance							
				Confidence Interval 95%			
	N	Mean	St. Deviation	Inf. Limit	Sup. Limit	Min	Max
No choice medium importance	36	5,64	1,175	5,24	6,04	3	7
Choice medium importance	36	5,47	1,253	5,05	5,90	2	7
Choice high importance	45	5,89	1,172	5,54	6,24	2	7
Total	117	5,68	1,201	5,46	5,90	2	7

Table 9 - Descriptive statistics manipulation check

ANOVA					
Variable Personal Relevance					
	Sum of Squares	df	Medium Square	Z	Sig.
Between groups	3,577	2	1,788	1,245	0,292
Within groups	163,722	114	1,436		
Total	167,299	116			

Table 10 - ANOVA output manipulation check

Even though my treatment failed and there is no significant difference for personal relevance between different causes, the outcomes will be analysed considering this difference and H3 will be tested, with 30% chance of making a mistake.

For the dependent variables campaign participation intentions and attitude towards the company, I ran individual ANOVAs.

Descriptive Statistics							
Variable Campaign Participation Intentions							
				Confidence Interval 95%			
	N	Mean	St. Deviation	Inf. Limit	Sup. Limit	Min	Max
No choice medium importance	36	5,4213	1,12086	5,0421	5,8005	3	7
Choice medium importance	36	4,9537	1,16334	4,5601	5,3473	2	7
Choice high importance	45	4,8593	1,34931	4,4539	5,2646	2	7

Total	117	5,0613	1,24002	4,8342	5,2883	2	7
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Table 11 - Descriptive statistics per scenario for the consumer participation intentions

ANOVA					
Variable Campaign Participation Intentions					
	Sum of Squares	df	Medium Square	Z	Sig.
Between groups	6,919	2	3,460	2,300	0,105
Within groups	171,447	114	1,504		
Total	178,367	116			

Table 12 - ANOVA output for differences between scenarios for consumer campaign participation intentions

It seems that without choice the campaign participation intentions are higher than when there is choice, regardless of personal relevance of the causes, as the values for scenario 2 and scenario 3 are very close. Nonetheless, the difference is not statistically significant ($M_{\text{nochoice_mediumimportance}} = 5,4213$, $M_{\text{choice_mediumimportance}} = 4,9537$, $M_{\text{choice_highimportance}} = 4,8593$; $F(2,114) = 2,300$, $p > 0.05$). As the p value is higher than 0.05, and I cannot reject the null hypothesis that the population means for the three scenarios are not all equal.

Descriptive Statistics							
Variable Attitude towards the Company							
				Confidence Interval 95%			
	N	Mean	St. Deviation	Inf. Limit	Sup. Limit	Min	Max
No choice medium importance	36	5,4514	0,91772	5,1409	5,7619	4	7

Choice medium importance	36	5,0417	0,80733	4,7685	5,3148	4	6,75
Choice high importance	45	5,3889	1,04114	5,0761	5,7017	2,75	7
Total	117	5,3013	0,94489	5,1283	5,4743	2,75	7

Table 13 - Descriptive statistics per scenario for attitudes towards the company

ANOVA					
Variable Attitudes towards the Company					
	Sum of Squares	df	Medium Square	Z	Sig.
Between groups	3,583	2	1,791	2,043	0,134
Within groups	99,984	114	0,877		
Total	103,567	116			

Table 14 - ANOVA output for differences between scenarios for attitudes towards the company

Similarly, the difference for the variable attitude towards the company is not statistically significant $M_{nochoice_mediumimportance} = 5,4514$, $M_{choice_mediumimportance} = 5,0417$, $M_{choice_highimportance} = 5,3889$; $F(2,114) = 2,043$, $p > 0.05$. As the p value is higher than 0.05, and I cannot reject the null hypothesis that the population means for the three scenarios are not all equal, although in my sample the lowest number was for choice with medium personal relevance.

Moreover, according to the literature review, traditional co-design also increases the outcomes for the general consumer of positive word-of-mouth, loyalty and bond (Fuchs & Schreier, 2011). These outcomes were never studied from the co-creation of social responsibility through cause-related marketing campaigns with choice side. To make this analysis I will run a MANOVA.

Descriptive Statistics				
Variable	Scenario	Mean	St. Deviation	# observations
Loyalty	No choice medium importance causes	4,08	1,746	36
	Choice medium importance causes	3,83	1,363	36
	Choice high importance causes	3,80	1,740	45
Recommendation Likelihood	No choice medium importance causes	5,11	1,326	36
	Choice medium importance causes	4,94	1,393	36
	Choice high importance causes	5,24	1,369	45
Bond	No choice medium importance causes	3,4583	1,75814	36
	Choice medium importance causes	3,6111	1,29896	36

	Choice high importance causes	3,5889	1,71983	45
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Table 15 - Descriptive statistics per scenario for loyalty, recommendation likelihood and bond with the company

MANOVA						
Origin	Dependent variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Scenario	Loyalty	1,819	2	0,910	0,340	0,712
	Recommendation Likelihood	1,800	2	0,900	0,485	0,617
	Bond	0,501	2	0,251	0,096	0,908

Table 16 - MANOVA output for differences between scenarios for loyalty, recommendation likelihood and bond with the company

Consumers show less intentions to develop bond and loyalty towards the company than for recommending the company. However, the analysis of these additional variables brings the same conclusion as the variables participation intentions and attitude towards the company, that I cannot reject the null hypothesis that the population means for the three scenarios for all the variables are not all equal ($p > 0.05$ for all variables).

Looking at all the results from the one-way ANOVAs and the MANOVA, results do not provide evidence to support H1 and H3, meaning that the choice factor alone is not responsible for a statistically significant difference on more positive outcomes.

4.4 Pretest of H4 – Mediating factor of target

The pretest was conducted in 31 adults and consisted in asking two questions, one about the fit and the other about the target on four previously selected causes, breast cancer, prostate cancer, Unicef and Red Cross for a fictitious company Babyron (see appendix G for description). The output from one sample t-tests showed that participants give more fit to Banco Alimentar contra a Fome, $t(30) = 5,094$, $p = 0$ and Unicef, $t(30) = 7,226$, $p = 0$ when compared to Cancro da Mama, $t(30) = 1,697$, $p = 0,1$ and Cancro da Próstata, $t(30) = -0,533$, $p = 0,598$ (see

appendix H). The output of a χ^2 analysis on the target variable revealed that 67,7% of the participants can correctly identify that the target of Babyron are the parents ($p < .05$).

No further study was made to test H4 because the lack of significant results for the previous tests.

5. Discussion

This study analyses factors that influence the efficiency of cause related marketing. The topic of cause related marketing with choice is gaining significance due to the percentage of promotions that companies are forced to practise in the market. So, understanding the potential benefits for companies in pursuing promotional strategies that include the benefits of co-creation and corporate social responsibility (Kull & Heath, 2016) need further attention.

The main takeaway of this paper is the understanding that giving choice to consumers on cause related marketing campaigns is not as robust in producing positive results as we have argued, even for different levels of personally relevant causes. Our results did not find statistical evidence for differences in purchase intentions, word-of-mouth, satisfaction, loyalty and bond between the group of participants that could choose the cause and the group of participants that could not choose the cause for a donation amount of 5% and 10% of the proceeds.

The results suggest that the donation amount is the most important factor for companies in cause related marketing with choice in changing the perception of the consumer towards the company responsible for the campaign and towards the campaign itself. I draw this conclusion from the results of both the field study and the survey. When the donation amount is high enough, participants perceive a higher personal role and are willing to pay significantly more when they can choose the cause to which they donate to. However, when the amount is low, some people prefer not to choose at all, making the co-creation element fruitless.

Thus, the positive outcomes for consumers from the altruistic behaviour of donating in cause-related marketing can be enhanced with the variable choice when the donation amount is high enough for consumer to perceive a high level of personal role.

5.1 Alternative Explanations

These results are not consistent with my hypothesis and from the findings of other scholars when testing the effects of the variable choice on cause related marketing campaigns (e.g. Robinson, Irmak & Jayachandran, 2012).

One explanation could be on the different demographics for each scenario. After analysing the demographics of age and gender this factor was ruled out. The mean age for scenario 1 was 25, for scenario 2 was also 25 and for scenario 3 was 23. The percentage of male participants per scenario were approximately, 46%, 61% and 48% respectively. (see appendix E).

Past studies have shown that choices are difficult and often lead to irrational behaviour from consumers (Ariely, 2008). Choice overload (Iyengar & Lepper, 2000) is a process in which it is much harder for people to decide when presented with many options. Although, previous research on the mediating effect of choice overload ruled out this explanation as increasing the number of cause options to as many as 48, neither strengthens nor weakens the positive effects of giving the possibility of the consumer to select the cause in a cause related marketing campaign (Kull & Heath, 2016). Nevertheless, other biases that can influence these results. Post-decision dissonance is a feeling of anxiety over whether or not the correct decision was made which is more likely to occur when more than one alternative is attractive, and the decision is important (Hoyer, MacInnis and Pieters, 2013). Post-decision regret is a feeling that the consumer should have chosen another option, which can happen with post-information on the performance of the choice versus the alternatives or even without information, especially when the choice is irreversible (Hoyer, MacInnis and Pieters, 2013). Because there are very similar attractive options (the causes score very similar in personal relevance) and the choice is irreversible, both the biases could explain the results.

Redelmeier and Shafir (1995) made an experiment with a group of physicians. The physicians were presented a case study of a middle-age man whose right hip is been hurting for a very long time, every medication was tried and now he has referred the patient for hip replacement surgery. Half the physicians were told that they forgot to try ibuprofen on the patient and then were asked if they would let the patient proceed with surgery or would be pulled back to try the drug. The other half were told that they forgot to try ibuprofen and piroxicam and then were asked the same question with the addition of which drug would they give to the patient. In the first scenario, most of the doctors pulled the patient back, while in the second scenario most of the doctors let the patient have the surgery. This means that even experts are unable to overcome contextual decision biases. An additional choice option changed completely the outcome of the decision because in the second scenario pulling the patient back is more difficult as there is one more decision to make. This example can have a parallelism with my study: consumers must choose between buying or not buying the product I describe and for the scenarios where participants must choose the cause, the additional choice makes the decision process much more complex.

Another consideration are the cultural differences between the US, where previous research showed statistically significant results, and Portugal. According to Hofstede (1980), there are six cultural dimensions for individual societies. The dimension that can explain this

difference of results between different cultures is individualism. Individualism is defined by Hofstede as the degree of interdependence among the members of a society, or, the extent to which people are concerned with themselves or with others. In this dimension, the US is one of the most individualistic societies, with a score of 91 while Portugal is collectivist with a score of 27. According to the literature, there are studies supporting more positive outcomes in cause related marketing campaigns for collectivists (Robinson et al., 2012) based on the argument that the choice factor enhances the perception of personal role by the participant. Although, because in my study, the factor choice does not rise the perceptions of personal role, it makes more sense to support the argument that individualists favour personal choices because it allows them to match their preferences with the provided causes (Iyengar & Lepper, 2000). Thus, if the proposition that the personal role does not change with the choice factor alone, the collectivism argument loses his relevance and only individualists will draw higher outcomes from choice, which explains the statistically significant outcomes for the US.

Finally, in line with the cultural explanation is the fact that all the statistically insignificant results were given for scenarios where the percentage of the donation to the cause were 5% and 10% of the proceeds. It is possible that for Portuguese, this percentage is perceived as low, thus not having a significant increase in personal role, and finally making collectivists think they are not making a meaningful difference. To analyse this explanation, a pretest should be made in a future analysis for the impact of different percentages on the perception of personal role in the donation process.

5.2 Managerial Implications

Taking into consideration that my sample is representative of the millennials population in Portugal (only 5% accounted for people with age > 40) we can draw some managerial implications for companies on how to approach this target using cause related marketing campaigns.

It appears that cause related marketing campaigns, in general, bring positive outcomes for companies at the eyes of millennials in Portugal. However, companies should be aware that these outcomes are more short-term rather than long-term benefits. This conclusion is supported by the findings on this paper, where campaign participation intentions, attitude towards the campaign and recommendation of the company score much higher than loyalty and bond towards the company. This could mean that consumers would strongly consider participating in the campaign but would have reservations towards future commitment with the company.

Most importantly, it appears that the personal role variable and the co-creation element of choice have a very strong correlation. When the percentage of the donation is 5% and 10% there is no statistically significant difference between no choice and choice possibility in cause related marketing campaigns, but when the company give all the proceeds the conclusions change and there is a difference between choice and no choice. This translates in the most important implication of my research. There is no use in creating cause-related marketing campaigns if the consumer does not perceive the percentage of the donation as having an impact on the cause and the society.

5.3 Academic Implications

This paper adds to the personal relevance literature in cause related marketing campaigns (Grau & Folse, 2007) by finding that personal relevance by itself is not a determinant variable to change consumer outcomes towards a company engaging in cause related marketing campaigns with choice. This paper also adds to cause related marketing campaigns with choice literature by exploring, not only, the outcomes of the consumers towards companies already studied in this topics' body of literature (Robinson et al., 2012) but also the possible outcomes studied in co-designing (Fuchs & Schreier, 2011). This paper finds that the co-creation element of choice is not determinant in changing consumers' purchase likelihood, attitudes towards the company, loyalty, satisfaction and bond with the company for donation sizes of 5% and 10% but it is significant in consumers' willingness to pay for donation sizes of 100%.

Future research on the field is suggested in order to understand if choice in cause related marketing can increase firm profitability. Understanding the reasons behind the success in the US and the difference in outcomes between countries will enable the understanding of the key factors behind the success of such campaigns and the geographical perspective of possible expansion.

6. Limitations and Future Research

The results of the first pretest bring mean results that are very close, which could be due to the altruism of the consumers and their image about themselves that don't allow them to classify a cause as "not meaningful".

The bureaucracy of Católica don't allow the usage of the bar to run the experiment. Thus, I decided not to do a stand or use the bar in the University and instead I run individual interviews where I displayed the physical product. The prices given were fictitious as "bag of M&M" was only for display and I was not selling; thus, it might not be the true values that a consumer would give but only an intention, as participants were not constraint by purchase capacity.

The randomization of the scenarios was not totally effective, which means that there wasn't the same amount of people distributed in each scenario. The reason for this bias was the fact that some people opened the survey link and didn't complete the survey lowering the number of future people attributed with the same scenario (the randomization in Qualtrics was made to have the different scenarios appearing the same amount of times).

In the literature review, many advantages were linked to the use of cause-related marketing campaigns, even though this research could not replicate the findings. This brings the question of why this kind of campaigns are not more frequently used among companies. The amounts spent by these companies in promoting the campaigns tend to be substantially higher than the promised contribution for the cause.

For example, American Express Company launched a CM campaign where it promised to donate a penny to the renovation of the Statue of Liberty for each use of its card and a dollar for each new card issued in the U.S during the fourth quarter of 1983. American Express had a 28% increase in card usage over the same period in 1982 and a sizable increase in the number of new cards issued. This \$6 million national promotion campaign only resulted in a \$1.7 million contribution by American Express to the Statue of Liberty-Ellis Island Foundation (Wall, 1984).

This factor alone could bring the discussion to the topic of scepticism, a topic that can be analysed further for cause related marketing with choice.

Previous literature found that for some people the reservations towards cause related marketing campaigns are centred around four issues: (1) honesty of the promotion campaign,

which can be linked to a distrust of whether the company will actually donate anything or as much as it promised to the cause; (2) triviality of the donation, which can be linked to low amounts of money donated that don't create a significant impact, (3) fairness to the cause, which can be linked to the difference between the amount donated and the financial gain for the firm and (4) fairness to the consumer, which can be linked to the misuse of this campaigns to influence consumers to purchase products that are overpriced, have lower quality and that they don't need (Webb & Mohr, 1998).

Moreover, my manipulation on the variable personal relevance failed. Other aspects of this variable can be explored, because this variable gives the possibility to include other types of causes, an aspect given in the further research chapter of Grau and Folse (2007) paper and built on prior research of Menon and Kahn (2004) which include personal risk/pros and cons evaluations of a personal behaviour (e.g. antismoke campaign that address smokers) and compatibility of the cause with political and religious beliefs (e.g. "right to life").

Contextual factors should be looked at when using some of the previous findings in the literature to judge their validity. One possible way to do it is to recreate the same analysis in this paper for two different countries/cultures, one being collectivist and the other being individualist. In this new study, the cognitive biases can be considered using a manipulation check for the difficulty of choice or by changing the number of choices to less than four. Moreover, it should account for different percentages of proceeds (e.g. in the study of Strahilevitz, 1999 he uses 1%, 5%, 25% and 50% of the product price) to see the mediation effect of donation size in the variable personal role, control and involvement and consequently on the different outcomes for the consumer.

Further study to test for H4 need to be conducted. When accounting for personal relevance, and if the results show that all the four causes score almost the same in this variable (as I expect from pretest 1), then asking to which cause the participant will donate gives already an idea of the mediating effect of target and fit because both tests were statistically significant. Although, participants can have many different reasons to select a charity, which means the choice is not bounded to these mediating factors. Thus, I suggest a qualitative method, such as individual interviews to better understand the answer of the participants.

Appendix List

Appendix A: Avon Breast Cancer Crusade



AVON WILL DONATE 20% of net profits from breast cancer fundraising products—up to \$1 million during 2018—to support the Avon Breast Cancer Crusade programs in the U.S.

Appendix B: List of pre-selected 12 Causes

- Liga Portuguesa contra o Cancro
- Associação Portuguesa de Familiares e Amigos dos doentes de Alzheimer
- Associação Nacional de Ajuda aos Pobres
- Liga Portuguesa dos Direitos do Animal
- Comunidade vida e paz
- Banco Alimentar contra a Fome
- Terra dos Sonhos
- Associação de Apoio à Vítima
- Cruz Vermelha Portuguesa
- Associação Social Adventista
- Associação Portuguesa de Educação Ambiental
- Unicef

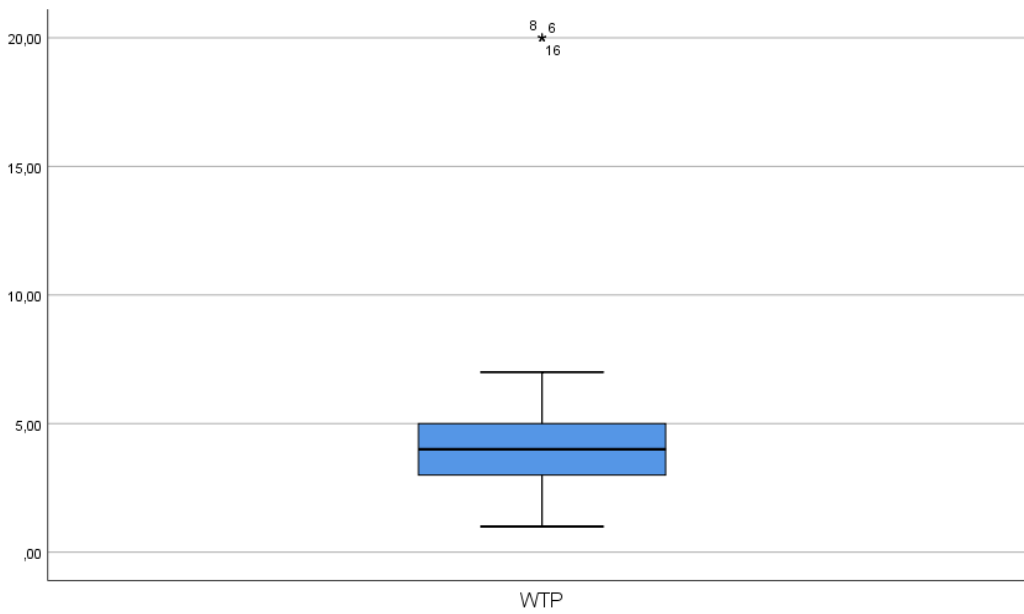
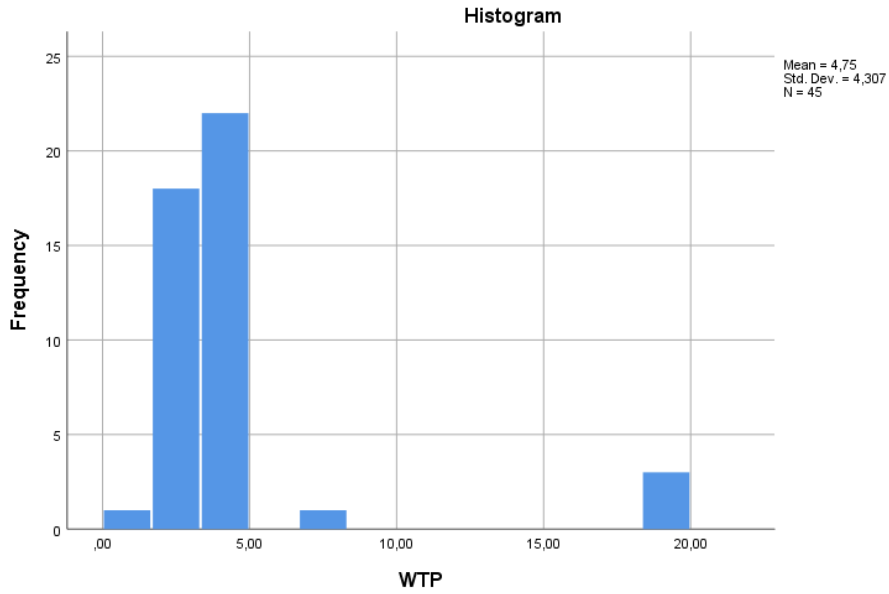
Appendix C: Output of Pretest

Mean and St. Deviation for the importance of selected causes			
	N	Mean	St. Deviation
Imp_Cancro	21	5,9762	1,17501
Imp_BAFome	21	5,8095	0,76201
Imp_CVidaPaz	21	5,2262	1,49144
Imp_Alzheimer	21	5,4524	1,21094
Imp_Pobres	21	5,3571	0,95712
Imp_Animais	21	5,5119	1,01080
Imp_Sonhos	21	5,3214	1,51687
Imp_APAV	21	5,6071	1,09707
Imp_RedCross	21	5,8452	0,94365
Imp_Adventista	21	4,7619	1,26362
Imp_Ambiental	21	5,6786	1,07280
Imp_Unicef	21	6	0,88741
Mean Importance all causes	21	5,5456	0,84113

Mean and St. Deviation for the importance of selected causes			
	N	Mean	St. Deviation
Fit_Cancro	21	4,24	1,758
Fit_BAFome	21	5,48	1,778
Fit_CVidaPaz	21	4,71	1,102
Fit_Alzheimer	21	4,24	1,786
Fit_Pobres	21	4,95	1,244
Fit_Animais	21	3,38	1,499
Fit_Sonhos	21	5,29	1,648
Fit_APAV	21	4,24	1,578
Fit_RedCross	21	4,43	1,805

Fit_Adventista	21	3,57	1,690
Fit_Ambiental	21	5	1,581
Fit_Unicef	21	5,71	1,384

Appendix D: Outliers analysis willingness to pay field study



Appendix E: Scenarios

Scenarios **Randomized**

Q7



A Funlandia lançou uma campanha em que doará 10% do preço da venda dos seus bilhetes no mês de Maio a uma de quatro causas, que a própria empresa escolherá no final da campanha. Esta é a forma da empresa ajudar a sua comunidade.

A Funlandia vai optar por uma das seguintes instituições:
Associação Portuguesa de Familiares e Amigos de doentes de Alzheimer
Associação Nacional de Apoio aos Pobres
Associação de apoio à Vitima
Associação Portuguesa de Educação Ambiental

De momento, os visitantes da Funlandia não sabem qual será a instituição escolhida até ao final da campanha, no entanto a empresa garante que 10% das receitas serão doadas.



A Funlandia lançou uma campanha em que doará 10% do preço da venda dos seus bilhetes no mês de Maio a uma de quatro causas e dará a possibilidade ao consumidor para escolher essa mesma causa. Esta é a forma da empresa ajudar a sua comunidade.

Os visitantes da Funlandia podem optar por uma das seguintes instituições:
Banco Alimentar contra a Fome
Liga Portuguesa contra o Cancro
Associação Portuguesa de Educação Ambiental
Cruz Vermelha Portuguesa

No momento da compra, os visitantes da Funlandia escolhem uma das quatro e no final da campanha a empresa garante que 10% das receitas serão doadas às respetivas causas.



A Funlandia lançou uma campanha em que doará 10% do preço da venda dos seus bilhetes no mês de Maio a uma de quatro causas e dará a possibilidade ao consumidor para escolher essa mesma causa. Esta é a forma da empresa ajudar a sua comunidade.

Os visitantes da Funlandia podem optar por uma das seguintes instituições:

Associação Portuguesa de Familiares e Amigos de doentes de Alzheimer

Associação Nacional de Apoio aos Pobres

Associação de apoio à Vitima

Associação Portuguesa de Educação Ambiental

No momento da compra, os visitantes da Funlandia, escolhem uma das quatro e no final da campanha a empresa garante que 10% das receitas serão doadas às respetivas causas



Appendix E: Qualitative Tests Sample characteristics

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Mean	St. Deviation	Min.	Max.
Scenario 1	36	24,97	8,904	17	65
Scenario 2	36	24,69	7,596	18	50
Scenario 3	45	22,73	5,491	15	50
Total	117	24,03	7,337	15	65

Gender*Scenario					
		Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Total
Gender	Male	16	22	21	59
	Female	19	14	23	56
Total		35	36	44	115

Appendix F: Description of Babyron

Babyron is a company that sells baby formulas, nutritious, tasty and diverse baby food and accessories. The accessories include baby bottles, baby food maker, comfortable high chairs and colourful cutlery and plates. The mission of Babyron is to provide your baby with all the nutrients they need to develop and grow healthy and happy. Our recipes are the best in the market, we ensure premium quality as we won Prémio Cinco Estrelas.

Appendix G: One sample t-test for Manipulation Check of the fit of Babyron

Sample Statistics			
	N	Mean	St. Deviation
Fit_CancroMama	31	4,61	2,011
Fit_Banco Alimentar	31	5,58	1,728
Fit_CancroProstata	31	3,81	2,024
Fit_Unicef	31	5,97	1,516

Sample Tests			
	t	df	Sig.
Fit_CancroMama	1,697	30	0,1
Fit_Banco Alimentar	5,094	30	0
Fit_CancroProstata	-0.533	30	0,598
Fit_Unicef	7,226	30	0

Appendix H: The χ^2 test for Manipulation Check of the target of Babyron

Target Babyron		
	Frequencies	%
Parents	21	67,7
Kids	10	32,3
Total	31	100

Hypothesis Test			
Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
The target categories appeared with the same probability	Qui-Square Test for a sample	0,048	Reject Null Hypothesis

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