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ABSTRACT

Many studies have acknowledged the importance of cause-related marketing (CRM) (e.g. Steckstor, 2011; Guerreiro et al., 2016) and increasing consumer cynicism about it (e.g. Johansen, 2016). Although the topic of consumer cynicism has attracted increasing attention in contemporary research (Andersen and Johansen, 2016), an extensive review of the literature conducted for this study revealed that such studies remain on conceptual grounds (e.g. Odou and Pechpeyrou, 2011) or focus on general consumer cynicism in the marketplace (e.g. Chylinski and Chu, 2010; Helm et al., 2015; Ketron, 2016). Despite consumer cynicism being a major challenge to CRM practices (Andersen and Johansen, 2016), previous research calls for additional studies specifically relating to cynicism within a CRM context (e.g. Paek and Nelson, 2009; Chang, 2011; Hawkins, 2012). Therefore, this research aims to fill this gap in the literature.

To fulfil the research aim, this study takes the philosophical position of post-positivism by applying a 2 × 2 factorial (sudden disaster versus ongoing cause and high versus low brand-cause fit) quasi-experimental design. Two focus groups were conducted to obtain relevant information to design a self-administrated questionnaire. Students were used to satisfy the requirements of an experimental design for a homogeneous sample. Out of the 420 questionnaires collected, 408 were considered to be usable for the final analysis.

Attribution Theory and the TPB were used as theoretical frameworks on which to base this research. The findings add two new dimensions to theoretical knowledge in understanding consumer cynicism in a CRM context, namely, consumers' perceptions of company motive and protest behaviour. Protest behaviour was found to be positively related to consumer

cynicism in the ongoing cause groups. This finding is consistent with Attribution Theory's suggestion that individuals are more supportive to victims affected by sudden disaster (Ellen et al., 2000; Chochinov, 2005). Attribution Theory was applied to identify the link between consumers' perceptions of company motives, consumer cynicism and protest behaviour. Following Fiske and Taylor (1991) quasi-experimental stimuli/scenarios (high versus low brand-cause fit and ongoing cause versus sudden disaster cause) the same technique was used for this study in order to explore how individuals make causal attributions about firms' CRM practices. Consumer cynicism was also investigated in TPB model by using indirect questioning technique. The findings of this application indicated that consumers make different causal attributions about companies' involvement in CRM practices when they are exposed to different information sources. Consumer cynicism was investigated in TPB model by using indirect questioning technique. In addition, the findings indicated that cynical consumers have some volitional control of intention to purchase CRM products. Despite having cynicism, the increasing self-efficacy and subjective norm play an influencing role in predicting intention. This is an important contribution to knowledge both theoretically and in terms of possible intervention strategies aiming to reduce cynicism level.

This research not only demonstrates the feasibility of applying Attribution Theory and TPB to understand consumer cynicism in the context of CRM, but also identifies an interesting connection between these two theories. Future studies can incorporate consumers' perception of company motives from Attribution Theory into TPB to explore the possibility of gaining a stronger understanding of consumer cynicism in the context of CRM. A new theoretical model was suggested for a possible application in future studies.

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This research investigated consumer cynicism in the context of CRM and strands of theory surrounding consumer cynicism. On the basis of the study of cynicism, CRM, Attribution Theory, the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and relationships between consumer cynicism, perceptions of company motives, purchase intention, protest behaviour and the constructs of TPB were examined.

This chapter gives an overview of the study, beginning with this introduction. Then the research background is presented. The methodology approach and research objectives are clearly identified. This is followed by the expected research contribution. This introductory chapter also outlines the thesis structure and provides a summary at the end of the chapter.

1.2 Research Background

A growing number of firms build a commercial relationship with NPOs aiming to achieve specific objectives, such as increased sales, customer retention, enhanced corporate image (Steckstor, 2011) and changes in attitudes towards the firm, the brand, or the cause (Folse et al., 2010; Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005). Cause-related marketing (CRM) is one form of such a partnership. As an annually expanding business (La Ferle et al., 2013), CRM in North America is predicted to reach $2.06 billion in 2017, a projected increase of 3.6% over 2016 (IEG, 2017). In the UK, 70% of the worldwide community investment are from the top 300 listed companies that participate in CRM programmes (Walker et al., 2012). Although CRM has been widely discussed in the literature of various academic disciplines (see section 2.2.1) and its definitions vary considerably (Liu, 2013), the definition by Varadarajan and Menon (1988) has been applied in many CRM studies (e.g. Robinson et al., 2012; Revadee and Fazlul, 2015; Lafferty et al., 2016). CRM is "the process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue-providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives" (p. 60). This research focuses on CRM that involves an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause; therefore, Varadarajan and Menon's definition of CRM is used throughout.

Firms participate in CRM in order to increase sales, enhance corporate image, benefit the community and generate positive consumer attitudes and behaviours (e.g. Drumwright, 1996; Zdravkovic et al., 2010). CRM is an attractive proposition for NPOs facing reduced government funding and increasing competition for contributions from individual donors (Steckstor, 2011). In recent years, more and more companies have become involved in CRM practice (Adkins, 2011). However, negative effects may be associated with CRM activities, such as changes in consumers' charitable giving behaviour (Polonsky and Wood, 2001). For example, CRM activities could reduce individual donations to NPOs, as consumers feel they have already indirectly contributed to the NPOs by purchasing CRM products (Krishna, 2011; Grolleau et al., 2016). Furthermore, consumers examine the activities of CRM firms and decide whether to support or punish the NPOs accordingly (Herman and Rendina, 2001; Steckstor, 2011). Consumers may hold the view that NPOs involved in CRM support commercial firms' activities or products (Polonsky and Wood, 2001). When firms exhibit socially irresponsible behaviour, the image of the partner NPO could be damaged (Steckstor, 2011), resulting in the loss of financial support from consumers (Hawkins, 2012). Negative attitudes towards the partnership and NPO may be developed not only among consumers (Herman and Rendina, 2001), but also among employees and volunteers of the NPOs (Steckstor, 2011). When the NPOs and commercial firms do not share similar values, employees and volunteers show less loyalty to the NPOs (Liston-Heyes and Liu, 2010; Stride and Higgs, 2013) and can fail to participate in the NPOs' activities (Liston-Heyes and Liu, 2010). Negative consumer responses might also arise if consumers believe that firms are exploiting the cause (Forehand and Grier, 2003) or if an inappropriate choice of causes is made (Steckstor, 2011). Consequently, there is increasing research interest in negative consumer responses to corporate actions (Skarmeas and Leonidou, 2013), such as consumer scepticism (Chang and Cheng, 2015) and consumer cynicism (Smith and Higgins, 2000) in CRM.

As discussed in section 2.3.2, there are many definitions of cynicism in the marketing literature. Stanley et al. (2005) developed a definition that can be applied across several contexts (Van Dolen et al., 2012). Following their work, this research defines consumer cynicism as an attitude characterised by disbelief in a firm's underlying motives for using CRM as a marketing practice. Cynical consumers believe that the firm is seeking its own benefit and has less regard for genuinely helping a designated cause (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Andersen and Johansen, 2016). Scepticism is also described as a negative attitude but is regarded as an important skill for consumers to acquire in regards to advertising (Armstrong, and Goldberg, 1988; Boush, Friestad, and Rose, 1994; Brucks et al., 1998). Although consumer cynicism and scepticism are closely related, they are distinct from each other (Mohr et al., 1998; Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998; Stanley, 2005; Tan and Tan, 2007). Sceptics have doubts about facts (truths) but are open to persuasion if proof is provided (Kanter and Mirvis, 1989). In contrast, cynics not only have doubts about facts but also about the motives behind them (Kanter and Mirvis, 1989). A key challenge for firms that engage in CRM is to overcome consumer cynicism and scepticism and increase the effectiveness of their CRM campaigns (Andersen and Johansen, 2016). Many studies have been conducted to examine consumer scepticism in the context of CRM (e.g. Kim and Lee, 2009; Brønn and Vrioni, 2001; Skarmeas and Leonidou, 2013; Patel et al., 2017). In contrast and in spite of the current increase in consumer cynicism in the context of CRM (e.g. Paek and Nelson, 2009; Andersen and Johansen, 2016), previous studies emphasised its occurrence and importance without further investigation (Meyer, 1999; Smith and Higgins, 2000; Paek and Nelson, 2009; Chang, 2011; Hawkins, 2012). As a result, little is known about consumer cynicism in a CRM context. Therefore, the current research aims to investigate consumer cynicism in the context of CRM and contributes to a greater understanding of it.

An extensive review of literature revealed that the studies on consumer cynicism either remain on a conceptual ground (e.g., Odou and Pechpeyrou, 2011) or focus on general consumer cynicism in the marketplace (e.g., Chylinski and Chu, 2010; Helm et al., 2015; Ketron, 2016). In contrast, this research seeks to explore the relevance of Attribution Theory and the TPB to provide greater understanding of consumer cynicism in the context of CRM and present preliminary empirical results concerning plausible implications. Attribution theory (Heider, 1944) is used to explain how individuals infer the motives of the behaviour of those around them, considering what caused the behaviour and how it can be explained (Heider, 1958). The application of Attribution Theory has been found in many studies of corporate social responsibility (e.g. Tsiros et al., 2004; Ellen, et al., 2006; Parguel, et al., 2011; Skarmeas and Leonidou, 2013; Green and Peloza, 2014) and CRM (Ellen et al., 2000; Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2009; Tsai, 2009). Therefore, attribution theory is relevant to the CRM context because consumers express great interest in justifying why firms engage in CRM practices (Ellen et al., 2000) but show little confidence in corporate efforts to appear as “good corporate citizens” (Ellen et al., 2006, p. 152). Furthermore, Ewing (2001) suggested that the TPB (Ajzen, 1991) can be used to investigate a CRM appeal. Thus, the relevance of this theory is recognised given its empirical dominance for predicting and understanding the relationship between beliefs, attitudes, intentions and behaviour (Armitage and Connor, 2001a; Conner and Sparks, 2005).

Attribution Theory and the TPB are the lenses through which this study analyses consumer cynicism in a CRM context. Kalkhoff et al. (2010) acknowledged that a greater theoretical unification can be achieved through elimination, subsumption or modular integration by using two or more related theories in a study. Attribution Theory and TPB are not mutually exclusive, and can be used separately or jointly to understand consumer cynicism in the context of CRM. Researchers can further explore these two theories by incorporating consumers’ perceptions of company motives from attribution theory into TPB for future research.

1.3 Methodological Approach, Research Aim and Objectives

This study takes the philosophical position of post-positivism, also called critical realism. Post-positivists argue that social reality is real, but it can only be known in an imperfect and probabilistic manner, and that there is no social world beyond people’s perceptions and interpretations (Corbetta, 2003). Individuals’ behaviour is influenced by the knowledge that they have for their social reality (Corbetta, 2003). Based on this position, the research aims to explain causal relationships based on the proposed conceptual framework (detailed in

Chapter Three) by using statistical analysis. It is, therefore, deductive in nature, and its aim is the testing of theory.

CRM is a mutual collaboration between a firm and a non-profit organization (Vanhamme et al, 2012). A significant number of studies have evidenced the importance of brand-cause fit in CRM (e.g. Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2012; Chéron et al., 2012). The associations between the brand and cause influence how consumers react to the CRM campaign (Chéron et al., 2012). The degree of the fit that consumers perceive between the brand and the cause influences their attitude and purchase intention (e.g. Aaker and Keller, 1990; Rifon et al., 2004; Nan and Heo, 2007). Furthermore, a donation situation, such as natural disaster versus an ongoing cause, has an effect on consumer attitudes (Ross et al., 1990-1991; Ellen et al., 2000; Vyravene and Rabbanee, 2016). Following the previous research in this area (Stanley et al.,2005; Chylinski and Chu, 2010; Van Dolen et al., 2012; Helm et al., 2015), consumer cynicism is considered an attitude instead of a form of consumer resistance (see also Mikkonen et al., 2011). Therefore, attitude in the context of this study refers to consumer cynicism. Different types of CRM, such as high versus low brand-cause fit or natural disaster versus ongoing cause, have a different influence on consumer attitudes (consumer cynicism in this study) and their attitudinal consequences (Ellen et al., 2000; Rifon et al., 2004; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004; Nan and Heo, 2007; Vyravene and Rabbanee, 2016; Beckmann et al., 2017). Low brand-cause fit can trigger negative attitudes (Rifon et al., 2004), such as consumer cynicism. Consumers respond more favourably to an appeal to help alleviate disaster relief rather than an appeal for an ongoing cause (Ellen et al.,2000; Cui et al., 2003) such as cancer research. Therefore, the investigation of the brand-cause fit and donation situation provides a relevant managerial foundation for how to reduce consumer cynicism towards CRM. The philosophical position of post-positivism is adopted in this study by applying a 2 × 2 factorial (natural disaster versus ongoing cause and high versus low brand-cause fit) quasi-experiment design with focus groups. A student sample was used to meet the requirement of homogeneity for a quasi-experimental design.

In order to achieve a greater understanding of consumer cynicism in the context of CRM, this study aims to investigate the impact of how consumers perceive company motives on their cynicism in CRM, and its attitudinal consequences (protest behaviour, moderating role of self-efficacy between consumer cynicism and purchase intention) alongside other selected factors (subjective norms, perceived behavioural control) on purchase intention and behaviour towards CRM products. Hence, the research objectives are:

1. To identify the influences of brand-cause fit on consumer cynicism in the context of cause-related marketing.

2. To examine the influences of donation situations (ongoing versus natural disaster) on consumer cynicism in the context of cause-related marketing.

3. To identify the influences of consumers' perceptions of company motives on consumer cynicism in the context of cause-related marketing.

4. To examine the relationship between consumer cynicism and protest behaviour in the context of cause-related marketing.

5. To explore the influences of TPB variables, i.e. consumer cynicism (attitude), subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, on purchase intention towards purchasing CRM products.

6. To explore the role of self-efficacy in the proposed theoretical models.

7. To empirically test the applicability of the proposed theoretical models built on Attribution Theory and TPB in the context of cause-related marketing.

1.4 Research Contributions

As highlighted in full in Chapter two, this study is designed to fill important gaps in the current literature and aims to investigate consumer cynicism in the context of CRM and contribute to the literature on Attribution Theory, TPB and CRM. Thus, providing both a theoretical and managerial contribution.

Despite the importance of understanding consumer cynicism in the context of CRM, there is limited empirical studies on consumer cynicism. One of the challenges facing CRM practices is consumer cynicism (Andersen and Johansen, 2016). However, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, consumer cynicism has not been specifically studied in CRM research, although a few studies have mentioned its importance and the need to explore it in a CRM context (e.g. Paek and Nelson, 2009; Chang, 2011; Hawkins, 2012). A detailed discussion of the current literature is presented in Chapter Two. Based on this discussion, this research used Attribution Theory and TPB to investigate the topic, providing a more comprehensive tool for the identification of consumer cynicism and enhancing researchers' ability to predict the attitudinal consequences for CRM.

First, this research makes a contribution to the CRM literature by examining the effect of brand-cause fit and donation situation (i.e. ongoing and natural cause) on consumer cynicism. In line with previous studies on cynicism (Stanley et al., 2005; Chylinski and Chu, 2010; Van Dolen et al., 2012; Helm et al., 2015), this research regards consumer cynicism as a negative attitude. Although previous studies have acknowledged the influence of brand-cause fit and donation situation on consumer responses in CRM (e.g. Ellen et al., 2000; Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2012), the adverse effects of CRM have been less well documented in marketing studies (Grolleau et al., 2016). This study also contributes to CRM knowledge by investigating the influencing role of brand-cause fit and donation situation on consumer cynicism and its attitudinal consequences, which fills the above research gap and contributes to the CRM literature.

Second, the present research contributes to Attribution Theory by examining the impact of consumers' perception on company motives on consumer cynicism. According to Fiske and Taylor (1991), "attribution theory deals with how the social perceiver uses information to arrive at causal explanations for events. It examines what information is gathered and how it is combined to form a causal judgment" (p. 23). In other words, individuals use various information sources in making causal attributions about the behaviour of those around them. In this research, experimental stimuli/scenarios (high versus low brand-cause fit and ongoing versus natural disaster cause) are used as the information sources for individuals' causal attributions about firms' CRM practices. By investigating the influence of consumers' inferences about firms' motives on their cynicism, this research introduces a key construct – protest behaviour – to the study of consumer cynicism in a CRM context. It introduces a new perspective to Attribution Theory by identifying the relationship between how consumers perceive company motives, consumer cynicism and protest behaviour.

Third, this study instantiates the TPB framework, as the attitude in the context of this study refers to consumer cynicism. It adds to the consumer cynicism literature by applying the TPB to explain it. Previous studies regard consumer cynicism as an attitude (Stanley et al., 2005; Chylinski and Chu, 2010; Van Dolen et al., 2012; Helm et al., 2015), but to the best of the researcher's knowledge, consumer cynicism has not been examined using the TPB model. This research supports the application of TPB in examining negative consumer attitudes, such as cynicism. Belief-based measures were found positively related to direct measures of TPB variables. Although previous studies have included self-efficacy in the TPB model to predict intention (e.g. McCaul et al., 1998; Armitage and Conner, 1999a; Basil et al., 2008; Chan et al., 2016; Wang and Zhang, 2016), this is the first to examine the effect of consumer cynicism, self-efficacy working in tandem with TPB constructs to predict purchase intention towards CRM products. This finding has implications for marketers who, despite consumer cynicism, believe that focusing on increasing self-efficacy can still result in purchase intention. Although this study failed to support the moderating effect of self-efficacy between consumer cynicism and purchase intention, this does not mean that such an effect does not work in a more subtle way or work with other variables involved.

Fourth, this research not only demonstrates the feasibility of applying Attribution Theory and the TPB to understand consumer cynicism in the context of CRM, but it also identifies an interesting theoretical and practically relevant connection between these two theories.

Based on the above points, the results and findings also provide valuable insights into understanding consumer cynicism in a CRM context, helping marketing practitioners to reduce or remove consumer cynicism in their CRM campaign.

1.5 Outline of the Thesis

This section presents a concise review of the organisation of the thesis. The current research is presented in five chapters. Chapter One outlines the research background, methodology approach, research objectives and research contributions. Chapter Two reviews the literature on consumer cynicism and relevant theories with the purpose of formulating the theoretical background to the research framework. Based on the literature review, the research framework and hypotheses are presented. Chapter Three details the methodological framework of the study including the philosophical background, research design, qualitative data collection, questionnaire development and quantitative data collection. The methodology chapter also provides an explanation of the data analysis procedure and techniques employed. Chapter Four presents the results of the data analysis using correlation analysis, t-tests, ANOVA, and hierarchical regression analyses. The tests of the hypothesised relationships and discussions are also reported in this chapter. Chapter Five provides a summary of the research findings, theoretical contributions, managerial implications and research limitations and makes suggestions for future research.

1.6 Summary

This introductory chapter has introduced the current research. It first described the research background, followed by the methodology approach and the objectives of the research. A brief explanation of contributions of the research was also offered. Lastly, it outlined the organisation and structure of this thesis. The next chapter presents a critical review of the related literature on CRM and cynicism.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the related literature on CRM and cynicism studies in order to gain a comprehensive understanding of the research. This chapter consists of three sections. The current section outlines the structure and content of the chapter. Section 2.2 presents a literature review on CRM. This section starts by introducing CRM and continues to discuss the difference between CRM, corporate social responsibility, and social marketing respectively in Section 2.2.2 and Section 2.2.3. The positive and negative effects of CRM are presented in Section 2.2.4, Section 2.2.5 discusses consumers' perception of company motives for engaging in CRM. The effect of brand-cause fit and donation situation (i.e., natural disaster and ongoing causes) on CRM is discussed in section 2.2.6 and 2.2.7. A review of consumer research on CRM is presented in section 2.2.8. Section 2.3 provides a literature review on the concepts of cynicism and related constructs of consumer cynicism, such as social cynicism (Section 2.3.4) and political cynicism (Section 2.3.5). The difference between scepticism and cynicism is discussed in Section 2.3.2. Section 2.3.6 presents a literature review of cynicism in a marketing context. This chapter ends with a summary in Section 2.4.

2.2 Cause-related Marketing

2.2.1 Definition of Cause-related Marketing

The term “cause-related marketing” (CRM) was first used by American Express in 1983 to describe its highly successful campaign, which supported the restoration of the Statue of Liberty. A penny was donated to the Statue of Liberty fund for each use of the American Express card and a dollar was donated for each new card issued. As a result, the card usage increased by 28% and $1.7 million was raised for the cause (Wall, 1984). The success of the American Express program in 1983 motivated more companies to utilize this new marketing approach. CRM has since been an increasingly common marketing strategy (Nelson et al, 2007; Hawkins, 2012; Lucke and Heinze, 2015; Vilela and Nelson, 2016).

CRM has been widely discussed in the literature of various academic disciplines. Consequently, its definitions vary considerably (Liu, 2013). During the mid-1980s, the most widely accepted definition of CRM came from Varadarajan and Menon (1988), who defined CRM as “the process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue-providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives” (p60). According to this definition, the donation recipient is usually a non-governmental organisational (NGO) which supports a local or global cause. Generally, organizations would choose to support a cause that is of interest to their target market (Steckstor, 2011). For instance, Pampers has launched a “1 Pack 1 Vaccine” campaign by partnering with UNICEF to provide life-saving tetanus vaccines to mothers and babies (Hawkins, 2015). Each time a consumer buys a package of Pampers, one dose of the vaccine is donated. The mutual benefits of such partnership include generating profits, increasing awareness of brands and designated causes (Berglind and Nakata, 2005). The definition by Varadarajan and Menon (1988), however, constrains CRM to a donation tied to a specific purchase or level of sales (Steckstor, 2011). It also excludes non-transaction-based contributions from CRM. Thus, the definition of CRM has now been expanded to include other forms of assistance to the cause (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002). For instance, several major airlines partnered with UNICEF launched the Change for Good campaign to encourage travellers on returning flights to donate leftover foreign currency (Crislip, 2016). The donation was used to help some of the world's most vulnerable children (Crislip, 2016). Brink et al. (2006) also added another dimension (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002) to the definitions of CRM, whereby the firm delivers its promises to donate to a worthy cause (Brink et al., 2006). Furthermore, CRM is perceived as a communication tool (e.g., Vilela and Nelson, 2016) that connects commercial firms and causes, for example, CRM "entails firms' communicating through their advertising, packaging, promotions, and so on, their corporate social responsibility, i.e., their affiliation or work with non-profit organisations or support for causes" (Brønn and Vrioni 2001, pp. 207–208). CRM is also viewed as being tied in with the strategic, long-term benefits of building a strong brand (Till and Nowak, 2000) or a corporate reputation (Berglind and Nakata 2005). The common theme amongst all these definitions is that CRM is a mutually beneficial activity that involves both a business organization as well as a non-profit organisation (Papasolomou and Kitchen, 2011).

The concept of CRM by Varadarajan and Menon (1988) has evolved in the literature and different meanings were put forward by different researchers and practitioners. CRM is viewed as a form of marketing strategy, and is distinct from sponsorship or corporate philanthropy (Polonsky and Speed, 2001). Tangari et al., (2010) saw CRM as a promotional strategy. Larson et al. (2008) defined CRM as "as any marketing activities in which company donations to a specified cause are based upon sales of specified goods or services" (p.272). Smith and Taylor (2004) viewed CRM as an amalgam of public relation, sales promotions, and corporate philanthropy. Gautier and Pache (2015) regarded CRM as marketing-oriented philanthropy. Although all of these definitions are slightly different, they all mirror the one proposed by Varadarajan and Menon (1988) in some way, which has been applied in many CRM studies (e.g., Robinson et al., 2012; Revadee and Fazlul, 2015; Chang and Cheng, 2015; Lafferty et al., 2016). Consequently, this research focuses on CRM that involves an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause.

2.2.2 Difference between Cause-related Marketing (CRM) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

Although closely related to each other, CRM and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) are distinct both originally and conceptually. CSR is defined as the voluntary activities undertaken by a company with the aim of achieving sustainable development to benefit people, communities, and society (e.g., Idowu and Papasolomou, 2007; Luo and Bhattacharya, 2009). The aim of CSR is to embed social values into the business. Companies that are socially responsible are more likely to do well in the marketplace (Robins, 2015). Nowadays, an increasing number of companies become socially responsible in order to stay productive, competitive, and relevant in a rapidly changing business world (Attig and Cleary, 2015). Companies that engage in CSR initiatives provide charity support for social and environmental activities (Crane and Matten, 2007). CSR emphasizes that businesses have some moral obligations towards the society. However, CSR, which is different from corporate giving, is a strategic giving, and therefore, viewed as an investment, which reaps the financial returns for the company (Orlitzky et al., 2003). By comparison, CRM, as a part of companies' CSR, is an effective marketing tool for promoting CSR activities (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004). As a specific form of CSR (Jahdi and Acikdilli, 2009; Kotler and Lee, 2005; Liu et al., 2010; Van de Ven, 2008; Johansson et al., 2016), a CRM program helps companies to donate a percentage of their sales in a certain period time for a cause (Kotler and Lee, 2006). Typically, a CRM campaign runs for a specified period of time. In addition, the distinctive feature of a CRM is the firm's contribution of a portion from the proceeds of a sale of the firms' products and services to a designated cause (Steckstor, 2011). Therefore, CSR is a broader concept and more complex than CRM because it addresses many areas of social responsibility (Nielsen and Thomsen, 2007). CRM is only one part of CSR, but CRM alone cannot embody CSR (Sheikh and Beise-Zee, 2011).

2.2.3 Difference between Cause-related Marketing (CRM) and Social Marketing

It is also important to highlight the difference between CRM and social marketing. Social marketing is a much older practice than CRM (Berglind and Nakata, 2005). Kotler and Zaltman (1971) first defined social marketing as "the design and implementation of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution, and marketing research" (p.5). Dann (2010) further defined social marketing as "the adaptation and adoption of commercial activities, institutions and processes as a means to induce behavioural change in a targeted audience on a temporary or permanent basis to achieve a social goal" (p.151). Thus, social marketing employs commercial marketing strategies for the social good rather than monetary gains (Dibb and Carrigan, 2013). For instance, social marketers actively sell causes such as healthy eating, anti-smoking cessation, anti-littering, recycling, responsible sexual behaviour to avoid HIV/AIDS virus, health screening for cancer among other social related causes (Lee and Kotler, 2016).

Some researchers believe that social marketing is distinct from CRM (e.g., Donovan and Henley, 2010; Pharr and Lough, 2012) but both can be utilized to achieve CSR objectives (Pharr and Lough, 2012). CRM is used to enhance the market position of a business by building an association with a cause (Steckstor, 2011). In contrast, social marketing is implemented largely without the help of corporations (French et al., 2011). Furthermore, while CRM aims to achieve mutual benefits for-profit and NPOs (Vanhamme et al, 2012), those who benefit from a social marketing campaign are individuals who need to change their behaviour and society at large (Pharr and Lough, 2012). Much discussion has also taken place regarding whether social marketing is limited to public and non-profit marketers or whether it extends to commercial firms that promote good causes for mutual benefits (Stewart, 2015). With cutbacks in government spending and increased competitiveness for funding among non-profit making organisations, there is an increase in the number of commercial organisations applying marketing principles to influence social and health issues (Berger et al., 1999). In recent years, more commercial companies are supporting causes that could induce behaviour or attitude change, such as Ethos Water sold at Starbucks to support water, sanitation, and hygiene education programs (Lee and Kotler, 2016) and Nike's alliance with Imperial Cancer in arranging organised runs to encourage individuals to stay active and healthy (Aras and Crowther, 2010). A marketing campaign intended to influence a behaviour to benefit individuals as well as the society at large meets the basic criteria for a social marketing effort (Lee and Kotler, 2016). Therefore, some researchers regard CRM as a form of social marketing (e.g., Andreasen, 2006; Stewart, 2015; Lee and Kotler, 2016).

This research uses Varadarajan and Menon's definition of CRM, which constrains a CRM to a donation tied to a specific purchase or level of sales (Steckstor, 2011). In this case, the CRM of this research emphasizes a win-win situation where profits are generated for firms and support is provided to worthy causes (Liu and Ko, 2011), rather than a focus on behaviour change (Lee and Kotler, 2016). Therefore, CRM in this research is viewed as a part of a firm's overall CSR strategy (e.g., Sheikh and Beise-Zee, 2011; Steckstor, 2011; Grolleau et al., 2016; Johansson et al., 2016).

2.2.4 Positive and Negative Effects of Cause-related Marketing

CRM is a large and annually expanding business for many marketers (La Ferle et al., 2013). CRM in North America is predicted to reach $2.06 billion in 2017, a projected increase of 3.6% over 2016 (IEG, 2017). In the UK, 70% of the worldwide community investment are from the top 300 listed companies that participate in CRM programmes (Walker et al., 2012). Companies such as ASDA, Tesco, Marks & Spencer, and Domino's Pizza, have carried out successful CRM campaigns (Gorton et al., 2013; Liu and Ko, 2014; Hawkins, 2015). CRM carries benefits but also risks to companies and NPOs (Adkins, 2011).

Many studies have evidenced the benefits of CRM campaigns. CRM can result in positive consumer attitudes towards companies (Nan and Heo 2007) and help increase purchase intentions of CRM products (Barone et al., 2000; Pracejus et al., 2003; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004; Gupta and Pirsch, 2006; Chang, 2008; Hou et al., 2008; Henderson and Arora, 2010; Lafferty et al., 2016). When there is a logical fit between the brand and cause, CRM also result in positive consumer attitudes towards dependent measures (Lafferty et al., 2004;

Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Nan and Heo 2007; Samu and Wymer, 2009). CRM can also enhance brand image (Minton and Cornwell, 2016), brand credibility (Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2009), brand loyalty (Van den Brink et al., 2006; Lafferty et al., 2016), and corporate image (Vanhamme et al, 2012). Moreover, CRM can help firms to attract new customers, increase profits, generate positive publicity, reach niche markets, and improve stakeholder relations (Kotler and Lee, 2005; Liu and Ko, 2011). From the NPOs' perspectives, CRM can help to generate funding, increasee awareness of the NPO's work, and increase competition for contributions from individual donors (Steckstor, 2011).

However, CRM as a marketing tactic does not always improve consumer response and can lead to adverse and unanticipated effects (Grolleau et al., 2016). Companies often encounter difficulties while trying to merge social and commercial objectives (Polonsky and Wood, 2001). The brand-cause fit perceived by consumers plays a critical role in the success of a CRM campaign. Here, consumers can develop negative attitudes towards the brand or switch brands (Hawkins, 2012) if they perceive a poor brand-cause fit, and begin thinking that the company is exploiting the good cause for marketing and profit purposes (Rifon et al., 2004). For example, the Buckets for the Cure campaign by Kentucky Fried Chicken (KFC) was short-lived due to poor fit (Kerr and Das, 2013), as the critics and detractors of this CRM campaign believed that eating fatty foods increases the risk of breast cancer (Eikenberry, 2013).

Many studies focus on investigating scepticism in a CRM context (Brønn and Vrioni, 2001; Kim, 2005; Kim and Lee, 2009; Folse et al, 2010; Skarmeas and Leonidou, 2013; Chaabane and Parguel, 2016; Patel et al., 2017). CRM as a practice often creates doubts and scepticism (e.g. Baronet et al., 2000; Becker-Olsen et al., 2006) among consumers when consumers question whether a designated cause does receive a portion of the proceeds from consumers' purchase of CRM products (Barone et al., 2000). Consumers often use scepticism as a shield to protect themselves from misleading and deceptive CRM activities (Kim and Lee, 2009). Kim and Lee (2009) investigated situational scepticism, which refers to a temporary state of doubt towards a certain marketer's motive. While sceptics doubts facts (truths), cynics, however, not only have doubts about facts but also about the motives behind them (Kanter and Mirvis, 1989; Stanley, 2005; Tan and Tan, 2007). The difference between scepticism and cynicism is also evidenced in CRM research. Consumers who are sceptical about CRM claims have doubts about whether it is the cause or the commercial firms that derive the most benefits from the CRM campaigns (Singh et al. 2009; Guerreiro et al., 2016) rather than having doubts about the company's motive for their involvement in CRM activities (Singh et al., 2009). Kim and Lee (2009) investigated the impact of CSR and donation size claim objectivity on situational scepticism, which in fact, is cynicism. However, to judge the appropriateness of Kim and Lee's (2009) work is beyond the scope of the current study.

Although there are many CRM studies on consumer scepticism, the adverse effects of CRM have been less well documented in marketing studies (Grolleau et al., 2016). Consumer cynicism is regarded as one of the negative effect of conducting CRM campaigns (Hawkins, 2012). Although the occurrence and importance of consumer cynicism has been mentioned in CRM studies (Meyer, 1999; Smith and Higgins, 2000; Paek and Nelson, 2009; Chang, 2011; Hawkins, 2012), there has been no further exploration.

CRM also has a negative effect on NPOs. For example, when consumers discover that a commercial firm have behaved in a socially irresponsible way, the image of the NPO could be damaged (Steckstor, 2011) and suffer a loss of financial support from consumers (Hawkins, 2012). Other negative CRM effects on NPOs include less corporate donations and declining consumer contributions to NPOs (Hawkins, 2012), negative attitudes towards the partnership and NPO among consumers (Herman and Rendina, 2001) and among employees and volunteers of the NPOs (Steckstor, 2011) as well as reduced employee and volunteer loyalty to the NPOs (Liston-Heyes and Liu, 2010; Stride and Higgs, 2013).

2.2.5 Consumers' Perceived Company Motives for Engaging in CRM

Consumers' support of a CRM campaign is based on two major motives. The first is to fulfil their individual consumption needs and the second is to support a socially responsible company through purchasing their CRM affiliated product. However, consumers' perceptions of company motives can influence their attitudes towards the products or services that are related to socially responsible initiatives, such as cause-related products and services (e.g., Campbell and Kirmani, 2000; Becker-Olsen et al., 2006).

A consumer' perceived underlying motives of firms to conduct a CRM program play an important role in the acceptance and the effectiveness of CRM (Barone et al., 2000; Ellen et al., 2006). If consumers perceive firms' motives to be self-serving, they may respond negatively to the CRM activities (Drumwright, 1996; Osterhus, 1997; Barone et al., 2007). Varadarajan and Menon (1988, p. 69) stated that "firms walk a fine line between reaping increased sales, goodwill, and positive publicity and charges of exploitation of causes". According to Ellen et al. (2006), Consumer perception of firms' motives are either self-centred (either strategic or egoistic) or other-centred (either values-driven or stakeholder-driven). The research conducted by Webb and Mohr (1998) discovered that 50 per cent of the participants believed that the main reason for a firm to participate in a CRM program is self-centred, such as to increase sales or to obtain positive publicity. The other half of the respondents believed that firms engaged in CRM have mixed motives in an "attempt to create a win-win situation for both the company and the non-profit organisations" (Webb and Mohr, 1998, p. 231). The more consumers viewed a CRM program as altruistic, the more they responded favourably to the company. In contrast, Barone et al. (2000) concluded that consumers who regard a CRM campaign as exploitive of a cause or as a marketing gimmick are more likely to have a less favourable attitude towards the company. With an increasing coverage of CRM (Grolleau et al, 2016), less favourable responses easily arise among consumers as they attribute more self-centred motives to firms engaged in CRM campaign activities (Kanta et al., 2014).

2.2.6 Brand-cause Fit in CRM

CRM is a mutual collaboration between a firm and a non-profit organization (NPO) (Vanhamme et al, 2012). The firm involved in CRM activities is linked with a particular cause or non-profit organization (NPO) that is associated with that cause. An alliance is established between a firm and a NPO with the aim of building a stronger bond with target consumers that will then lead to a strong market positioning of the brand (Davidson, 1997). The designated cause involved in CRM can not only achieve financial support but also better awareness of the cause. One important factor for a successful CRM campaign is the compatibility or the fit between a firm's brand and the cause (Trimble and Rifon, 2006; Nan and Heo, 2007; Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2012). Fit is considered as the perceived degree of compatibility between the brand and the cause (Aaker and Keller, 1990). In the existing literature, other terms that are used to describe the idea of fit in CRM are: compatibility, congruence, match, relatedness, link, relevancy, and similarity (Fleck and Quester, 2007). The term "fit" is used in this research. Brand-cause fit is defined as the "overall perceived relatedness of the brand and the cause with multiple cognitive bases" (Nan and Heo, 2007, p. 72). From the consumers' perspectives, brand-cause fit refers to the degree of acceptance of the partnership between the brand and the cause (Chéron et al., 2012). Simmons and Becker-Olsen (2006) extend the definition of fit by identifying natural and created fit. Natural fit refers to the level of congruence between the brand and the cause without any intervention in mind of the consumers. Created fit refers to the use of different strategies to increase perceived fit between the brand and cause. These strategies refer to the information provided in advertisements that further explains any tangential elements of congruity between the company or the brand and the chosen cause (Simmons and Becker-Olsen, 2006). Companies invest more in traditional advertising in order to articulate a non-natural fit (Simmons and Becker-Olsen, 2006).

A significant number of studies have evidenced the importance of brand-cause fit in CRM (e.g., Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2012; Chéron et al., 2012). The degree of the fit or compatibility that consumers perceive between the brand and the cause has an influencing impact on consumer attitude and purchase intention (e.g., Aaker and Keller, 1990; Rifon et al., 2004; Nan and Heo, 2007; Beckmann et al., 2017). The associations between the brand and cause influence how consumers react to the CRM campaign (Chéron et al., 2012). The firms that are involved in CRM also aim to ensure that these reactions will be positive. However, there is a possibility that they may not be – low brand-cause fit could generate a negative consumer attitude (Rifon et al., 2004).

Consumers are more likely to respond favourably when there is congruence between the brand and the cause (Hamlin and Wilson, 2004; Gorton et al., 2013). A higher perceived brand-cause fit can positively influence a consumer's attitude and purchase intention (Pracejus and Olsen, 2004; Chéron et al., 2012). It is evidenced that high brand-cause fit can also enhance consumer attitudes towards the cause sponsored (Pracejus and Douglas, 2004). On the other hand, brand-cause fit can influence consumers' perceptions of company motives for engaging in CRM activities (Gorton et al., 2013). Low brand-cause fit can result in negative reactions from consumers as they perceive the motives of such CRM campaigns as purely for the self-interest of the company (Arnoldy, 2007; Keene, 2008; Chéron et al., 2012), with the aim of increasing profits. In this case, consumers view CRM campaigns with low brand-cause fit as exploitative marketing activities, instead of as the pure altruistic motives of contributing to society.

Hawkins (2012) considered consumer cynicism as one of the risks that both profit and non-profit partners need to face when participating in CRM activities. Low brand-cause fit can trigger negative attitudes (Rifon et al., 2004), such as cynicism. However, there is limited research undertaken to investigate the effect of brand-cause fit on consumer cynicism. Therefore, the experimental stimuli of brand-cause fit can bring greater insights on how consumer cynicism is generated within the context of CRM.

2.2.7 Effect of Natural Disaster or Ongoing Causes in CRM

The cause that companies choose to support plays an important role in effecting consumers' attitude, purchase intention, and behaviour (Endacott, 2004). The type of donation situation, such as disaster versus. ongoing cause, was predicted to make a difference to consumers' evaluation of firms' CRM activities whether motivated by self-interest or not (Ellen et al., 2006).

Disaster causes have a greater impact on consumer attitudes than ongoing causes (Ellen et al., 2000; Vyravene and Rabbanee, 2016). Consumers respond more favourably to an appeal to help in a disaster relief situation rather than an appeal for an ongoing cause (Ellen et al.,2000; Cui et al., 2003). The existing literature indicated that disaster causes can generate more widespread helping behaviour than ongoing strategies (Piliavin and Charng, 1990; Skitka, 1999).

According to attribution theory, individuals are less likely to attribute personal responsibility to the victims who suffer from natural disasters than they do to those who suffer from ongoing causes (Ellen et al., 2000). As a result, consumers are more supportive towards people who are affected by an event that is not their own fault (Chochinov, 2005), and they respond more positively to organizations that support disaster causes than those that support ongoing causes (Cui et al., 2003). This is reflected in the fact that donations often increase immediately after a disaster occurs (Maon et al., 2009; Ratliff, 2007). Therefore, consumers are more likely to help the victims of a disaster event because it appears that it was beyond the control of its victims as opposed to an ongoing cause (Chochinov, 2005). For example, a CRM campaign which supports the victims of a tsunami is more likely to elicit greater support than a campaign which supports the fight against drug addiction. In contrast, consumers are likely to view companies that support ongoing causes as being motivated by self-interests (Hou et al., 2008), In CRM practice, the type of donation situation (i.e. natural disaster versus. ongoing cause) that companies choose to support plays an important role in effecting consumers' attitudes (Endacott, 2004; Ellen et al., 2006). Consumers are more likely to react negatively to an ongoing cause than a natural disaster one (Cui et al., 2000; Ellen et al., 2006). Supporting an ongoing cause could trigger self-interested attributions for the company's participation in the CRM (Ellen et al., 2006) and result in negative consumer attitude (Ellen et al., 2006). According to Chylinski and Chu (2010), consumer cynicism incorporates the belief that firms are motivated by self-interest. Therefore, it is important to investigate whether different donation situation (natural disaster versus. ongoing) could influence consumer cynicism in a CRM context.

2.2.8 Review of Consumer Research on CRM

Academic research on CRM has mainly focused on three areas: the impact of CRM on companies and brands (e.g., Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005; Berger et al., 2007; Demetriou, et al., 2010; Vanhamme et al., 2012), the CRM effects on consumer attitudes, behaviour, and on other relevant categories of stakeholders such as staff loyalty (e.g., Drumswright, 1996; Berger et al., 1999; Hyllegard et al., 2011). For instance, firms achieve a source of differentiation for both the firm and its brands by using CRM (Adkins, 2011; Kotler and Lee, 2005; Lee and Kotler, 2015). Evidence from the literature indicates that CRM activities play an influencing role on employees' satisfaction and sales forces performance (Drumswright, 1996; Larson et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2010). The effects of CRM on consumers' attitude and behaviours have been investigated by many researchers. Previous studies have suggested that the CRM programs can result in positive consumer attitudes and behaviours (e.g. Drumwright 1996; Zdravkovic et al. 2010). Webb and Mohr (1998), for example, discovered that one-third of their respondents report that CRM impacts their purchases. Cone/Roper (1999) reports that two-thirds of respondents would be influenced by the presence of CRM, all else being equal. Ross, et al. (1992) find CRM had a positive impact on perceptions of advertisers. Pracejus and Olsen (2004) demonstrated that brands engaged in CRM are chosen more often than those that are not.

Overall, previous research has shown that CRM has a positive effect on customers' attitudes and purchase behaviour (e.g., Arora and Henderson 2007; Chang 2008; Gupta and Pirsch 2006; Henderson and Arora 2010; Krishna and Rajan 2009; Lafferty et al., 2004; Nan and Heo 2007; Pracejus and Olsen 2004; Pracejus, et al., 2003; Zdravkovic et al. 2010). Moreover, CRM was evidenced as an effective approach for achieving a positive impact on consumer attitudes (Arora and Henderson 2007; Barone et al. 2000; Bloom et al. 2006; Hajjat 2003; Lafferty and Goldsmith 2005; Menon and Kahn 2003; Nan and Heo 2007) and behaviour or behavioural intentions (Arora and Henderson 2007; Bloom et al. 2006; Hajjat 2003; Henderson and Arora 2010; Krishna and Rajan 2009). For example, similar to Barone et al. (2000)'s finding, Nan and Heo (2007) provided support for the positive effect of CRM on customer attitudes. This finding is also supported by the increasing implementation of CRM activities conducted by firms, especially in a retail context (e.g., Barone et al. 2007).

Prior attitudes towards a cause (Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005), cause familiarity (Bendapudi et al., 1996; Lafferty and Edmondson, 2009; Lafferty et al., 2004; Singh et al., 2009), or perceived value fit between the consumer and a branded charity (e.g., Bennett, 2003) are explored in previous research. Cause type, such as whether it addresses a primary or secondary need (e.g., Cornwell and Coote, 2005; Demetriou et al., 2010); cause scope or proximity, whether local, national, or international (e.g., Grau and Folse, 2007; Ross et al., 1992); and cause acuteness, such as a natural disaster versus an ongoing cause have been investigated (e.g., Cui et al., 2003; Ellen et al., 2000). Here, Cui et al. (2003) predict the main effects of cause scope and cause acuteness in a purchase intentions context. Cui et al. (2003) believe that a CRM offer is evaluated more positively when firms help a disaster cause rather than on ongoing cause. Greater purchase intention is generated by positive evaluation of a disaster cause than those with less positive evaluation of an ongoing cause. This view is consistent with the cause acuteness study conducted by Ross et al. (1990;1991). Ross et al. (1990; 1991) state that consumers are more likely to support a disaster relief than an ongoing cause, such as providing shelter for the homeless and protection of the environment. There is no significant difference between evaluating a CRM offer associated with a local cause and evaluating a CRM offer associated with a national cause (Cui et al., 2003). In contrast, Rose et al. (1990; 1991) state that most individuals support causes that are local or regional rather than national or international. Moreover, Strahilevitz and Meyers (1998) believe that the brand-cause fit has great impact on the success of the CRM practice. Similarly, Strahilevitz (1999) suggests that a good cause–brand fit result in greater purchase intention than a poor cause–brand fit.

Although firm utilisation of CRM is growing fast annually (La Ferle e al., 2013), CRM campaigns do not always improve consumer response. It can lead to adverse and unanticipated effects (Grolleau et al., 2016). With consumers' expectation levels continuously increasing (Podnar and Golob, 2007), sophisticated customers are looking at the behaviour of the firms. They are concerned if firms that participate in CRM activities are interested in good causes or the firms' own financial interest (Schwartz, 1996). The adverse effects of CRM have been less well documented in marketing studies (Grolleau et al., 2016). Although consumers may still be interested in CRM, negative attitudes such as scepticism

(Smith and Higgins, 2000; Beckmann et al., 2017) and cynicism (Chang and Cheng, 2015) can be triggered when consumers question whether a company's support of a charity is designed to benefit the company itself (Kim and Lee, 2009; Adkins, 2011) or when consumers are concerned about whether a designated cause can receive a portion of the proceeds of the sale of CRM products (Barone et al., 2000). Since CRM has become increasingly popular nowadays (Guerreiro et al., 2016), consumers' familiarity with CRM and/or a growing scepticism of the practice (Smith and Higgins, 2000) may limit its effectiveness (Szykman et al., 2004). For example, Indian consumers who have less experience of CRM have more positive evaluation of CRM than the consumers in the USA who are exposed to more CRM campaigns (La Ferle e al., 2013).

While developing a CRM campaign, companies often encounter difficulties when trying to merge social and commercial objectives (Polonsky and Wood, 2001). Choosing a well-liked cause cannot ensure a good outcome for a CRM campaign (Simmons and Becker-Olsen (2006). If there is a high fit between brand and cause, the consumers are more likely to consider the CRM campaign as natural and genuine (Gorton et al., 2013). However, a poor brand-cause fit can give rise to consumer cynicism (Gorton et al., 2013). Similarly, Hawkins (2012) considered consumer cynicism as one of the negative effect of CRM campaigns. While previous studies (e.g., Paek and Nelson, 2009; Chang, 2011; Hawkins, 2012) suggested the occurrence of consumer cynicism in a CRM context, consumer cynicism has not yet been empirically investigated in the CRM literature.

2.3 Cynicism

2.3.1 Origin of Cynicism

The concept of cynicism has been discussed from numerous disciplines. To obtain a thorough understanding of cynicism, we must have a sense of the broader meaning of cynicism. It has both positive and negative connotations rooted in its etymology. The word is traceable back to classical Greece in the fourth century. Ancient Greek cynics pursued high standards of ethics and morality. They often viciously attacked others who did not support these values (Dudley, 1937). The first cynic to bear the name was Diogenes whose philosophy was to live a life of virtue in agreement with nature (Karadag et al., 2014). Diogenes rejected all desires for wealth, power, health, and fame by living a simple life without possessions (Valatka, 2016). He believed that the world belonged equally to everyone. Diogenes suggested that people could gain real happiness and freedom by abandoning fame, wealth, and power (Valatka, 2016). To prove this, he lived in a tub, a life stripped down to the necessities. For this reason, people called him *dog* (Roberts, 2006). But he embraced the label, which became his badge or symbol. The word "cynic" thus originated from the Greek word for dog. Therefore, cynicism was a philosophy of simplicity critically applied to the excesses of society and its powers (Goldfarb, 1991).

Since the time of Diogenes, the philosophy of cynicism had undergone various twists and turns. In the modern sense of the word, cynics saw little benefit in strict adherence to ethics and morality, and instead believed that people are motivated primarily by their own self-interests (Kanter and Mirvis, 1989). Those who still embraced cynicism often separated themselves from the rest of society, believing that society-at-large has largely abandoned its core value system. They believed that politicians only took action when there is personal gain, and that corporations are primarily motivated by greed and corruption (Goldfarb, 1991).

2.3.2 Definition of Cynicism

The Oxford English dictionary defines cynicism as an inclination to believe that people are motivated purely by self-interest; or an inclination to question whether something would happen or whether it was worthwhile (Oxford Dictionary of English, 2015). This modern definition of cynicism is in marked contrast to the ancient philosophy, which emphasized strict adherence to ethics and morality. Modern cynicism in general is a much more complex phenomenon than the cynicism of antiquity. Most studies of cynicism defined it as an attitude towards an object (such as business), susceptible to change by exposure to factors in the environment (e.g. Stern, et al., 1990; Bateman et al., 1992; Mirvis and Kanter, 1992; Wanous et al., 1994).

The main definitional approaches were found in cynicism studies outside of consumer behaviour, for example, in the context of personality (Cook and Medley 1954; Pope et al. 1993), organisational behaviour (Andersson 1996; Andersson and Bateman 1997; Dean et al. 1998; Wanous et al. 2000), social cynicism (Mirvis and Kanter 1991; Andersson 1996; Andersson and Bateman 1997), and political cynicism (Miller 1974; Lee 2003; Dermody and Hanmer-Lloyd, 2004). Different opinions arose when defining the general concept of cynicism. Cynicism was often linked to distrust, dissatisfaction, and disconfirmed expectations. For example, Costa et al. (1985) considered cynicism as distrusting and disparaging attitudes towards the motives of others and belief in the selfishness of human nature. Cook and Medley (1959) also defined cynicism as an attitude distinguished by a dislike for and distrust of others (p. 418). However, other researchers argued that cynicism was different from trust (or distrust) in its broader nature. Kanter and Mirvis (1989, p. 3) described cynicism as “unrealistic expectations lead to disappointment, which leads to disillusion, a sense of being let down or of letting oneself down, and more darkly, the sense of being deceived, betrayed or used by others". Andersson and Bateman (1997) regarded cynicism as an attitude consisting of negative feelings and disappointment. It was also described as a belief that people are untrustworthy and insincere (Costa et al., 1985; Wrightsman, 1992).

There are many definitions of cynicism in the marketing literature. Chylinski and Chu (2010) defined cynicism as the attitude of suspicion in the marketplace, where suspicion incorporates the belief that firms are motivated by self-interest. Adorno et al. (1950) and Turner and Valentine (2001) defined cynicism similarly as a moral dimension that involves strong levels of distrust, hostile impugning, and vilification of the motives of another person. Rosenbaum and Kuntze (2003) noted that contemporary anomie is indeed cynicism. Consumers high in cynicism are more materialistic and more likely to be involved in unethical retail disposition. However, Helm et al. (2015) regarded consumer cynicism as a stable, learned attitude towards the marketplace characterized by the perception that pervasive opportunism among firms exists and that this opportunism creates a harmful consumer marketplace. Moreover, Mikkonen et al. (2011) regarded consumer cynicism as a form of resistance against the normalized forms of subjectivity that marketing institutions offer to consumers in the marketplace. Different from other researchers, Mikkonen et al. (2011, p.101) presented a more positive perspective on cynicism as a “practice of problematizing and reflecting upon the roles and practices of one's own as a market actor" rather than viewing consumer cynicism as a negative force that have adverse effects on both firms and consumers (Austin et al., 2005). As such, they viewed consumer cynicism as a form of consumer criticism and resistance, but "more radical in its aggressively confrontational rhetoric" (Mikkonen et. al., 2011, p.101).

Based on Greek Cynicism, Odou and Pechpeyrou (2011) outlined from a psychological perspective four forms of consumer cynicism in relation to resistance and anti-consumption behaviours: defensive consumer cynicism; offensive consumer cynicism; subversive consumer cynicism; and ethical consumer cynicism. Defensive cynicism refers to the belief that companies are only motived by self-interest, which lead consumers to distrust altruistic corporate motives (Lee et al., 2009). Defensive consumer cynicism is similar to the definition of cynicism by Chylinski and Chu (2010) who regard cynicism as the attitude of suspicion in the marketplace, where suspicion incorporates the belief that firms were motivated by self-interest. Offensive consumer cynicism means that consumers adopt the self-interest logic to deal with firms. Consumers believe that "Everybody is looking out for his own interest and one should get the most before being fooled by someone else" (Odou and Pechpeyrou, 2011). Offensive consumer cynicism is viewed as an opportunistic exploitation of marketing resources such as promotions, free products, and cash refund offers to achieve free consumption (Odou et al., 2009). In fact, offensive consumer cynicism very much conforms to social cynicism. In addition, offensive consumer cynicism was viewed more from a social cynicism perspective. It was very important to have a clear boundary between consumer cynicism and social cynicism. However, to judge the appropriateness of Odou and Pechpeyrou (2011)'s definition of consumer cynicism is beyond the scope of the current study. Subversive consumer cynicism should be defined as "a provocative and discursive practice denouncing sarcastically the marketplace colonization" (Odou and Pechpeyrou, 2011, p. 1803). Individuals who engage in subversive cynicism may attack the very symbol of consumerist ideology. Similarly, Ancient Greek cynics often viciously attacked others who did not support their values (Dudley, 1937). Subversive consumer cynicism is similar to Ancient Greek cynicism but with less demand to be true to oneself. Ethical consumer cynicism is also taken from the perspectives of Ancient Greek cynicism. Ethical consumer cynicism is defined as "a spiritual quest for a natural self, stripped of the commoditization imposed by a deluded consumerist society" (Odou and Pechpeyrou, 2011, p. 1804). The aim of ethical consumer cynicism is to have full control of one's own needs and consumption.

The concept of cynicism has been studied at either a general level, such as those related to social and personality cynicism (Kanter and Mirvis, 1989; Clark, 1994; Abraham, 2000), or specific to targets, such as organizational or employee cynicism (Dean et al., 1998; Abraham, 2000). Stanley et al. (2005) defined cynicism as "disbelief of another's stated or implied motives for a decision or action" (p. 436). This definition focuses on motives, which aims to distinguish cynicism from scepticism (Stanley et al., 2005). The present study supports the definition of cynicism by Stanley et al., (2005), as it is essential to distinguish cynicism from scepticism. In addition, this definition (Stanley et al., 2005) can be applied across several contexts (Stanley et al., 2005; Van Dolen et al., 2012). In the present context, our primary focus is on consumer cynicism in a CRM context. Therefore, consumer cynicism is defined as an attitude characterized by a disbelief in a firm's underlying motives for using CRM as a marketing practice. Cynical consumers believe that the firm seeks its own benefit more and has less regard for genuinely helping a designated cause by employing CRM.

The definition of consumer cynicism by Stanley et al. (2005) focused on the cognitive component of cynicism (Stanley et al., 2005). In this research, Attribution Theory and the TPB were used to investigate consumer cynicism (see Section 3.2). In the TPB model, attitude refers to attitude toward behaviour (Ajzen, 2002), which in this case is consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products. Therefore, the definition adapted from Stanley et al. (2005) is only used when applying Attribution Theory in this research.

2.3.3 The Difference between Cynicism and Scepticism

The concept with which cynicism is easily confused is scepticism. Although they are closely related, a growing body of empirical evidence indicates that cynicism is distinct from scepticism (Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998; Stanley, 2005; Tan and Tan, 2007). Sceptics doubts facts (truths) but are open to persuasion if proof is provided (Kanter and Mirvis, 1989). In contrast, cynics not only disbelieve facts but also the motives behind them. Sceptical consumers recognize that companies have specific motives, such as persuading consumers, and disbelieve companies' claims and their truthfulness (Mangleburg and Bristol 1998; Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998). Therefore, sceptical consumers are cautious of and against scams. They take precautions such as reading the fine print, checking the warranty, shopping around, and researching major purchases. They believe many companies are trustworthy and there are only a few truly untrustworthy or unethical companies (Boush, Friestad, and Rose, 1994). Scepticism is also described as a negative attitude but is regarded as an important skill for consumers to acquire in respect to advertising (Armstrong, and Goldberg, 1988; Boush, Friestad, and Rose, 1994; Brucks et al., 1998). For example, sceptical consumers are likely to doubt the credibility of advertising and tend to seek out more information about it.

Cynicism and scepticism also differ in terms of degree of optimism (Reichers et al., 1997). Cynics are generally more optimistic about things than sceptics. By comparison, cynicism is more aggressive and associated with disparaging, defensive, and withdrawing behaviour. When persuasive advertising messages occur, cynical consumers attempt to protect themselves against unwanted marketing persuasion (Friestad and Wright, 1995; Campbell and Kirmani, 2000; Barlow and Stewart, 2008). Cynical consumers have more resentment compared to sceptical consumers. Turner and Valentine (2001) believe that cynicism is a more aggressive attitude and is a stronger form of scepticism (Turner and Valentine, 2001).

The difference between scepticism and cynicism is also evidenced in CRM research. In the context of CRM, scepticism (e.g. Baronet et al., 2000; Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Chang and Cheng, 2015) is when consumers have concerns about whether their purchase of CRM products can actually contribute to the designated cause (Barone et al., 2000). Cynicism (Smith and Higgins, 2000) is when consumers have doubts about the firm's motives for participating in CRM practice (Singh et al., 2009). There are many studies that examine scepticism in the context of CRM (Brønn and Vrioni, 2001; Kim, 2005; Kim and Lee, 2009; Folse et al, 2010; Skarmeas and Leonidou, 2013; Chaabane and Parguel, 2016; Patel et al., 2017). In contrast, despite a rising interest in consumer cynicism in the context of CRM (e.g. Paek and Nelson, 2009; Andersen and Johansen, 2016), the studies of consumer cynicism in a CRM context is still limited. The occurrence and importance of CRM (e.g., Meyer, 1999; Smith and Higgins, 2000; Paek and Nelson, 2009; Chang, 2011; Hawkins, 2012) is emphasised in the literature, but no further exploration is evident. The rationale for the current research on cynicism stems from the fact that consumer cynicism is still an under-researched area in marketing (Chylinski and Chu, 2010). Therefore, the findings of this study can significantly contribute to literature on consumer cynicism and CRM literature.

2.3.4 Social Cynicism

Social cynicism is also called societal cynicism in some studies, such as in the works of Abraham (2000), Helm (2006), and Stavrova and Ehlebracht (2016). Social cynicism was first defined by Kanter and Wortzel (1985) as suspicion of other people's motives and honesty, accompanied by a feeling of disconnectedness and frustrations with society. Abraham (2000) regards social cynicism as a relatively stable and learned attitude with negative affect. Social cynicism refers to a negative view of human nature, which not only reflects the hostility of people towards each other, but also the hostility towards social institutions and society at large (Bond et al., 2004; Stavrova and Ehlebracht, 2016).

Social cynicism is common in today's world. Social cynics believe that everyone acts selfishly (Byze et al, 2017). Social cynicism can result in lower life satisfaction (Lai et al., 2007) and lower job satisfaction (Leung et al., 2010). Individuals who are high in social cynicism often engage in relationship conflicts, such as interpersonal incompatibilities, hostility, and arguing among group members (Friedman et al., 2000).

Social cynicism was viewed as a suspicion of the motives of other persons, groups, and institutions (McCrae and Williams, 1985; Abraham, 2000; Hochwarter et al., 2004; Costa et al., 2008). Individuals who are high in social cynicism are more likely to question the motives of other individuals or institutions (Helm, 2006). Social cynicism was found to be an antecedent of consumer cynicism (Helm, 2006). Therefore, individuals who are high in social cynicism are more likely to be cynical consumers who question the motives of companies and their claims, although not all cynical consumers are social cynics. Similarly, Kanter and Wortzel (1985) noted that individuals with social cynicism are more likely to refuse testimonial and demonstration advertising approaches than non-cynics. On the contrary, Boush et al. (1993) believed that social cynicism was not related to mistrust of advertising, which meant that social cynicism is different from consumer cynicism.

2.3.5 Political Cynicism

Agger, et al. (1961) defined political cynicism as "the extent to which people hold politicians and politics in disrepute, the extent to which these words symbolise something negative rather than something positive" (p. 477). The term political cynicism has evolved into many different meanings, such as "disconnect of politics" (Strama, 1998, p. 75), "distrust in politicians" (Fu et al., 2011, p. 46), and "lack of confidence in the government" (Valentino, et al., 2001, p. 349). Political cynicism is distinct from social cynicism because social cynics doubt the motives of all human beings, while political cynicism is restricted to politicians (Pattyn et al., 2012).

Doubts about the motives of politicians (Pattyn et al., 2012) or the competition between political candidates can result in political cynicism (Cappella and Jamieson, 1997). Negative political news coverage is found to be linked to political cynicism (Guggenheim et al., 2011). Individuals who evaluate the government negatively are also more likely to be highly cynical (De Vreese, 2005; De Vreese and Semetko, 2002; Newton, 2006; Elenbaas and De Vreese, 2008). Several factors contributed to the causes of political cynicism, such as politicians' reduced responses to voters' concerns (Newton, 2006), negative perceptions of the economy, and political scandals (Chanley et al., 2000).

The effect of political cynicism is mostly negative; it is potentially dangerous for democracy (Pattyn et al., 2012) and can affect voter turnout (Opdycke et al., 2013). Political cynicism has an impact on reducing electoral and political involvement (e.g., Patterson, 2002) and can result in protest behaviour (Van Stekelenburg, 2013). In addition, individuals with higher political cynicism are less likely to vote (Pinkleton and Austin, 2004). . Furthermore, the joint effect of political cynicism and perceived unfairness can result in higher protest behaviour (Lee and Glasure, 2007; Van Stekelenburg, 2013). Political cynics are more likely to support protest parties (Bélanger and Aarts, 2006; Bergh, 2004; Pattyn et al., 2012) and vote for anti-policy makers (Bélanger and Aarts, 2006) and establishment parties (i.e., right-wing extremist) as a way to protest against them.

2.3.6 Consumer Cynicism in Cause-related Marketing

In this study, consumer cynicism is considered as an attitude which is reflected by disbelief of a firm's underlying motives for participating in CRM practice (Stanley et al., 2005). As discussed in section 2.3.3, cynicism relates to, but is empirically different from scepticism (Reichers et al., 1997; Turner and Valentine, 2001; Stanley, 2005; Tan and Tan, 2007).

CRM, as a form of corporate social responsibility, can spark consumer cynicism (Meyer, 1999), as consumers can perceive companies involved in CRM practice as acting out of their own interest and for their own profits, rather than altruism (Dean 2004). When consumers believe that firms are using CRM as a means to increase profits, cynicism can be generated. Research has evidenced consumer cynicism in the context of CRM (e.g., Andersen and Johansen, 2016). When firms involved in CRM are seen as exploiting the cause, negative consumer attitude such as consumer cynicism is triggered (Forehand and Grier, 2003). In contrast, when firms are perceived as acting out of genuine concern for society, a more favourable attitude is generated (Du et al. 2010). When marketing communication makes consumers aware of company's CRM efforts, a key challenge for firms that engage in CRM practice is to overcome consumer cynicism (Andersen and Johansen, 2016).

Companies that participate in CRM practice often place more emphasis on their altruistic motives (Zdravkovic et al., 2010). However, consumers can perceive firms' motives for being involved in CRM activities as exploiting the cause to increase profits (Forehand and Grier, 2003; Du et al., 2010). Firms are viewed as not acting out of genuine concern for society (Plewa et al., 2015). Although consumers are tolerant of the fact that companies are motivated by strategic inferences to participate in socially responsible behaviour, consumer cynicism can still be generated when consumers believe that the firm is using CRM as a means to increase profits or distract from apparent problems (Andersen and Johansen, 2016).

Various research has demonstrated how the brand-cause fit is essential in CRM practice (Bennett, 2003; Rifon et al., 2004; Pracejus and Olsen, 2004; Trimble and Rifon, 2006; Chiagouris and Ray, 2007; Nan and Heo, 2007; Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2012; Chéron et al., 2012). The degree of the fit that consumers perceive between the brand and cause has a great impact on consumer attitude and purchase intention (e.g., Aaker and Keller, 1990; Rifon *et al*., 2004; Nan and Heo, 2007). Poor brand-cause fit is evidenced to give rise to negative attitude (Rifon et al., 2004) such as cynicism. For example, when Chevron, an oil company, ran a CSR campaign to emphasize its concern for social and environmental causes in 2000, the campaign inevitably resulted in an increase of consumer cynicism (Tixier, 2003).

Consumer cynicism is regarded as one of the risks firms face when participating in CRM activities (Chiagouris and Ray, 2007; Hawkins, 2012). Chang (2011) stated that consumer cynicism can reduce consumers' purchase intention. In this research, cynicism is about the doubts of a firm's underlying motives for participating in CRM practice (Stanley et al., 2005). Taking into consideration the aforementioned studies on CRM, Chang's study can extend current knowledge by identifying the link between consumers' perceptions of company motives, consumer cynicism, and subsequent behaviour in response to the influence of different CRM stimuli, such as brand-cause fit and donation situation. The existing literature only evidence the occurrence of consumer cynicism in CRM (Smith and Higgins, 2000; Paek and Nelson, 2009; Chang, 2011; Hawkins, 2012) without further exploration, which provides this research with a strong rationale to investigate consumer cynicism.

2.4 Summary

This chapter discusses the literature in relation to CRM and cynicism. First, the definitions of CRM were reviewed and the differences between CRM, CSR, and social marketing were discussed. This research chose to focus on the type of CRM in which a portion of the sales of products are given to a worthy cause. Therefore, CRM in this research is a part of overall CSR strategy. Company motives for engaging in CRM practices and consumers' perception of company motives were discussed. Positive and negative effects of CRM were also discussed in Section 2.2.4. The adverse effect of CRM on consumer attitude were highlighted and the effect of brand-cause fit and effect of donation situation (i.e., ongoing and natural disaster causes) were reviewed. Next, a review of consumer research on CRM was presented to demonstrate different studies that examined consumer behaviour in the context of CRM.

The chapter also shed the light on the definitions of cynicism and consumer cynicism. Efforts were put into distinguishing cynicism and scepticism, which assists in drawing a clear boundary around the focus of the current study. The chapter moved on to discuss social cynicism and political cynicism in order to gain a comprehensive and in-depth understanding of the research topic. A further review of consumer research in the context of CRM was presented to address the importance of understanding consumer cynicism in a CRM context. The following chapter will focus on reviewing the theoretical basis and presenting the research hypothesis and the research conceptual model.

CHAPTER THREE: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Introduction

This chapter details the conceptual framework and the hypotheses development. Attribution theory and TPB are reviewed in Section 3.2, which provides a theoretical basis for conceptual model development. A review of literature on the Attribution Theory, TPB, self-efficacy, and the difference between perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy, is presented in Section 3.2.1 and 3.2.2. Section 3.3 discusses the theoretical model development. Two models were proposed based on Attribution Theory and TPB. This section discusses the propositions for this research and testable research hypotheses are produced from the propositions. Finally, the chapter ends with a summary in Section 3.4.

3.2 Theoretical Background

3.2.1 Attribution Theory

Attribution theory (Heider, 1944) explains how individuals infer the motives of the behaviour of others around them, considering what caused the behaviour and how it can be explained (Heider, 1958). Heider suggested that individuals try to develop explanations for why actions have occurred and make causal inferences. It is believed that people make attributions to achieve a greater understanding of the social world (Kelley 1973; Kelley and Michela, 1980). Attribution theory has been successfully applied to the business context in various instances. For example, Folkes (1984) provides a well-developed approach for describing how people make causal inferences about the behaviour of individuals or firms. Consumers may use aspects of the offer to make inferences about the motives of the company. These inferences may, in turn, affect their evaluation of the offer.

Fritz Heider was the first to develop attribution theory (Jones, 2001), which was defined as "the linking of an event with its underlying conditions" (Heider, 1958, p. 89). Heider's work have strong influence on the study of social psychology, achievement motivation theories, and consumer behaviour (Goethals, 2003). According to Heider (1958), individuals do not look for underlying causes out of curiosity, but rather to give meaning to behaviour (Petri and Govern, 2004). Individuals view behaviour as being caused either by the individual in question (i.e., dispositional), or by the environment (situational). It makes a distinction between internal and external causes - that is, whether people initiate actions themselves, or whether they purely react to the environment in which the action takes place (Heider, 1958). Understanding individuals' inferences of events and behaviour that they experience can lead to predicting people's reactions and controlling them (Phelps and Ellis, 2002; Trope and Gaunt 2003). This fundamental view has been embraced by many researchers (Jones, 2001).

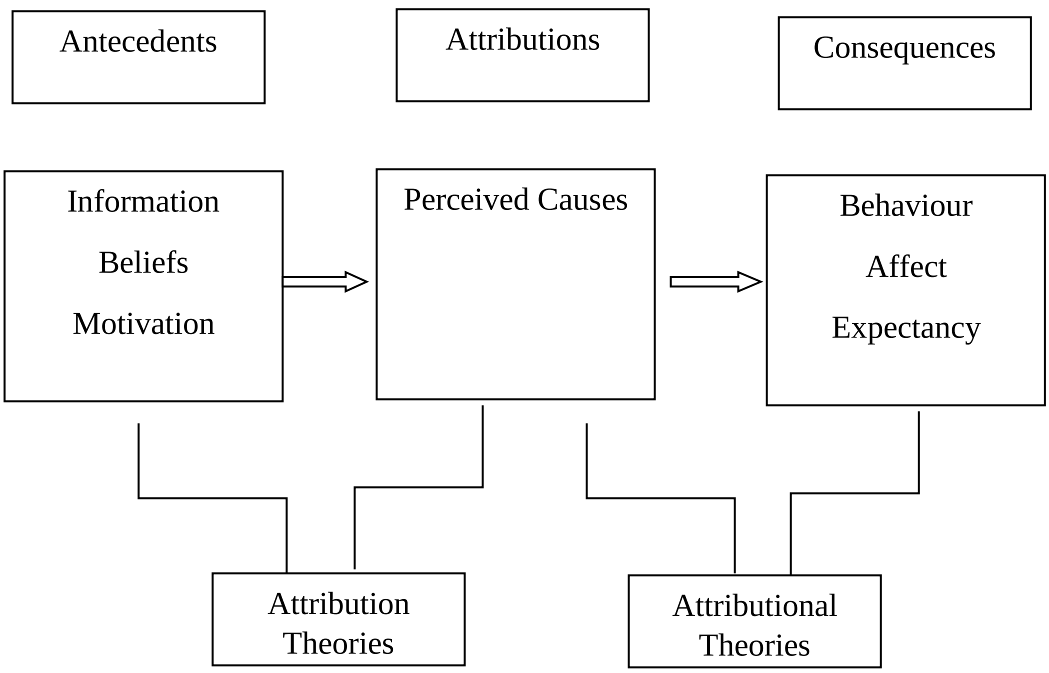
In 1967, Kelley extended attribution and explained how individuals make judgements about internal and external causes. He believed that individuals make causal attributions depending on the information available to them. Kelley's principle of covariation means a person can obtain information from multiple observations made at different times and in varying situations and can perceive the covariation of an observed event and its causes (Kelley, 1967). However, individuals often make causal attributions based on the information from a single observation. The attribution theory suggests that consumer judgement of a firm's actions is influenced by their attribution of the causes of the firms’ performance. Consumers’ attributions of firms’ behaviour then determine how they respond.

Weiner (1980) elaborated on attribution theory and specifically identified causal dimensions or underlying causal structure. Weiner's theory has been widely applied in education, law, clinical psychology, and the marketing domain. According to Weiner (1980), attributions are classified into three causal dimensions, namely, locus, stability, and controllability, which can lead to an individual’s overall judgment of the responsibility for an event, activity, or behaviour (Weiner, 1980). Locus refers to an individual's perception about the underlying main causes or explanation of an event, which can be internal or external. Stability refers to whether the causes will remain constant (stable) or change over time (unstable). Controllability relates to whether the attribution is within or outside the control of the actor (Weiner, 1986). Attribution theory predicts a relationship between attributions and subsequent attitudes and behaviours (Kelly and Michela, 1980). Different emotional responses, expectations, and behavioural tendencies are generated when individuals perceive the “cause” of an activity or event from different dimensions (Schiff and Bento, 2000). Only locus is taken into account when seeking to identify the consumers’ perceptions of company motives for engaging in CRM practice. Locus refers to an individual's perception about the underlying motives of the firms’ CRM activities (Weiner, 1986). Stability and controllability dimensions are only relevant to firms’ own marketing decisions and cannot be affected by consumer related factors. A firm’s motives for engaging in CRM practice can be viewed by consumers as either driven by internal causes (intrinsic motives) (e.g., monetary motives) or external causes (extrinsic motives) (e.g. motives for supporting a good cause) (Ellen et al., 2000). Intrinsic motives might result in more negative attitudes (e.g., consumer cynicism) towards CRM practice, whereas extrinsic motives can lead to positive attitudes (Parguel, et al., 2011).

3.2.1.1 General Model of Attribution Theory

A general model of the attribution field was suggested by Kelley and Michela (1980). They believed that individuals achieve a greater understanding of the social world by making attributions to events and behaviours (Kelley 1973; Kelley and Michela, 1980). According to Kelley and Michela (1980), information, beliefs, and motivation are considered antecedents of causal attributions. Behaviour, affect, and expectancy are viewed as consequences of individuals making attribution. The model is shown in Figure 3.1. “Attribution Theories” refer to the effect of various factors on perceived motives and the term “Attributional Theories” to refer to analyses focusing on the consequences of attributions (Kelley and Micchela, 1980).

Figure 3.1 General Model of Attribution Field



Source: Kelley and Michela (1980)

The first antecedent factor is information. According to Fiske and Taylor (1991), “attribution theory deals with how the social perceiver uses information to arrive at causal explanations for events. It examines what information is gathered and how it is combined to form a causal judgment” (p. 23). In other words, individuals use information to make causal attributions about the behaviour of others around them. Kelley (1973) classified three types of information that individuals use to infer causes of events or behaviour, namely, consensus, distinctiveness, and consistency. Consensus refers to whether other people or companies behave similarly in the same given situation. Distinctiveness refers to whether people or companies behave in a particular way in a particular situation such that the behaviour changes when the situation changes. Consistency refers to whether people or companies behave similarly across time and situations. In this research, the information is based on experimental stimuli or scenarios. Therefore, it is beyond the scope of the current study to explore the consensus, distinctiveness, and consistency of the information. The experimental stimuli or scenarios (high versus low brand-cause fit and ongoing versus natural disaster cause) are used as the information sources for individuals' causal attributions about firms' CRM practices. Attributions are also influenced by individual's beliefs. Beliefs that are associated with pre-existing suppositions and expectations can influence perceived causes (Kelley and Michela, 1980). The last antecedent of causal attributions focuses on an individual's motivations to arrive at a given conclusion (Kelley and Michela, 1980). This means that individuals evaluate whether other people's or organisations' behaviour could affect the individual's welfare. The individual's motivation, which is elicited by the consequences of other people's or organisations' behaviour, is likely to have some influence on the processing of information about the action (ibid).

The behaviour of other people can be predicted by causal attributions (Kelley, 1973). Weiner (1985) suggested a relationship between attributional thinking and specific feelings. "Attribution-affect behaviour" and that "attributions play a key role in affective life" was suggested (Weiner, 1985, p. 563). Weiner also viewed expectancy as a consequence of casual attribution. The causal attributions people make can influence expectancy of future events or behaviour (Weiner et al., 1971).

Attribution theory provides an appropriate framework for exploring the role of consumer cynicism towards CRM. First, the theory has been widely used in the studies of corporate social responsibility (e.g., Tsiros et al., 2004; Ellen, et al., 2006; Parguel, et al., 2011; Skarmeas and Leonidou, 2013; Green and Peloza, 2014) and CRM (Ellen et al., 2000; Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2009; Tsai, 2009). Second, attribution theory is relevant to the CRM context because consumers express great interest in finding out why firms engage in CRM practices (Ellen et al., 2000) and show little confidence in corporate efforts to appear as "good corporate citizens" (Ellen et al., 2006, p. 152). Therefore, attribution theory is used in this study to explore the role of consumer cynicism towards CRM by examining consumers' perceptions of firms' motives for engaging in CRM activities and how consumers' perceptions of company motives influence their subsequent attitudes and behaviour (Ellen, et al., 2000; Vlachos et al., 2009).

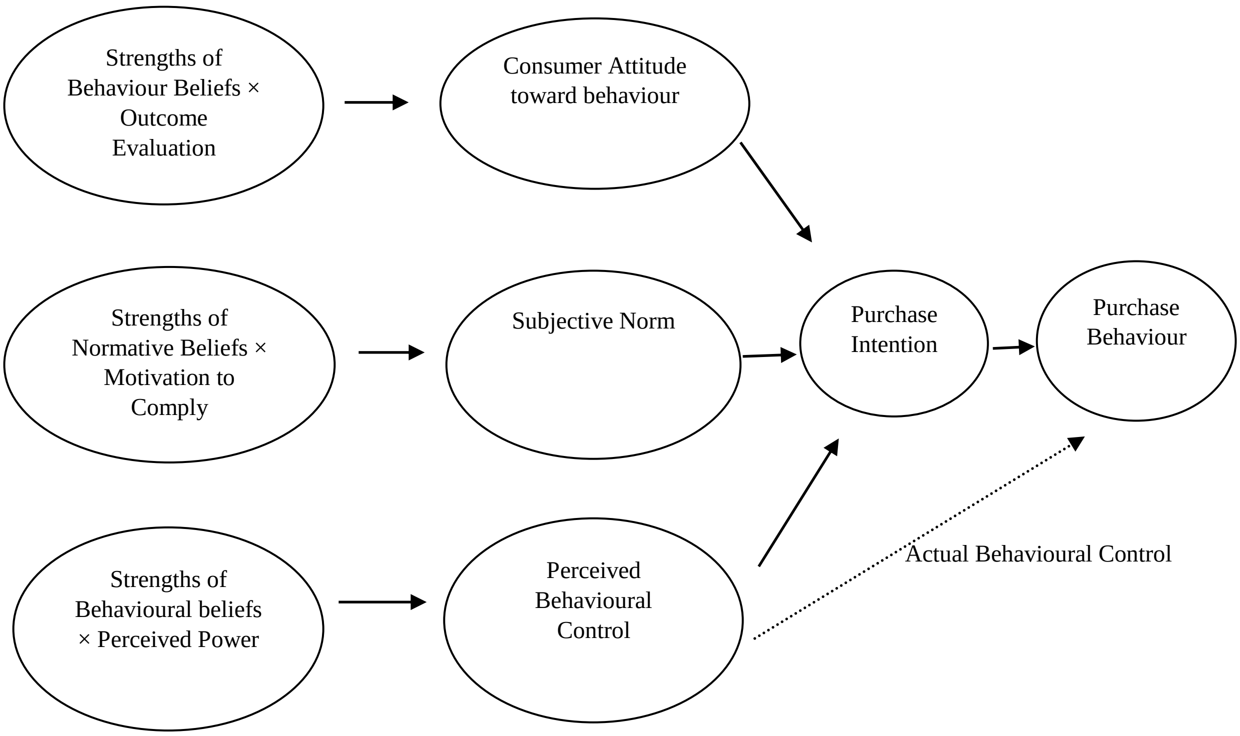
3.2.2 Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)

Before proceeding to the explanation of the TPB model and its adaptation to the study at hand, it is worth mentioning the rationale for applying the TPB to the current research. Vice (2011) stated that cynics are aware of their attitude and required responses. This view is reflected in the literature on political cynicism. For example, despite the negative orientation of cynicism, studies of political cynicism indicated that cynicism does not always prevent individuals from voting (Demordy et al., 2010). This means that while individuals are aware of their cynicism towards voting, they still choose to a vote. Therefore, the TPB was considered appropriate to use for this study in an attempt to capture the degree to which an individual, who is cynical towards purchasing CRM products, feels that the purchase is under his or her control, which is known as perceived behavioural control (PBC). Although the TPB has been used in many studies to investigate the influence of attitudes towards a range of social and personal behaviours, the TPB has not yet been applied to investigating consumer cynicism as an attitude in the context of CRM. The details on how the TPB explains the relationships in the model are discussed below.

The theory of reasoned action (TRA) was developed to examine the relationship between attitudes and behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). According to the TRA, an individual's behaviour performance is determined by his or her intention to perform that behaviour. This intention is then determined by attitudes and subjective norms (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975; Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). The TPB is an extension of the theory of reasoned action. The addition of perceived behavioural control created the shift from the theory of reasoned action to the TPB (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Hence, TPB (Ajzen, 1991a) consists of three determinants of intention, namely, attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control (PBC). Behaviour is believed to be a direct function of intention, which in turn results from relevant attitudes, subjective norms, and PBC (Ajzen, 1991).

The TPB has been used successfully to predict and explain a wide range of behaviours and intentions such as health behaviours (Louis et al., 2007; Duncan et al., 2012; Karimi-Shahanjarini et al., 2012), consumer behaviours (Smith et al., 2008), social-responsibility behaviours (Nolan et al., 2008), charitable intentions to donate (Knowles et al., 2012), and a number of other behaviours (e.g., Armitage and Conner, 2001; Manning, 2009; Chudry et al., 2011; McLachlan and Haggar, 2011). The TPB is also evidenced to explain the behaviour intentions of ethical consumers (e.g., Shaw et al., 2000; Whitmarsh and O'Neill, 2010; Shaw and Shiu, 2003; Bezençon and Blili, 2010). Attribution theory and the TPB are both used as the foundation of the theoretical framework for this study. An overview of the TPB theory helps in gaining a better understanding of the relationship between theoretical constructs and consumer cynicism as an attitude in the context of CRM. In the TPB model presented in Figure 3.2, the influences of beliefs were also emphasized.

Figure 3.2 Theory of Planned Behaviour



Source: Ajzen (1985) and Ajzen (2002a)

According to Figure 3.2, the immediate determinant of a behaviour is an individual's intention to perform or not to perform that behaviour. Behaviour intention is then influenced by three determinants: attitude towards performing the behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control in the context where the decision takes place. The relevant weight of the three determinants usually vary according to the behaviour that is being predicted and the conditions under which the behaviour is to be performed (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Perceived behavioural control refers to an individual's perceived ease or difficulty of performing behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Ajzen (2002a) adds actual behavioural control (ABC), which is linked to both perceived behavioural control and actual behaviour. ABC refers to the extent to which an individual has the abilities, resources (e.g., time, money skills, and etc.) and other fundamentals to perform a specific behaviour (Ajzen, 1985).

Individuals, who have sufficient degree of actual control over their behaviour, are expected to perform their intention when given the opportunities (Ibid). Thus, intention performs as an immediate antecedent of behaviour. In Figure 3.2, the link between PBC and ABC is represented by a broken line, in order to represent the notion that the strength of this link depends on the accuracy of one's perceptions. That means that the perceptions of PBC must accurately reflect the control in the situation in which the behaviour will occur (Ajzen, 2002). The low correlation between PBC and behaviour indicates that the perceptions of the control are not sufficiently accurate to predict actual control (Ajzen, 2011).

The context of attitudes in the TPB refers to an individual's positive or negative evaluation of performing a specific behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Subjective norms refer to an individual's perceptions of whether the important others (e.g., parents, close friends, and colleagues) think he or she should engage or should not engage in the behaviour in question (Ajzen, 1991). Subjective norms consist of two components, normative beliefs and motivation to comply. Normative beliefs refer to the individual's perception of what others think he or she should do. Motivation to comply refers to how strongly the individual feels he or she should behave in a way his or her referents think. The combination of normative belief and motivation to comply determines the function of subjective norm in the TPB. Subjective norms were found to be less predictive than attitude for most behaviours (e.g., Ajzen, 1991). Moreover, some researchers believe subjective norms are the weakest predictor of intention in TPB studies (White et al., 1994; Terry and Hogg, 1996; Armitage and Conner, 2001).

According to Ajzen (1991), individuals usually have stronger intention to perform the considered behaviour when they have a more favourable attitude, subjective norms, and greater perceived behavioural control with respect to the given behaviour. Across all behaviours, it is evidenced that the TPB accounted for 27% of the variance in behaviour (Armitage and Conner, 2001). Overall, the perceived behavioural control construct added an average of 2% to the prediction of behaviour, over and above intention. Attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control combined accounted for 39% of the variance in intention (Armitage and Conner, 2001). The subjective norm-intention correlation was found to be significantly weaker than the other relationships with intention (White et al., 1994; Terry and Hogg, 1996; Armitage and Conner, 2001). A number of studies have stated that the TPB is superior to the theory of reasoned action in predicting and explaining social behaviour (Armitage and Conner, 2001; Armitage and Conner 1999b; Hagger et al., 2002). The relative importance of attitude, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control as determinants of intention is expected to vary across behaviours and situations. Therefore, in some studies, attitudes may have a significant impact on intentions. In others, attitudes and perceived behavioural control play a more influencial role in the formation of intentions, and all three predictors make independent contributions. Furthermore, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) suggested that the link between intention and behaviour depends on the stability of intention. The shorter the temporal distance between measurement of intention and observation of behaviour, the more predictive the intention of behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). This is because as time passes, many events or activities can change an individual's behavioural, normative or control belief, attitudes, SN, and PBC, which then bring changes to intentions (McEachan, et al., 2011). These changes can reduce the predictability of intentions that were assessed previously. Therefore, the interval between intention and behaviour should be kept as short as possible in order to minimize the unforeseen factors that can affect the predictive validity of intentions.

3.2.2.1 TPB Construct Definitions

Attitude in TPB refers to an individual's positive or negative evaluation of performing a specific behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Attitude in the context of this study refers to consumer cynicism toward purchasing CRM products. Subjective norms refer to whether the important others (such as family, close friends, colleagues, members of the community) think the consumer should or should not be cynical towards purchasing CRM products. Perceived behavioural control refers to the degree to which an individual feels that the behaviour (i.e., purchasing CRM products) is under his or her control. As "cynicism" and similar terms such as "being cynical" is regarded as a sensitive construct (see justification of sensitive construct in Section 3.4), indirect questioning was used to avoid socially desirable answers and also to ensure "intention or behaviour to purchase CRM products" are from individuals who are cynical about purchasing CRM products".

According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), the relevant weight of the three TPB constructs usually varies depending on the behaviour that is being predicted and the conditions under which the behaviour is to be performed (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). It is a commonplace observation in the TPB literature that the subjective norm construct is the weakest predictor of intention in TPB model (e.g., Armitage and Conner, 2001a; French et al., 2007). In this study however, the predictive power of subjective norm on intention to purchase CRM products is expected to vary according to different CRM campaigns, such as the influence of high brand-cause fit. Although an individual is cynical towards purchasing CRM products, the opinion of important others (such as family, close friends) could play a more influential role in pressuring cynical individuals to develop intentions to purchase CRM products that are perceived by people as good brand-fit products. Similarly, the prediction of PBC on purchase intention and behaviour may vary depending on the CRM offer. Moreover, under the influence of CRM brand-cause fit, the perceived behavioural control of purchasing CRM products is also expected to be different.

The TPB constructs that are developed based on the TPB (Ajzen, 2002) and the results of the elicitation study are stated in Section 3.6.1.6. The following sections describe the relationship between the indirect and direct measures of TPB in general.

3.2.2.2 Behaviour Belief and Attitude towards Behaviour

As a fundamental construct to both social and behavioural sciences (Ajzen, 2001), the concept of attitude has been widely used to explain human behaviour in academic research (Ajzen, 1988). Darwin (1872) was the first to define attitude as the physical expression of an emotion. In the 1930s, components of the attitude concept were explored and critically evaluated by various researchers. In one of the most cited studies in the marketing field, Rosenberg and Hovland (1960, p. 3) define attitudes as "predispositions to respond to some class of stimuli with certain classes of responses and designate the three major types of response as cognitive, affective, and behavioural". The term attitude was then considered as an evaluation of the feelings, beliefs, and actions that an individual may have towards someone or something (e.g., Ostrom, 1969; Zanna and Rempel, 1988). Lutz (1991) believed that "attitude is a key link in the causal chain between attributes, perceptions on the one hand, and intentions and behaviours on the other. Marketers who understand the causal sequence and who use it in decision making have a powerful ally in their battle for superiority in the marketplace" (p. 337). A simple definition of attitude is that it is an "overall evaluation" (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980, p. 55) of an object or behaviour.

An attitude is generally considered to contain three components, namely a cognitive, an affective, and a behavioural component (Rosenberg and Abelson, 1960). The cognitive component (e.g., “This car gets 10 miles per gallon”) contains thoughts or beliefs that individuals may possess about the attitude object (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993). The affective component (e.g., “Owning this car makes me happy”), consists of positive or negative feelings or emotions towards the attitude object (Fabrigar and Petty, 1999). The behavioural component (e.g., “I have always driven this brand of car.”) refers to an individual's actions or intentions to act towards a person, an object, or an event (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993). The affective component is the emotional feeling which results from the cognitive component which contains thoughts and belief. The behavioural component is the tendency to behave in a particular way in response to this feeling (Hegar and Hodgetts, 2011). Hence, attitude is a combination of cognitive, affective, and behavioural components (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993; Hegar and Hodgetts, 2011). The concept of attitude became commonly accepted as "a general and enduring positive or negative feelings about some person, object or issue" (Petty and Cacioppo, 1981, p. 7). This definition, which particularly emphasizes the affective component of attitudes, is used for the attitude construct (i.e., consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) in the TPB model. As discussed in Section 2.3.2, the adapted definition of consumer cynicism by Stanley et al., which focuses on the cognitive component of cynicism, is not suitable for use in the TPB model. The adjectives (see Table 3.11) that are associated with attitude (i.e., consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) were based on the TPB (Ajzen, 2002), and the results of the elicitation study (see Section 3.6.1.6).

Attitude is a complex cognitive process (Maio and Haddock, 2010). Attitude can form directly as a result of direct personal experience or from indirect experience (observation). Attitudes based on direct experience are stronger than those attained through indirect experience such as observation (Fazio and Zanna, 1981; Fazio; Fiske et al., 2010). Reference groups, perceptions, and values also influence the formation of attitudes. Attitudes can be positive, negative, or neutral (Albarracin et al., 2014). Neutral attitudes occur when individuals feel neither positive nor negative about something, although usually attitudes are not neutral (Klopper, et al., 2006). Direct or indirect experiences can result in a positive or negative attitude towards a particular object or behaviour. The increasing popularity of CRM practices have made consumers become more familiar with CRM. This familiarity can lead to positive or negative attitudes towards CRM. Consumers' attitudes towards organisations involved in CRM are primarily positive (Lafferty et al., 2004). However, negative attitudes such as cynicism could be generated when consumers discover that a company is not acting out of altruism (Webb and Mohr, 1998; Roberts and Ryan, 2005).

According to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), people's attitudes towards a behaviour are determined by their accessible beliefs about that specific behaviour, where a belief is defined as the subjective probability that the behaviour will produce a certain outcome. To select the behavioural beliefs necessary to assess consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products in general, a literature review was undertaken to generate a list of reasons cynical consumers would or would not purchase CRM products. Focus groups were conducted to discover the most common and salient beliefs. Attitude in the TPB consists of two components: the strength of behavioural beliefs and the outcome evaluation of the behaviour. Fishbein and Ajzen stated that: "a person's attitude towards a behaviour can be estimated multiplying his evaluation of each of the behaviour's consequences by his subjective probability that performing the behaviour will lead to that consequence, and then summing the products for the total set of beliefs" (1975, p. 223). This definition clearly explains the computation at the base of the model. Accordingly, the total set of accessible beliefs in combination with the subjective values of the expected outcomes determine the degree to which consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products is valued. The detailed computation of the behaviour beliefs was presented in Section 3.6.1.6.

3.2.2.3 Normative Beliefs and Subjective Norm

Subjective norms are determined by individuals' beliefs about the extent to which their significant others want them to perform a behaviour multiplied by their motivation to comply with their significant others' views (Rivis and Sheeran, 2003). Subjective norms play an influencing role when an individual is a member of a significant group (e.g., Terry and Hogg, 1996; Abrams, Abrams et al., 1999; Terry et al., 2000; Christian and Abrams, 2003). However, subjective norm is commonly regarded as the weakest predictor of intention in TPB studies (e.g., Godin and Kok, 1996; Armitage and Conner, 2001a). A major problem with subjective norm is that it is frequently measured by a single item (e.g., Bagozzi and Kimmel, 1995; Paisley and Sparks, 1998). Armitage and Conner (2001a) note that the poor ability of subjective norm to predict intention was caused by the function of its measurement. French et al. (2007) suggest that individuals have difficulties in accurately answering items measuring subjective norms, which result in invalid responses. Some researchers claimed that the conceptualisation of subjective norms in the TPB is too narrow to capture all of the important aspects of social influence (Donald and Cooper, 2001; Terry et al., 2000). According to Ajzen (2002b), subjective norm consists of two aspects, strength of normative beliefs, which are the individual's beliefs about whether their important others would approve or disapprove of them performing the behaviour in question, and motivation to comply, which is the individual's perception of the extent to which their significant others would perform the behaviour themselves. Subjective norm is determined by the multiplication of each normative belief with the person's motivation to comply (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) (see the computation in Section 3.6.1.6).

3.2.2.4 Control Beliefs and Perceived Behavioural Control (PBC)

Despite the overall success of the TPB, the measure of PBC has been controversial. In the early years of the TPB, perceived behavioural control is defined as "the person's belief as to how easy or difficult performance of the behaviour is likely to be" (Ajzen and Madden, 1986, p.457). The direct measurement of PBC has encountered low internal consistency among the items used to assess it (e.g., Ajzen & Driver, 1992; Paisley and Sparks, 1998; Parker et al., 1995). Perceived behavioural control is considered as a function of two types of beliefs: strength of control beliefs, which refer to the likelihood that a factor that prevents or facilitates behaviour will occur, and perceived power, which refers to the perceived power of the barriers to actually prevent or facilitate the performance of a behaviour (Ajzen, 1975). It is assumed that these beliefs determine the prevailing perceived behavioural control which refers to people's perceptions of their ability to perform a given behaviour (Ajzen, 1975).

According to the TPB (Ajzen, 1975), perceived behavioural control could influence intention, and therefore affect behaviour in an indirect manner. Together with behavioural intention, PBC can be used to predict behavioural achievement (Ajzen and Driver, 1992). Furthermore, perceived behavioural control is stipulated to have a direct effect on the behaviour measure. According to the TPB, it is assumed that the easier a behaviour is, the more likely an individual will intend to perform it (Armitage and Christian, 2003). The computation of the behavioural beliefs was presented in Section 3.6.1.6.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy was first introduced as a core concept in social cognition theory, in which it plays a significant role (Bandura 1977, 1982, 1986, 1995). Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief in his or her ability to accomplish a certain task (Bandura, 1982; Mitchell et al., 1994). Gist and Mitchell (1992) noted that efficacy judgments include motivational and integrative aspects. Mitchell et al. (1994, p. 506) concluded that "capability, although based heavily on ability, also reflects a forward-looking prediction of how hard one will work and an integration of both of these factors". Individuals who have high self-efficacy tend to put more effort into a particular behaviour, are more determined to overcome difficulties, and set more challenging goals than those who have low self-efficacy (McKee et al., 2006).

Self-efficacy is considered an important element for inducing action (e.g., Bandura, 1986). Individuals must have belief in their own ability to complete tasks and reach goals before they are willing to make the attempt. For example, several studies have emphasized the important role of self-efficacy in consumer behaviour studies (Terry and O'Leary, 1995; Povey et al., 2000; Kuo and Hsu, 2001; Ajzen 2002; Armitage and Conner, 2006; Shacklock et al., 2011) finds that consumers with higher self-efficacy are expected to have greater intention to purchase ethical products. Self-efficacy has a positive impact on the intention to behave ethically (e.g., Thøgersen, 2000; Rice, 2006). Self-efficacy has been studied in different areas of applied psychology (Gecas, 1989). Individuals with high self-efficacy are more likely to engage in activities supporting a cause (Kim and Um, 2016). Self-efficacy is evident in claims such as "for less than a cup of coffee per day you can help save a needy child" or "Help protect our environment by making these everyday changes at home" (Basil et al., 2008, p. 8). Consumers are more likely to purchase CRM products and services when they believe they can make a difference in solving the problem (e.g., social causes).

Self-efficacy has been found to be related to successful performance in various studies: voting behaviour (Dermody et al., 2010); smoking reduction (Hamilton and Hassan, 2010); salesperson performance (Chelariu and Stump, 2011); problematic gambling (Kaur et al., 2006); coping strategies (Tsarenko and Strizhakova, 2013); patient empowerment (Anderson and Funnel, 2005); internet self-efficacy (Akhter, 2014); high technology adoption (Kulviwat et al., 2014). However, little is known about the impact of self-efficacy on the intention to buy cause-related products (Urbonavičius and Adomavičiūtė, 2015). In addition, the role of self-efficacy in the NPO activities has been little explored (Kim and Um, 2016). According to political cynicism studies, cynical individuals still vote, despite their cynicism, if their self-efficacy is high (Pinkleton and Austin, 2002; De Vreese, 2005, 2004; Dermody et al., 2010). By adapting the view from political cynicism in this research, it is expected that individuals will still have purchase intention of CRM products despite being cynical as a consumer.

Difference between Perceived Behavioural Control and Self-efficacy

Although the concept of self-efficacy has been discussed respectively in Section 3.2.2, it is necessary to discuss the theoretical distinction between these two concepts.

Perceived behavioural control (PBC) refers to a person's perception of the ease or difficulty of performing the considered behaviour (Ajzen and Madden, 1986). Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977) is defined as people's beliefs about their abilities to perform behaviour or achieve a goal. Although Ajzen (1991) believed that the PBC is compatible with self-efficacy and combined these two concepts into the measure of PBC (Ajzen and Madden, 1986; Ajzen, 1991), a number of researchers have demonstrated that self-efficacy and PBC are theoretically and empirically distinct (Terry and O'Leary, 1995; Armitage et al., 1999;

Armitage and Conner, 1999a; 1999c; 2001b; Povey et al., 2000; Trafimow et al., 2002; Jackson et al., 2003; Rhodes and Courneya, 2003; Hagger and Chatzisarantis, 2005). PBC is related to external constraints on behaviour such as situational and environmental factors (e.g., Terry and O'Leary, 1995). Self-efficacy, which refers to an individual's confidence in being able to perform the behaviour, is related to internal control factors such as appropriate skills or knowledge (White et al., 1994; Terry and O'Leary, 1995). PBC is derived from self-efficacy. However, PBC is not regarded as a causal determinant of behaviour. Self-efficacy is considered a causal variable which influence behaviour through different mechanisms, such as greater effort and persistence, increased preparation for action, lower stress arousal, and fewer intrusive negative thoughts (e.g., Bandura, 1991, 1997; Cervone, 1989; O'Leary, 1992). A number of studies have included self-efficacy as a predictor variable working in concert with the TPB constructs to predict intentions (e.g., McCaul et al., 1998; Armitage and Conner, 1999a; Basil et al., 2008; Chan et al., 2016; Wang and Zhang, 2016).

3.2.3 The Discrepancy between Attitudes and Behaviour

A significant number of research have demonstrated that the relations between attitude and behaviour are varied and fundamentally complex. Historically, consumers' attitudes were assumed to be consistent with their behaviours (Armitage and Christian, 2003). In 1934, Lapiere conducted a research to test the attitude-behaviour relationship. At that time, there was a strong prejudice towards the ethnic Chinese in the United States. LaPiere travelled through the United States with a young Chinese couple. They visited 251 restaurants, cafes, hotels and motels but were refused service only once. The attention and care that they received were quite positive. The owners' behaviour showed that they had a positive attitude towards Chinese people. Six months later, LaPiere (1934) sent questionnaires to all the establishments that they had visited to ask if they would accept members of the Chinese race as guests in their establishments. Surprisingly, 92 per cent of the restaurants and 91 per cent of the hotels/motels said they would refuse Chinese customers. LaPiere (1934) believed that the restaurants and hotel or motel managers' attitude towards Chinese customers are consistent with their responses to the Chinese couple who asked for service previously. LaPiere (1934) concluded that there is a gap between attitudes and behaviour. LaPiere's (1934) work was criticized by many researchers. The main critique was related to the employed methodology of the research. The people who filled out the questionnaires may not be the same as the people who allowed the Chinese couple to the establishments (Semin and Fiedler, 1996). Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) stated that LaPierre (1934) tried to predict specific behaviour from general attitudes towards Chinese guests rather than specific attitudes towards the Chinese couple.

Corey (1937) conducted research to examine the attitude-behaviour gap. He assessed students' attitudes towards cheating and their cheating behaviour. The finding of the study revealed that there is no correlation between attitude and behaviour, which indicated that students who had negative attitude towards cheating were as likely to cheat as those who had positive attitudes. Wicker (1969) discovered that the correlation between attitude and behaviour barely exceeded 0.30 and were often close to zero. Wicker (1969) concluded that there was "little evidence to support the postulated existence of stable, underlying attitudes within the individual, which influence both his verbal expressions and his action" (p. 75). Wicker's (1971) suggestion to abandon the attitude concept lead to a crisis in confidence in the attitude concept in general and in the attitude-behaviour relationship in the early to mid-1970s (Semin and Fiedler, 1996). A number of social psychologists continued this line of research by studying the variables that either moderate or mediate the relationship between attitude and behaviour. Baron and Kenny (1986) believed a moderator variable can "partition a focal independent variable into subgroups that establish its domains of maximal effectiveness in regard to a given dependent variable", while a "mediator" can "represent the generative mechanism through which the focal independent variable is able to influence the dependent variable of interest" (p. 1173). The attitude behaviour relationship was transformed by Ajzen (1988, p. 41) who stated that "people were found neither to behave consistently across situations, nor to act in accordance with their measured attitudes." Ajzen affirmed that "social psychologists lost faith in the attitude concepts, and concluded that only a very small proportion of behavioural variance could be explained by reference to the dispositions" (Ajzen, 1988, p. 42).

Based on the above-mentioned literature, attitude strength and the measurement correspondence were considered as moderators between attitude and behaviour. Many studies evidenced that stronger attitudes are more predictive of behaviour than weak attitudes (e.g., Sanderson, 2009). Attitudes are more predictive of related behaviour when they are univalent (e.g., Conner & Sparks, 2002), accessible in memory (e.g., Kokkinaki and Lunt, 1998), or are personally involving (e.g., Thomsen et al., 1995). Moreover, the relatively stable intentions and perceptions of behavioural control are better predictors of related behaviour (e.g., Conner et al., 2000). The chosen measurement technique plays an important role in influencing the relationship between attitudes and behaviour. The correlation between attitude and behaviour lower when general attitudes are used to predict specific behaviours (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). Measures of attitude and behaviour should match the action conducted at a specific target, the context and the time where the action is performed (e.g., Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975; Kraus, 1995). Moreover, when individuals respond to the items on a question, they may be tempted to provide socially desirable or acceptable responses, regardless of their true feelings and attitudes (Nederhof, 1985). This type of response bias result in a discrepancy between attitude and behaviour.

Many studies have evidenced the influencing role of intention between attitude and behaviour. Intention, rather than attitude, is considered the principal determinants of behaviour. Therefore, intention mediates the attitude-behaviour relationship (Sheeran, 2002). Individuals who have intentions often fail to act on them (Orbell and Sheeran, 1998). The implementation of intention or planning mediates the relationship between intention and behaviour (e.g., Scholz et al., 2008; Wiedemann et al., 2009; Van Osch et al., 2010; Hassan et al., 2014). Furthermore, a number of social psychologists have demonstrated that some variables can either moderate or mediate the relationship between attitude and behaviour (e.g. Schultz and Oskamp, 1996; Conner et al., 2002). Baron and Kenny (1986) believed a moderator variable would "partition a focal independent variable into subgroups that establish its domains of maximal effectiveness in regard to a given dependent variable" (p. 1173). For instance, the role of self-efficacy and perceived behaviour control between the attitude, intention and behaviour has been evidenced in various studies (Bandura, 1986; Terry and O'Leary, 1995; Rhodes and Courneya, 2003; De Vreese, 2004, 2005; Cherry, 2006).

3.3 Theoretical Framework Development

Based on the literature review discussed, this section demonstrates the process by which the theoretical framework is built and highlights the relationships between the relevant constructs. The theoretical framework is drawn from two well-established theories -- Attribution Theory (Heider, 1958) and the TPB (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). The attribution theory focuses on the consumers' attribution relating to CRM activities; consumers' perceptions of company motives are expected to influence consumer cynicism. The TPB focuses on factors which determine individuals' behavioural choices. The assessment of whether Attribution Theory and TPB could provide an appropriate theoretical framework from which targeted businesses could design an intervention to change the consumer cynicism assumed to be at the base of their actions. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, there was no previous research examining the usefulness of the Attribution Theory and TPB in the area of consumer cynicism. The application of these two theories may help the design and implementation of an intervention to minimize or prevent consumer cynicism in the context of CRM. The following sections will depict the conceptual frameworks for the proposed research and a number of hypotheses to be further investigated and tested.

3.3.1 Understanding of Consumer Cynicism based on Attribution Theory

Drawing on the Attribution Theory (Heider, 1958), the next section focuses on the relationship between consumer attribution and consumer cynicism towards CRM activities. Consumers' perceptions of company motives are expected to influence the consumer cynicism directed towards the company for their CRM practices. The purpose of this section is to address the following research questions: (1) How do cynical consumers attribute motives to companies' CRM activities, and how these attributions affect their subsequent responses to the CRM offer? (2) Does the donation situation (i.e., natural disaster cause and ongoing cause) influence consumers' level of cynicism towards a company's CRM activities? Attribution theory is employed to form a basis to establish the theoretical framework. Prior studies are reviewed to identify the factors that may have had an impact on cynical consumers' responses to CRM activities and the relationships among the constructs are built accordingly.

3.3.1.1 Consumer Attribution, Brand-cause Fit, and Consumer Cynicism

Attribution theory, which describes how individuals make causal inferences about the events they observe and experience (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1973), is an influential theory in social perception. According to Kelley (1973), causal attribution can help to foster understanding in how individuals make inferences and how this provides a stimulus to actions and decisions. Attribution theory predicts a relationship between attributions and subsequent attitudes and behaviours (Kelly and Michela, 1980). Attribution theory therefore provides a theoretical foundation for exploring the role of consumer cynicism towards CRM activities.

Heider (1958) identifies two factors that influence the way consumers may attribute motives to the actions of others: intrinsic motives and extrinsic motives. Consumers are concerned more about why a company is involved in an activity than about what the company is doing (Gilbert and Malone 1995). A firm's motives for engaging in CRM practice can be viewed by consumers as either driven by internal causes (intrinsic motives) (e.g., monetary motives) or external causes (extrinsic motives) (e.g. motives for supporting a good cause) (Ellen et al. 2000; Du et al., 2010). How consumers attribute motives to a company's CRM practice is important in the current study in order to explore how consumers' perceptions of company motives links to consumer cynicism and how cynical consumers respond to CRM activities.

As CRM has become an increasingly popular marketing strategy today (Guerreiro et al., 2016), consumers become more aware of what it is and how it operates. When consumers purchase a cause-related product, they aim to make a contribution to a worthy cause and at the same time, to fulfil their consumption needs. If consumers realize that CRM is not entirely altruistic, they will start questioning whether a company's support of a charity is designed to benefit the cause or the company itself (Webb and Mohr, 1998). With the increasing coverage of CRM (Grolleau et al, 2016), less favourable responses are easily created among consumers as they attribute more self-centred motives to firms engaged in CRM campaign activities (Kanta et al., 2014). Companies involved in CRM activities can be perceived as altruistic or egoistic motivated (Ellen et al., 2006). Consumers may use aspects of the offer to make inferences about the motives of the company (Szykman et al., 2004). When consumers become suspicious about the motives or genuineness of firms' behaviour, attitudes such as cynicism towards CRM can be triggered (Kim and Lee, 2009; Adkins, 2011). Consequently, the perceived exploitation and negative attitudes could cause the CRM promotion to be less effective (Polonsky and Wood, 2001). The higher the level of perceived exploitation, the fewer the number of consumers who are willing to support and participate in a CRM campaign (Dahl and Lavack, 1995; Barone et al., 2007).

Consumers may use aspects of the offer to make inferences about the motives of the company. Companies involved in CRM activities are perceived as extrinsically or intrinsically motivated. The intrinsic motives can be viewed as self-interested, and extrinsic motives can be thought of as altruistic or other-interested (Parguel, et al., 2011). If consumers perceived a CRM offer as egoist or self-interested, they are likely to view the offer as a means to pursue a firm's objectives, such as to increase sales and profits, and have a less favourable attitude toward the offer. Alternatively, if consumers ascribe some altruistic or other-interested motives to the CRM offer, they are likely to respond positively to it (Smith and Alcorn, 1991; Webb, 1999). Ellen et al. (2006) suggested more complex attributions than what other researchers traditionally have suggested. Four types of motives are identified by consumers, namely, egoistic-driven motives, values-driven motives, strategic-driven motives, and stakeholder-driven motives. Strategic and values-driven motives lead to positive consumer response to firms' activities, whereas stakeholder driven or egoistic motives can result in negative consumer responses (Ellen et al., 2006). Cynical consumers are expected to recognize companies' self-serving motives such as egoistic motives to increase profits or enhance reputations (Varadarajan and Menon,1988). Egoistic-driven motives are attributed when consumers believe that the company is exploiting rather than supporting the cause (Ellen et al., 2006; Vlachos et al., 2009). Companies involved in CRM practices "walk a fine line between reaping increased sales, goodwill, and positive publicity and charges of exploitation of causes" (Varadarajan and Menon ,1998, p. 69). Some corporations receive a tax benefit for their involvement in CRM activities (Varadarajan and Menon, 1988). As more companies engage in CRM practices, consumers are more likely to be cynical towards the firms' intention for supporting the assigned causes. Vlachos et al. (2009) believed that consumers are more likely to attribute the firms' involvement in CRM to egoistic-driven motives (Vlachos et al., 2009). Egoistic-driven motives could result in negative consumer attitude and relate negatively to purchase intention (Ellen et al., 2006). It is thus hypothesised:

H1a. Egoistic-driven motives relate positively to consumer cynicism towards CRM practices.

H1b. Egoistic-driven motives relate negatively to intention towards purchasing CRM products.

Values-driven motives are attributed when consumers perceive that company engages in CRM activities because of their moral, ethical, and societal standards (Ellen et al., 2000). Companies are believed to be genuinely about the cause that they support in the CRM practices. CRM is used by companies to show their authentic intention to contribute to society and to demonstrate their values and moral standards (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006). Such values-driven motives lead consumers to have positive attributions about a company involved in CRM practices and have more positive attitudes and responses towards the company (Yoon et al., 2006). Values-driven motives are evidenced to lead to positive consumer responses (Ellen et al., 2006). Therefore, consumer cynicism, as a negative attitude, is expected to be negatively related to values-driven motives. Values-driven motives are expected to be positively related to purchase intention. Hence, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H2a. Values-driven motives relate negatively to consumer cynicism towards CRM practices.

H2b. Values-driven motives relate negatively to intention toward purchasing CRM products.

Strategic-driven motives are attributed when consumers believe that companies can obtain their business objectives while supporting the assigned causes (Ellen et al., 2006; Vlachos et al., 2009). CRM is viewed as a win-win achievement for generating profits for firms and providing support to worthy causes (Liu and Ko, 2011). Consumers understand companies need to be economically viable (Ellen et al., 2006) and they are aware that firms participate in CRM practices because of profit-seeking behaviour rather than their moral standards (Vlachos et al., 2009). Companies contribute to good causes because "doing so is just business" (Ellen et al., 2006, p. 150). Cynics believe in the selfishness of human nature (Costa et al., 1985) and are likely to make inferences about the motives of the company to come from pure profit-seeking reasons. Moreover, strategic-driven motives could result in positive consumer responses (Ellen et al., 2006). Furthermore, strategic-driven motives were found to be positively related to purchase intention (Ellen et al., 2006). Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H3a. Strategic-driven motives relate negatively to consumer cynicism towards CRM practices.

H3b. Strategic-driven motives relate positively to intention towards purchasing CRM products.

Stakeholder-driven motives are attributed when consumers believe that companies participate in CRM practices in order to satisfy the expectations of different stakeholders (Vlachos et al., 2009). Consumers hold the view that the company adopts socially responsible practices under the pressure from different interested groups such as employees, stockholders, and society as a whole (Ellen et al., 2006). Consumers believe companies behave socially responsible in order to avoid negative responses (such as punishments) from stakeholders (Ellen et al., 2000; Vlachos et al., 2009). Negative responses, such as cynicism, is likely to be triggered when consumers view firms' engagement in CRM activities as driven by stakeholder interests (Ellen et al., 2006). Ellen et al. (2006) discovered that stakeholder-driven motives were negatively related to purchase intention. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H4a. Stakeholder-driven motives relate positively to consumer cynicism towards CRM practices.

H4b. Stakeholder-driven motives relate negatively to intention towards purchasing CRM products.

The donation situation which CRM chooses to support plays an influencing role on how consumers evaluate the company's motive for engaging in CRM activities (Endacott, 2004). For example, firms' motives are evaluated more positively if the cause is disaster-related (Ellen et al., 2000). Consumers are likely to view companies that support ongoing causes as being motivated by self-interests and as a result, consumer cynicism is more likely to be triggered. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H5. CRM practice involves in natural disaster cause result in lower consumer cynicism than those involve in ongoing cause.

The effect of brand-cause fit on consumer reactions in CRM has been extensively studied in previous research (e.g., Nan and Heo, 2007; Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2012). As discussed in Section 2.2.5, brand-cause fit plays an influencing role in the effectiveness of CRM. High brand-cause fit in CRM campaigns can result in positive consumer's attitude and purchase intention (Pracejus and Olsen, 2004). High fit between the brand and cause is expected to minimise the possibility of consumer cynicism (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Ellen et al., 2006). In contrast, when consumers perceive CRM campaigns with low brand-cause fit as exploitative marketing activities, consumer cynicism can be triggered (Rifon et al., 2004). The company may be viewed as being less sincere and more selfish if the brand-cause fit is low (Chéron et al., 2012). The lack of fit can make consumers attribute more self-centred motives to firms engaged in CRM campaigns (Arnoldy, 2007; Keene, 2008). Therefore, the following hypothesis is derived:

H6. High brand-cause fit result in lower consumer cynicism than low brand-fit.

The above-mentioned hypothesis (H1 to H6) are expected to advance existing knowledge on CRM studies. Studies on CRM have focused on the effects of different CRM offers on consumer responses (e.g., Ellen et al., 2000; Lafferty et al., 2004; Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Pracejus and Olsen 2004; Ellen et al., 2006; Nan and Heo, 2007; Samu and Wymer, 2009; Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2012; Vanhamme et al., 2012; Vyravene and Rabbanee, 2016). In particular, the effect of brand-cause fit and donation situation have received great interest among CRM researchers. Although the effect of brand-cause fit and effect of donation situation on positive consumer attitude is well documented, little empirical evidence exists to examine the effect on negative attitude to the best of the researcher's knowledge. H1 to H6 can advance the existing CRM knowledge by identifying the factors that influence consumer cynicism, a form of negative attitude towards CRM practices. Furthermore, the effect of donation situation (Ellen et al., 2000; Cui et al., 2003; Vyravene and Rabbanee, 2016) and effect of brand-cause fit (Pracejus and Olsen 2004; Nan and Heo, 2007; Hou et al., 2008) are evidenced in separate studies with other manipulative variables. Brand-cause fit (high versus low) and donation situation (ongoing versus natural disaster) is manipulated in this study to introduce confounding variables in a single study and to evaluate their effect on consumer cynicism.

3.3.1.2 Consumer Cynicism, Purchase Intention and Protest Behaviour

In this study, consumer cynicism is defined as an attitude characterized by a disbelief in a firm's underlying motives for using CRM as a marketing practice. As a negative attitude, consumer cynicism should relate negatively to purchase intention and purchase behaviour.

H7. Consumer cynicism relates negatively to the purchase intention towards CRM products.

However, studies on political cynicism (Dermody et al., 2010) indicate that cynicism does not always prevent individuals from voting. Cynics still vote despite their cynicism if their self-efficacy is high (Bandura, 1986; Capella and Jamieson, 1997; Wring et al., 1999; Pinkleton and Austin, 2002; De Vreese, 2004, 2005). Self-efficacy is first introduced as a core concept in social cognition theory. Research in a variety of areas indicate that self-efficacy is an important element for inducing action (e.g., Bandura, 1986). Often individuals must perceive that they had the ability to perform a particular behaviour before they were willing to make the attempt.

Basil et al. (2008) asserted that self-efficacy could lead to charitable donation intentions and enhanced pro-social behaviours (Cherry, 2006). Charity appeals often used self-efficacy related executions such as “just a few cents per day can feed a child” (Pallotta, 2012, p. 37) to induce action from consumers. Therefore, based on the findings from political cynicism (Dermody et al., 2010) and self-efficacy studies (e.g., Bandura, 1986), it is hypothesised that consumer cynicism, if mild, could always lead to positive responses if the self-efficacy is high. For example, cynical consumers could still purchase cause-related products, as they believed that there is “strength in numbers” or perceive that their own contribution can actually “make a difference”. Self-efficacy is considered as a predictor of intentions but not behaviour (McCaul et al., 1998). Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H8. Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between consumer cynicism and purchase intention towards CRM products.

Furthermore, protest behaviour qualifies as consequences of consumer cynicism. Ward and Ostrom (2006) stated the evidence of cynicism from a protest-framing perspective as per below.

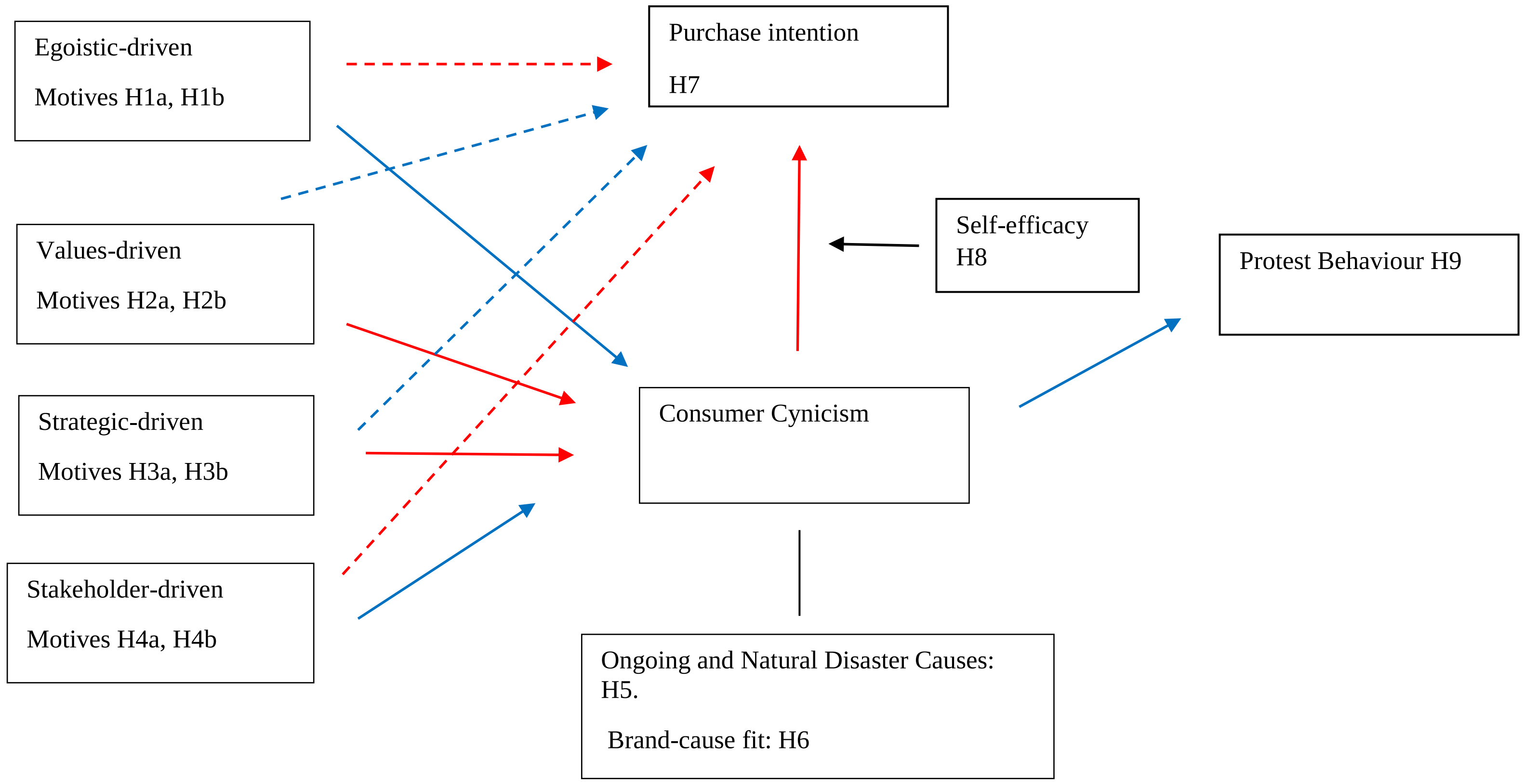
To convince the public to join them in shunning a firm, consumer complaint site creators: 1) present commercial failures as betrayals of customer rights worthy of public outrage; 2) "amplify" the seriousness of the harm inflicted; 3) stereotype firm executives as evil betrayers of trusting consumers; 4) point to the posted complaints of other consumers to attribute blame to the firm; 5) present themselves as crusaders fighting for the respect due all consumers; 6) encourage other consumers to perceive themselves as a group, united in their opposition to the firm (Ward and Ostrom, 2006, p. 220).

Once consumer cynicism is generated, protest behaviour is expected to occur (Ward and Ostrom, 2006). Protest behaviour are actions taken by consumers with the aim of getting companies into trouble by boycotting, blogging against the company, taking legal action against corporations, complaining and joining collective movements against the firm (Yuksel and Mryteza, 2009; Lindenmeier et al., 2012; Grappi et al., 2013). Cynical consumers often boycott and complain about companies and brands that they dislike (Olson and Dover, 1978; DeCarlo, 2005). In this study, protest behaviour was posited as the consequences of consumer cynicism. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H9. Consumer cynicism relates positively to protest behaviour.

Attribution theory forms a basis to establish a conceptual model that illustrates the relevant influential factors on consumer cynicism and related responses. A model of consumer cynicism based on attribution theory is depicted in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3 Proposed Model of Consumer Cynicism (Attribution Theory)



Note: blue colour indicates positively related; red colour indicates negatively related

As based on Attribution Theory, individuals use information gathered to make causal explanations for events or behaviour (Fiske and Taylor, 1991). The stimuli of ongoing cause versus natural disaster cause and high versus low brand-cause fit are posed as the information sources to study how individuals make causal attributions about firms' CRM practices. Consumers then use aspects of the CRM offers to make inferences about the motives of the company. These inferences then predict attitude (i.e., consumer cynicism) (H1a, H2a, H3a, H4a) and purchase intention (H1b, H2b, H3b, H4b). Consumer cynicism level vary under different experimental stimuli (H5 and H6). Purchase intention (H7) and protest behaviour (H9) are proposed as consequences of consumer cynicism. Self-efficacy is believed to have a moderating effect on the relationship between consumer cynicism and purchase intention (H8).

3.3.2 Understanding of Consumer Cynicism based on TPB

In addition to attribution theory, the TPB was selected as a theoretical framework for this study to obtain a greater understanding of consumer cynicism. The TPB provides a comprehensive framework on three different factors: attitude towards the behaviour (i.e., consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products), subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (see Figure 3.2). The TPB asserts that the most important determinant of behaviour is an individual's behavioural intention, which is affected by attitude towards the behaviour (i.e., consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products), subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991). Attitude is generally regarded as being the best predictor of intention (Al-Rafee and Cronan, 2006). Behaviour is a function of intentions and intention is an indication of a person's readiness to perform a given behaviour (Ismail et al., 2010).

Ajzen (1991) has advocated that the TPB is "open to the inclusion of additional predictors if it can be shown that they capture a significant proportion of the variance in intention after the theory's current variables have been taken into account" (p. 199). As discussed in Section 3.2.2, self-efficacy and PBC are distinct constructs (e.g., Terry and O'Leary, 1995). Self-efficacy reflects a person’s internal confidence and ability with respect to performing a behaviour (Cotte and Trudel, 2009). Self-efficacy is considered a predictor variable working in concert with the TPB constructs to predict intentions (e.g., McCaul et al., 1998; Armitage and Conner, 1999a; Basil et al., 2008; Chan et al., 2016; Wang and Zhang, 2016). On account of the strong theoretical and empirical support of the addition of self-efficacy to TPB model, the perspective that the inclusion of self-efficacy enhances the predictive power of the model was proposed for investigation in the present work. Furthermore, as discussed previously, charity appeals often used self-efficacy related executions such as “just a few cents per day can feed a child” (Pallotta, 2012, p. 37) to induce action from consumers. It is expected that consumer cynicism could still lead to positive responses if the self-efficacy is high. Despite being cynical, consumers could still purchase cause-related products, as they believed that there is “strength in numbers” or perceive that their own contribution can actually “make a difference”. This research proposed self-efficacy can not only predict intention together with TPB variables but also have a moderating effect on the relationship between consumer cynicism and intention to purchase CRM products.

As discussed in Section 3.4, indirect questioning is used to investigate consumer cynicism in the TPB model. Here, the respondents were asked to provide views of others who are cynical towards purchasing CRM products. Therefore, the main objective of using the TPB in this study is: (a) to assess the relevance of different behavioural beliefs in forming consumer cynicism as an attitude (cynicism direct measure) towards purchasing CRM products; (b) to evaluate the significance of cynical consumers' normative beliefs in shaping subjective norm; (c) to appraise cynical consumers' control beliefs and their power in determining the perceived behavioural control over the act of purchasing CRM products; (d) to understand the intention of purchasing CRM products, considering direct measures of consumer cynicism, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy; (e) to investigate the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between cynicism direct measure (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) and purchase intention; and (f) to test the relationship between purchase intention and the purchase behaviour of the respondents.

This study focused on the ability of the adopted TPB framework to predict cynical consumers' intention and behaviour towards purchasing CRM products with the ultimate aim to shed light on the beliefs that could subsequently be targeted by a behavioural change intervention. As a negative attitude, consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products is expected to be negative related to purchase intention. In accordance with Ajzen's work (1991) and the previous discussion on self-efficacy, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H10. There is a positive relationship between behavioural beliefs and direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products.

H11. There is a positive relationship between normative beliefs and subjective norms.

H12. There is a positive relationship between control beliefs and perceived behaviour control.

H13. There is a negative relationship between cynicism direct measure (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) and purchase intention.

H14. There is a positive relationship between subjective norms and the intention towards purchasing CRM products.

H15. There is a positive relationship between perceived behavioural control and the intention towards purchasing CRM products.

H16. There is a positive relationship between self-efficacy and the intention towards purchasing CRM products.

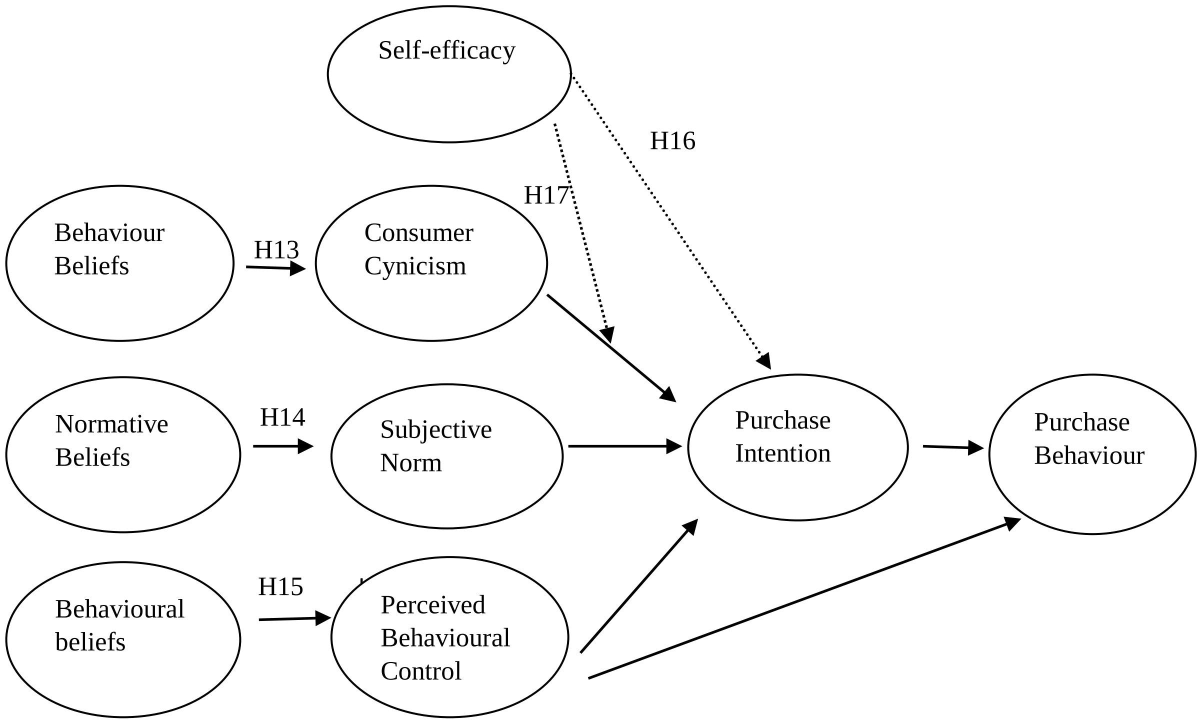
H17. Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between cynicism direct measure (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) and intention towards purchasing CRM products.

H18. There is a positive relationship between the intention and purchase behaviour towards purchasing CRM products.

H19. There is a positive relationship between perceived behavioural control and purchase behaviour towards intended purchasing CRM products.

The model of explaining the consumer cynicism based on the TPB framework is shown in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4 The Proposed Model of the Consumer Cynicism based on TPB



The adopted TPB theory is expected to enable the evaluation of the various beliefs at the base of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products. In this particular case, an indirect questioning technique (see Section 3.4) is used to extract views from consumers who are cynical towards purchasing CRM products. This application allows the assessment of the volitional control of intention to purchase CRM products despite the existence of consumer cynicism. H10 to H19 are proposed in accordance with Ajzen's work (1991). Although self-efficacy has been added to the TPB model in previous studies (e.g., Chan et al., 2016; Wang and Zhang, 2016), the combined effect of self-efficacy, consumer cynicism, SN, and PBC has not been explored previously to the best of the researcher's knowledge. The available operational guidelines for the TPB enables a step-by-step design and measurement of constructs. These detailed procedures are believed to enable the opportunity for future replication of the items used and comparison of results with extant TPB studies, and hence to contribute to current and upcoming theoretical debates.

Nineteen research hypotheses are summarised as in Table 3.1. Hypotheses 1 to 9 refer to the model of consumer cynicism based on Attribution Theory, which aims to investigate the relationship between consumer cynicism, the inferred motives of firms, and brand-cause fit in the context of CRM. Hypotheses 10 to 19 relate to the mode of consumer cynicism based on TPB**.**

Table 3.1 Summary of Research Hypotheses

Hypotheses based on Attribution Theory	
H1a	Egoistic-driven motives relate positively to consumer cynicism towards CRM.
H1b	Egoistic-driven motives relate negatively to intention towards purchasing CRM products.
H2a	Values-driven motives relate negatively to consumer cynicism towards CRM.
H2b	Values-driven motives relate positively to intention towards purchasing CRM products.
H3a	Strategic-driven motives relate negatively to consumer cynicism towards CRM.
H3b	Strategic-driven motives relate positively to intention towards purchasing CRM products.
H4a	Stakeholder-driven motives relate positively to consumer cynicism towards CRM.
H4b	Stakeholder-driven motives relate negatively to intention towards purchasing CRM products.
H5	CRM practice involves in natural disaster cause result in lower consumer cynicism than those involve in ongoing cause.
H6	High brand-cause fit result in lower consumer cynicism than low brand-fit.
H7	Consumer cynicism relates negatively to the purchase intention towards CRM products.
H8	Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between consumer cynicism and purchase intention towards CRM products.
H9	Consumer cynicism relates positively to protest behaviour.
Hypotheses based on TPB Model	
H10	There is a positive relationship between behavioural beliefs and consumer cynicism.
H11	There is a positive relationship between normative beliefs and subjective norms.
H12	There is a positive relationship between control beliefs and perceived behaviour control.
H13	There is a negative relationship between consumer cynicism and purchase intention.
H14	There is a positive relationship between subjective norms and the intention towards purchasing CRM products.
H15	There is a positive relationship between perceived behavioural control and the intention towards purchasing CRM products.
H16	There is a positive relationship between self-efficacy and the intention towards purchasing CRM products.
H17	Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) and intention towards purchasing CRM products.
H18	There is a positive relationship between the intention and purchase behaviour towards purchasing CRM products.
H19	There is a significant positive relationship between perceived behavioural control and behaviour towards purchasing CRM products.

3.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter provides the rationale and illustrates the development of relevant theoretical models. Building on the literature review, this chapter developed two conceptual models based on Attribution Theory and the TPB. Nineteen research hypotheses were formulated (see Table 3.1). Hypotheses 1 to 9 refer to the relationship between consumer cynicism, the inferred motives of firms, and brand-cause fit in the context of CRM. Hypotheses 10 to 19 are related to the model of consumer cynicism based upon the TPB. The following chapter will provide the methodological framework, including the philosophical background, research context, focus group, details of quasi-experimental design, and the indirect questioning technique used in this research. The next chapter will demonstrate how this research is going to be conducted in order to achieve the research aim. More specifically, the research methodology will be the focus of the Chapter Four.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presented and discussed the methodology that was employed to empirically examine the proposed conceptual framework outlined in the previous chapter. This chapter was divided into five sections. Following the introduction, Section 4.2 outlined the philosophical underpinning of this research, explaining why the mixed method approach was chosen. Section 4.3 presented the overview of the research design, discussing the stimulus for the experimental study. The experiment was a 2 (high versus low brand-cause fit) x 2 (ongoing cause versus natural disaster cause) factorial design. The rationale of using indirect questioning in this study is discussed in Section 4.4. This chapter ends with a summary in Section 4.5

4.2 Philosophical Underpinning of this Research

Scientific research aims not only to understand a particular phenomenon in the human world, but also to advance knowledge. All research is based on an underlying philosophical foundation comprised of assumptions about how the world is perceived and how we can best come to understand it. The research philosophy reflects the researcher's view of the development of knowledge, and it influences the strategy and methods used for the research (Collis and Hussy, 2003; Saunders et al., 2007). As such, it is essential to understand the philosophy upon which this research is built.

There are four main research philosophies or paradigms identified in the literature: positivism, post-positivism, interpretivism, and pragmatism. Table 4.1 outlines the major characteristics of these paradigms. Their differences have several implications for how a researcher should conduct research.

Positivism is a philosophy of science used to gather objective facts in the social world (Saunders et al., 2007). This approach is built around the idea that the world exists externally and can be examined by objective methods without being influenced by the researcher's values and assumptions. To satisfy the fundamental principle of positivism, hypotheses and conceptual models are based on existing theories. Collected data is used to test and confirm hypotheses and then further develop the existing theory (Saunders et al., 2007). Positivism seeks to objectively observe and examine collected data. Subjective feelings or any other interactions between the researcher and what is being observed should be avoided (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Saunders et al., 2007). Positivism in the social sciences is usually characterized by quantitative approaches. Along with the emphasis on objectivity, the attained knowledge of positivist research through scientific methods purports to be more reliable.

Table 4.1 Characteristics of Paradigms

Paradigm	*Positivism*	*Post-positivism*	*Interpretivism*	*Pragmatism*
Logic	Deductive	Deductive	Inductive	Deductive +Inductive
Ontology	Naive realism	Critical realism: 'real' reality but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehendable	Relativism	Accept external reality. Choose explanations that best produce desired outcomes
Epistemology	Objective point of view. Knower and known are separate	Modified objectivist; critical. Knower and known are separate	Subjective point of view. Knower and known are inseparable	Both objective and subjective points of view
Methodology	Quantitative	Experimental or quasi-experimental; may include qualitative methods	Qualitative	Quantitative +Qualitative

Source: Creswell and Plano Clark (2010)

Unlike positivism, interpretivism seeks to explain and understand the thinking, meanings, feelings, and intentions behind what is researched. Interpretivists believe that scientific methods are inappropriate for the study of society as human beings can change their attitudes and behaviours if they know they are being observed. In terms of epistemological position, interpretivism involves seeking a position as an insider. Researchers are an integral part of the research by bringing their own perceptions, values, and life experience, and are therefore never fully detached from their research (Huberman and Miles, 2002). As such, subjective meanings and interpretations of phenomena are taken into consideration by interpretivist researchers. Generally, the research structure for interpretivism is different in comparison to positivism. Positivism focuses on objective facts and predictions, but interpretivism emphasises interpretations and understandings. Interpretivism can offer a deeper explanation of the investigated phenomena (Blumberg et al., 2008). It is primarily adopted in qualitative research and is chiefly used to study social settings (Denzin and Lincoln, 1998).

As a relatively modern research paradigm, pragmatism is not committed to any one system of philosophy or reality. Pragmatists focus on the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of the research problems (Creswell, 2009, p. 29). Pragmatism was first theorised as a separate research paradigm by Howe (1988), who believed that ‘positivism’ and ‘interpretivism’ are compatible and can co-exist. Pragmatists believe that different situations can be studied in different ways (Creswell, 2009).

Saunders *et al.* (2012) suggested that it is more appropriate for the researcher not to regard positivism and interpretivism as separate positions, but to regard them as part of a multidimensional set of continua. However, the debate has always been between positivist and interpretivist approaches, or between quantitative and qualitative methods. Baker and Foy (2008) suggest that “This distinction rests basically on one’s personal philosophy concerning the conduct of research with positivists emphasising an inductive or hypothetico-deductive procedure to establish and explain patterns of behaviour while interpretivists seek to establish the motivations and actions that lead to these patterns of behaviour” (Baker and Foy, 200, p.98). The deductive approach is associated with positivism and an inductive approach is linked with interpretivism.

Post-positivists argue that social reality is real, but it can only be known in an imperfect and probabilistic manner (Corbetta 2003). Post-positivism is also called critical realism (ibid). Post-positivists believe that there is no social world beyond people's perceptions and interpretations (Corbetta, 2003). Individuals' behaviour is influenced by the knowledge that they have of their social reality (Corbetta, 2003). However, this knowledge can be incomplete (May 2003). Therefore, though social reality exists externally to the researcher, their means of reaching that reality is imperfect. According to O'Shaughnessy (1992), "Observation is necessarily selective and science is a combination of inspiration and deduction. […] Explanations do not emerge from vast collections of facts but from ideas incorporating concepts that provide a criterion of what to look for (p.272)." In other words, a researcher must be guided by theories in order to generate hypotheses, as data must be interpreted on theoretical grounds (Corbetta, 2003).

The post-positivist, like the positivist, follows strong research methodologies and prefers experimental or quasi-experimental designs (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2010). The post-positivist focus on inferential statistics, with an emphasis on assigning probabilities that are verified by observed findings (Corbetta, 2003). In nature, it is a deductive approach for testing hypotheses. Surveys, interviews, and focus groups (a 'mixed-method' approach) are also used by post-positivists. This study takes the philosophical position of post-positivism by applying a quasi-experiment design with focus groups. The purpose of this study is to gain a greater understanding of consumer cynicism in the context of CRM. An experimental design is considered appropriate for achieving the objectives of this research, particularly in relation to the effects of brand-cause fit and donation situation on consumer cynicism. Prior to conducting the main study, focus groups (see Section 5.2.1) were conducted to obtain more information to determine fictitious company, brand and cause names and brand-cause fit, to elicit salient beliefs, and to probe the relevant information in relation to consumer cynicism. The findings from the focus groups can help to ascertain four different conditions (high/low brand cause fit × natural disaster/ongoing cause) that could influence consumer cynicism. The experimental design allowed comparison between the impacts of different types of CRM offers on consumer cynicism and their attitudinal consequences. In order to comply with the purpose of theory testing and to maximise the sensitivity of the statistical results, a relatively homogenous sample was selected.

4.2.1 Mixed Method Approach

Mixed methods refer to the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination so as to provide a better understanding of the research problems and complex phenomena than could be achieved by either approach alone (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2010). It is common for marketing and consumer researchers to use mixed methods (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). Researchers increasingly recognise the benefits of combining quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study (Creswell, 2009). Mixed methods research provides a holistic view of the studied phenomenon from different perspectives (Silverman, 2014). Bryman and Bell (2015) suggested that quantitative and qualitative research methods can be combined at several stages: formulation of research questions, sampling, data collection, and data analysis. Most researchers use mixed methods during data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2014). There are three strategies for mixing methods: sequential, parallel, and transformative (Creswe1l, 2009). According to Creswell (2014), sequential refers to the consecutive use of one method after the other. Parallel refers to the use of both methods simultaneously. The transformative strategy is a theoretical lens, used to provide a framework for topics of interest, methods of collecting data, and outcomes or anticipated changes (Easterby-smith *et al.*, 2011).

This research aims to provide a greater understanding of consumer cynicism in the context of CRM. As a result, the main objectives of this study are to:

1. To identify the influences of brand-cause fit on consumer cynicism in the context of cause-related marketing.

2. To examine the influences of donation situations (ongoing versus natural disaster) on consumer cynicism in the context of cause-related marketing.

3. To identify the influences of consumers' perceptions of company motives on consumer cynicism in the context of cause-related marketing.

4. To examine the relationship between consumer cynicism and protest behaviour in the context of cause-related marketing.

5. To explore the influences of TPB variables, i.e. consumer cynicism (attitude), subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, on purchase intention towards purchasing CRM products.

6. To explore the role of self-efficacy in the proposed theoretical models.

7. To empirically test the applicability of the proposed theoretical models built on Attribution Theory and TPB in the context of cause-related marketing.

The above research objectives determined the method chosen for this research. It is expected that causal relationships will be able to be determined. Furthermore, in order to achieve objectives 1 and 2, a quasi-experimental design is necessary to assess the influence of high versus low brand-cause fit and ongoing versus natural disaster cause. Taking these objectives and the post-positivist standpoint into consideration, a mixed method approach was most appropriate. Although it can be more time-consuming than either the qualitative or quantitative methods alone (DeCuir-Gunby and Schutz, 2016), the use of mixed method practices is the best strategy for assuring rigour, richness, and depth when investigating the research hypotheses (Saunders et al., 2007). This study adopted a sequential mixed-method approach, in which the qualitative method preceded the quantitative method. The aim of the first qualitative phase was exploratory, using focus groups to refine the proposed model and generate items for questionnaire development. The second, quantitative phase consisted of the survey conducted using self-administered questionnaires. The use of focus groups for this study followed the advice suggested by Creswell (2014): (a) to investigate the variables from the literature review, (b) the limited resources for the study of consumer cynicism in a CRM context, as consumer cynicism is an under-researched area in marketing (Chylinski and Chu, 2010). The purpose of the focus group was to find more information to develop the questionnaire, to identify variables that may be related to consumer cynicism, to elicit salient beliefs, and to probe the information relevant to consumer cynicism. The use of focus groups and questionnaires would maximize the likelihood of providing adequate and accurate research results.

4.3 Overview of the Research Design

Data collection methods include secondary data collection, experiment, interview, case study, focus group, survey, etc. The choice of method for a particular study depends on the specific research questions and the purpose of the study. In this study, focus groups were first piloted (see Section 5.2.1.3) in order to check how the representatives of the target group would understand focus group questions. After revising the question structure and wording, two focus groups (see Section 5.3) were used to obtain more information to determine fictitious company, brand and cause names, and to elicit salient beliefs, and probe the relevant information in relation to consumer cynicism. Then the respondents of the focus groups were contacted again to identify the high/low brand-cause fit on which the main research would focus (see Section 5.2.4). The findings from the focus groups were then used to develop the experimental treatments for the factorial experimental research. A pre-testing (see Section 6.4), which included an expert panel discussion and a convenience sample of respondents, was conducted in order to check the validity and reliability of the questionnaire before the main survey. Another pilot study (see Section 6.5) was then used to test the questionnaire before conducting the main study. The convenience sample of respondents that participated in focus groups and pilot studies were all excluded from the main quantitative study. Finally, the questionnaire was developed to collect the data in order to test the research hypotheses (see Section 6.6). The whole process was described in the following Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Key Steps of Research

Focus group

Aim: to determine fictitious names for company, brand, and causes. To elicit salient beliefs and probe the relevant information in relation to consumer cynicism; to determine high/low brand-cause fit. Focus group protocol was developed.

↓

Aim of Piloting of focus groups: to assess the discussion format, length of time required, and relevant issues when managing a discussion; to obtain comments on how the focus group questions come across from representatives of the target group. (Two individuals participated in the piloting of the focus group)

↓

Focus group data collection: 2 groups (one consisting of 8 participants, the other of 7).

↓

Determine Brand-cause fit: Focus group participants were contacted again to determine high/low brand-cause fit from the chosen brand name and chosen causes.

↓

Quantitative design

Draft questionnaire was developed based on literature and the findings of focus groups. As the research adopted a 2 × 2 factorial experimental design, four types of questionnaires containing four different experimental stimuli/scenarios were developed.

↓

Pre-testing of Questionnaire

Aim: To clarify that the target population understand the wording of the questions.

Sample Size: Three colleagues and four students (the debriefing method, which involved discussing each question and the associated problems with the scholarly experts and respondents).

↓

Pilot Study

Aim: To refine the scale items and ensure the target population understand the questions.

Sample Size: 12 undergraduate students.

↓

Quantitative data collection

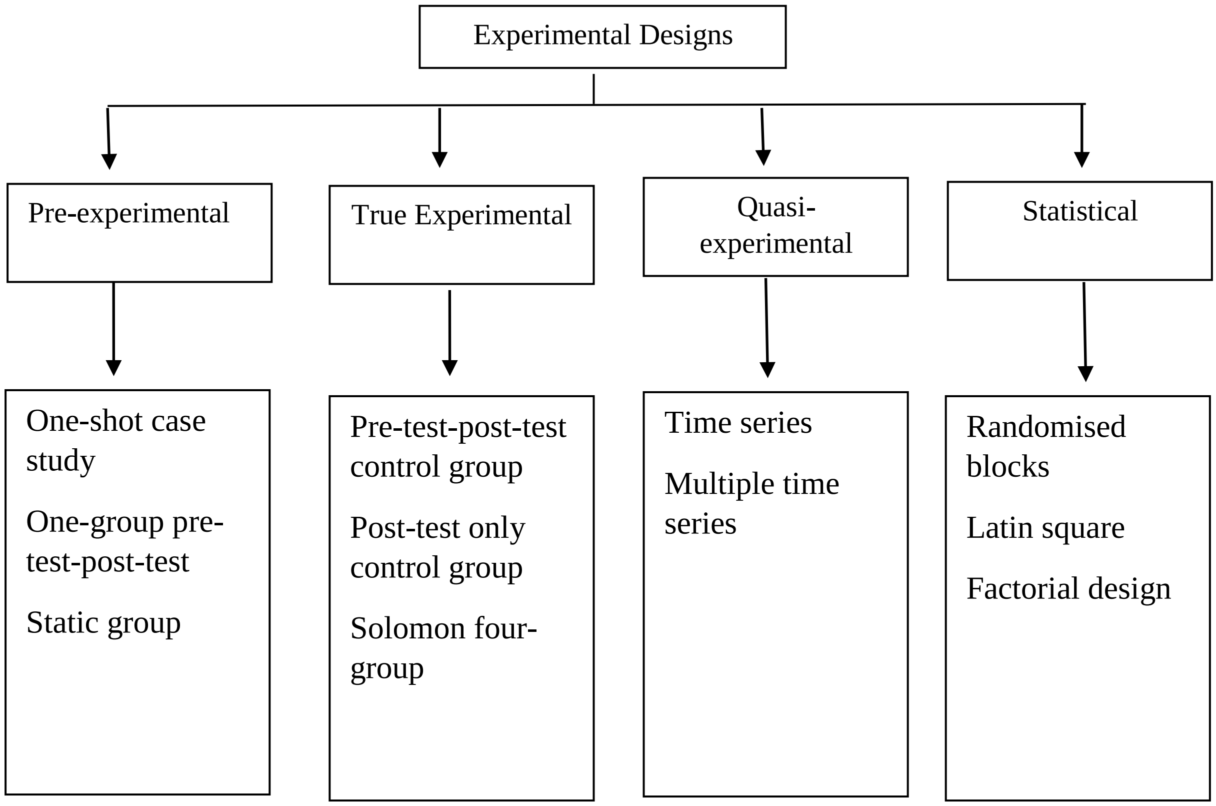
Aim: To explore how well the collected data fit the proposed model.

Sample Size: Sample size of 420 was collected.

Quantitative methods and statistical analysis were used in this research. The main quantitative methods include surveys and experiments. Survey is a type of descriptive research and experiment is designed to examine causal relationships (Iacobucci and Churchill, 2009). This study aims to examine the effect of combining natural disaster and ongoing causes and brand/cause fit conditions in a CRM offer on consumer cynicism and its attitudinal consequences. The majority of the literature on CRM has also used quantitative rather than qualitative methodologies (e. g. Piliavin and Charng, 1990; Skitka, 1999; Ellen et al.,2000; Cui et al., 2003). These studies have consistently used experimental designs that have evaluated the effect of brand-cause fit or donation situation or cause types on the CRM offers. Therefore, an experimental design is appropriate for the current study. The experiment was conducted in the context of CRM.

According to Malhotra and Birks (2012), there are four main types of experimental design: pre-experimental, true experimental, quasi-experimental, and statistical experiment (see Figure 4.2). Pre-experimental designs entail experiments in which there is no randomisation of respondents to experimental groups. Pre-experimental designs include one-shot case study, one-group pre-test-post-test, and static group. A true experimental design entails a higher control of the experiment and the subjects are exposed to the arranged stimuli randomly (Kirk 2003). Quasi-experimental designs entail experiments where only some, but not all aspects of experimentation are included. Statistical experimental designs entail experiments in which there is typically statistical control, and external variables are analysed. A factorial experimental design is deemed appropriate for this thesis. Factorial designs enable the research to measure the effect of two or more independent variables (or factors) on the dependent variable (Malhotra and Birks, 2012). In this research, the factors include brand-cause fit and natural disaster and ongoing causes (see discussion in section 2.6.3 and 2.6.4). A scenario-based experiment was employed. Scenario-based experiments entail the design of hypothetical scenarios containing experimental manipulations. The hypothetical scenarios are typically embedded into self-completion questionnaires, which are randomly assigned to respondents.

Figure 4.2 A Classification of Experimental Designs



Source: Malhotra and Birks (2012)

There are limitations that are associated with experiment designs, including scenario-based experiments, such as the concerns about the ecological and external validity of experimentation (Malhotra and Birks, 2012). The extent to which the situation depicted in the hypothetical scenarios is realistic (ecological validity) and can be generalised to real life situations (external validity) is often questioned. In order to offset the above-mentioned limitation, the use of pre-testing is highly recommended (e.g., Lynch, 1982; Perdue and Summers, 1986). Accordingly, a preliminary survey and pre-testing were conducted prior to the main study.

Randomization is considered a key element when conducting experiments. Based on randomization, three types of experimental design are identified: between-subject, within-subject, and hybrid (Field and Hole, 2003). Between-subject designs refer to the random assignment of experimental conditions (treatments) to different groups of respondents, which means that each group is exposed to one experimental condition only. Within-subject designs refer to the assignment of all experimental conditions to each participant, which indicates that each participant is exposed to multiple experimental conditions in sequence (Cash et al., 2016). Hybrid designs (also referred to as 'mixed') involve a combination of between-subject and within-subject designs. All three designs have advantages and disadvantages (see Table 4.2. Compared to within-subject designs, between-subject designs minimize the risk of the fatigue effect on the respondents. Fatigue and boredom can occur when respondents are subject to more than one experimental condition. Respondents change their responses as they move from one experimental condition to the next.

Table 4.2 Between-subject versus Within-subject Designs

	Between-subjects	**Within-subjects**
Simplicity	High	Low
Fatigue effect	Low	High
Economy	Low	High
Sensitivity	Low	High
Carry-over effects	Low	High

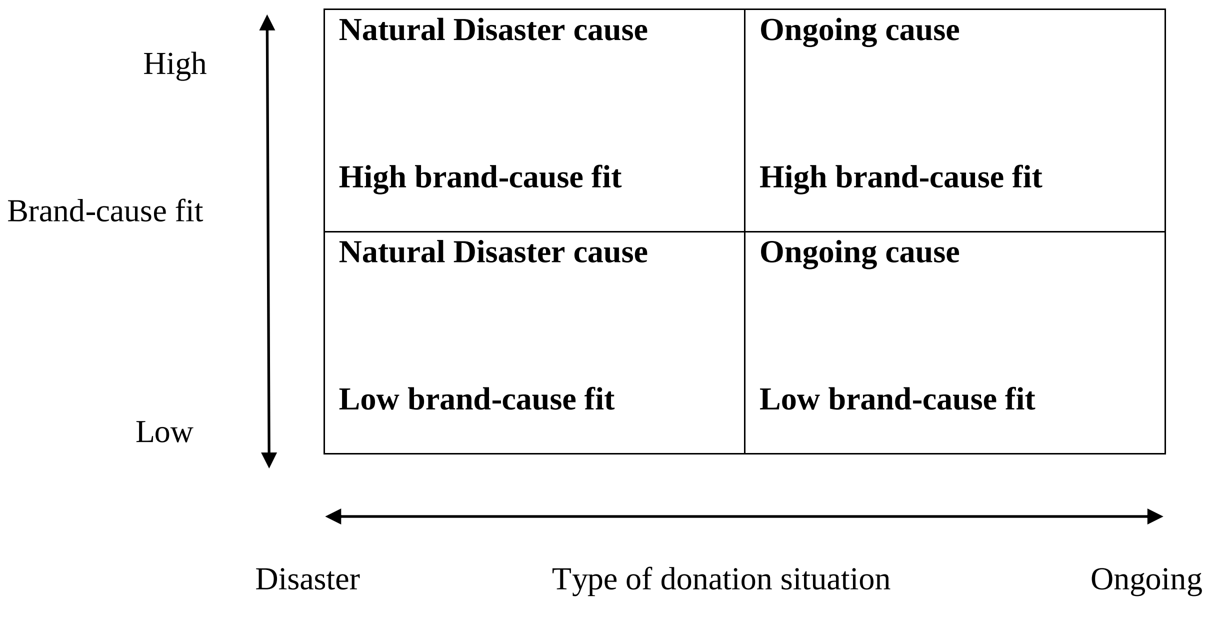
Source: Field and Hole (2003)

In consideration of the fatigue or carry-over effects that are typically associated with within-subject designs, a between-subject design was chosen for this research. As suggested by Field and Hole (2003), counterbalancing can help to address the carryover effect in between-subject designs. However, the implementation of counterbalancing remains a great challenge especially when there are several experimental conditions involved (Field and Hole, 2003). Counterbalancing would have been difficult as this research includes several experimental conditions, i.e., the effect of brand-cause fit and donation situation (natural disaster versus ongoing cause). As such, the between-subject design was deemed more appropriate.

In this study, the experiment has a 2 × 2 factorial design in which independent variables, namely, types of donation situation (natural disaster versus ongoing cause) and brand-cause fit (high versus low) were manipulated. As shown in Figure 4.3, four experimental conditions were outlined: a natural disaster cause and a high brand/cause fit condition, a disaster cause and a low brand/cause fit condition, an ongoing cause and a high brand/cause fit condition, an ongoing cause and a low brand/cause fit condition.

Experimental design is commonly used in CRM studies (e.g., Ellen et al., 2000; Cui et a., 2003; Pracejus and Olsen 2004; Ellen et al., 200; Nan and Heo, 2007; Hou et al., 2008; Das et al., 2016; Melero and Montaner, 2016; Vyravene and Rabbanee, 2016). Many of these studies focus on the influence that CRM has on consumers' positive attitudes, however, the negative effect of CRM is less well documented in marketing studies (Grolleau et al., 2016). The quasi-experimental design adopted by this research allows for comparison between the impacts of different types of CRM offers on consumer cynicism, which is regarded as one of the negative effects of firms' conducting CRM campaigns (Hawkins, 2012).

Figure 4.3 Experimental Conditions



Stimulus for Experimental Design

Experiment stimuli were created in order to achieve one of the objectives of the current research (i.e., to investigate the effect of brand-cause fit and the effects of natural disaster and ongoing cause on consumer cynicism). Fictitious names were used to prevent any existing bias towards real companies and product brand names (Goldberg and Hartwick, 1990). This required the choice of a fictitious company name and a fictitious brand name. This practice is common in CRM studies (i.e., Herr et al., 1991; Bone, 1995; Laczniak, et al., 2001; Yoon et al., 2006; La Ferle et al., 2013). Similar to Lafferty's (2007) work, this study used "NND" as a fictitious company name. The chosen fictitious company was shown to respondents during focus group sessions in order to ensure that "NND" has no specific associations.

The type of products (i.e., hedonic versus. utilitarian) chosen for CRM can also affect consumers' evaluation of the campaign (Melero and Montaner, 2016). The feeling of guilt associated with hedonic purchase can affect the link with a cause (Hagtvedt et al., 2016; Melero and Montaner, 2016). Utilitarian products tend to be associated with less emotional responses. In order to effectively investigate consumer cynicism without the potential influence of guilt, this research used utilitarian products. Toothpaste is often chosen to represent utilitarian products in CRM studies (i.e., Baghi, et al., 2009; Lafferty, et al., 2014; Müller, et al., 2014; Das et a., 2016; Hagtvedt et al., 2016; Johansson et al., 2016; Melero and Montaner, 2016). Based on the reasoning above, in this study, toothpaste was selected as a product because it is also relevant to the sample population, and is a product with which they would be familiar.

Moreover, the type of donation situation was also manipulated by varying the non-profit organization in the CRM offer. Fictitious names were required for the cause partners (i.e., NPOs). In order to choose a cause that was perceived to be connected to natural disasters, the non-profit organization included in the CRM initiative focused on supporting people affected by natural disasters. Social problems or high humanity were used to represent the ongoing causes. Thus, the fictitious non-profit organizations created for the disaster condition were: National Flood Relief, Dental Fund for Tsunami Victims, Extreme Weather Relief, and Natural Disaster Recovery Fund. For the ongoing cause condition, the fictitious non-profit organizations were: Dental Fund for Orphans, Road Safety Trust, Save the Dolphins, and AIDs Trust. During the focus groups, these fictitious causes were shown to the respondents to ensure they understood them. Following the focus group, from a list of eight fictitious causes, the respondents were asked to rate how compatible they felt each cause was with the selected brand of toothpaste if they were to form a partnership.

After obtaining the results of the stimuli mentioned above from the focus groups, a description of the fictitious brand partnering with the fictitious cause was developed. It was evidenced that donation amount and the format of donation amounts (i.e., percentage versus absolute) played an effect on brand and consumer intention to purchase (e.g., Müller et al., 2014; Kleber, et al., 2016). To minimize experimental bias, no specifics were given as to the amount of contribution by the company. Respondents saw only that the company would contribute "a portion of the proceeds" from the purchase of toothpaste to the designated cause. Respondents were asked to read a short description of the CRM practice that the fictitious company participates in before answering the questions on the questionnaire. The introduction was as follows:

"NND is a company that manufactures toothpaste products. NND's toothpaste brand XXX has carved a reputation for delivering good quality, value-added toothpastes to meet the needs of consumers. The toothpaste brand XXX has recently teamed up with YYY and would make a donation to this cause each time consumers purchase its products. The YYY is a non-profit organization that supports…[a brief introduction of the charity]. For every product bought, XXX [brand name] toothpaste a portion of the proceeds will go to this worthy cause".

After reading the above experimental stimuli, respondents then completed a questionnaire. The other variables of this study's conceptual model were assessed in the questionnaire. The questionnaire was identical for all conditions. A pilot test (see Section 6.5) administered to 12 undergraduate students, excluded from any further participation, revealed whether any changes in wording were necessary.

4.4 Indirect Questioning

Indirect questioning is often used to investigate socially sensitive topics with an aim to overcoming the social desirability response bias (Hoffmann et al., 2017). Respondents would give more honest answers when they are indirectly asked rather than directly asked (Chaudhuri and Christofides, 2013). As "cynicism" is a sensitive word, individuals may be reluctant to admit that they cynical. Such a sensitive topic can cause response bias. To minimize this effect, a projective technique was applied in this study. Projective techniques have been increasingly used in marketing research (Chang, 2001); they are used to help individuals express and refine their views without the fear of being judged (Arthur and Nazroo, 2003). Lilienfeld et al (2000) defined a projective technique as an "unstructured, indirect form of questioning that encourages respondents to project their underlying motivations, beliefs, attitudes or feelings regarding the issue of concern" (p.34). When using projective techniques, respondents were asked to provide views of the behaviour of others rather than describe their own behaviour. In interpreting the behaviour of others, respondents indirectly project their own motivations, beliefs, attitudes, or feelings into the situation. Consequently, respondents were expected to reveal their true feelings.

Indirect questioning is one of the main projective techniques and this is often used by the studies that investigate socially sensitive topics and attempt to minimise the effect of socially desirable responding. Al-Jabri and Abdul-Gader (1997) state that “sometimes it is difficult to get the real intended action from respondents, especially if it is illegal or violates certain traditional norms” (p. 340). Indirect questioning has been widely used in marketing research when dealing with socially sensitive topics (e.g., Fisher and Tellis, 1998; Schlachter, 1990; Mitchell and Chan, 2002; Hilbig et al., 2015).

Consumers view buying a CRM sponsored brand as ethical behaviour towards a specific cause (Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005), as the CRM offer may indicate social attitudes (Kim et al., 2012). As such, individuals may not be willing to openly discuss their own cynicism towards purchasing CRM products, or may be more likely to give what they perceive as the socially acceptable answers. During the qualitative and quantitative study, respondents were asked to “think of a cynical consumer that they know and then describe what the cynical consumer might think and do”. By using an indirect questioning technique, respondents’ moral conflict over how they should support others in society (Kim et al., 2012) could be sidestepped.

4.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has reported the methodology used in this study in testing the conceptual framework. This study takes the philosophical position of post-positivism by applying a 2 × 2 factorial (natural disaster versus ongoing cause and high versus low brand-cause fit) quasi-experimental design. Stimulus for experimental design and the use of indirect questioning technique was discussed. The following chapter reports the method, analysis and findings from the qualitative stage of the investigation.

CHAPTER FIVE: QUALITATIVE METHOD, ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This present chapter presents the qualitative method, analysis and focus group findings. Section 5.2 illustrate the structured focus group format that this study adopted. Number of focus groups, focus groups questions, piloting of focus groups and data preparation and analysis method are also discussed in this section. The conduct of the focus group is presented in Section 5.3. Findings of the focus group are discussed in Section 5.4. Next, the imitations of using focus groups are presented in Section 5.5. The chapter ends with a summary in Section 5.6.

5.2 Focus Group

There are three methods used for collecting qualitative data: interviews, observations and written document (Maxwell, 2013). According to Patton (2015), the data from interviews include direct quotations of interviewees about their experience, opinions, feelings and knowledge. The data from observation consists of a description of individuals' activities, behaviour and interactions. The written document yields excerpts from program records, official publications and reports (Patton, 2015).

There are three main types of interviews: structured interviews, semi-structured interviews and unstructured interviews. The structured interviews are standardized and predetermined questions with little or no variation for follow-up questions to responses for further elaboration. The structured interviews are used to collect quantifiable data. In contrast, semi-structured and unstructured interviews are non-standardized and they are used for qualitative studies (Punch, 2014). Semi-structured interviews consist of a prepared lists of questions that help to define the areas to be explored (Edwards and Holland, 2013). Researchers or interviewers can change the order of the questions, omit and add questions in order to pursue an idea or response in more detail (Ritchie et al., 2013). The unstructured interviews have no predetermined lists of questions and the researcher has free flowing conversation with the interviewees (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). These non-standardized interviews can be conducted on an individual or group basis. The group interviews are the focus groups, which this study is interested in (Saunders *et al.*, 2012).

5.2.1 Structured Focus Group Format

The Focus group is used to gather more useful information from interviewees in a discussion group (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005). The purpose of a focus group is to gain a better understanding of underlying factors, conceptualise a theoretical framework, develop a questionnaire, and to refine the model and hypotheses (Morgan, 1997). As one of the most frequently-used method in marketing and business research (Iacobucci and Churchill, 2009; Saunders *et al.*, 2012), focus groups have been widely used in consumer research to examine consumer attitudes, consumer behaviour, and describe people's experiences (e.g., Bristol and Fern, 1993; Bryman and Bell, 2015).

Hair et al. (2003) stated focus groups are particularly useful for identification of salient attributes and measurement aid. Furthermore, focus groups help to refine ideas, develop survey questionnaires, identify key themes and items better than in-depth interviews

(Saunders *et al.*, 2012). Therefore, in this research focus groups were used as a preliminary step to the survey research that provides the contextual basis of the survey design (Bloor *et al.*, 2001).

A pragmatic approach was adopted in this study to obtain useful data with a structured focus group following the examples of its application in previous research (e.g.: Watkins, et al., 2011; Shiyanbola and Mort, 2014; Fotiadis et al., 2015; Becker et al., 2016). The structured focus group aimed to determine a fictitious company, brand and cause names, to elicit salient beliefs, and probe the relevant information that are related to consumer cynicism. Participants can be more focused in a structured focus group compared to participants in traditional focus group formats (Watkins et al., 2011). Furthermore, a structured focus group format can avoid time spent on off-topic discussions (Bromley and Fischer, 2000).

The focus group contained two parts. The first part aimed to obtain information about company, brand, cause name and perceived motives of CRM practices. Fictitious names were also used to prevent any existing bias towards real companies, brand and cause names. Therefore, respondents need to interact and discuss to create a brand name built upon other responses (Stewart and Shamdasani, 2014) and potentially recall in other respondents (McParland and Flowers, 2012). In this case, respondents were allowed to interact and converse with others while generating a potential brand name. The second part aimed to elicit beliefs based on the TPB model. During this part of the focus group, respondents were required to write down their beliefs after questions were asked and were allowed to ask questions for clarification.

5.2.1.1 Number of Focus Groups

The appropriate number of focus groups for a study is subject to the research purpose and resources (Bryman and Bell, 2015). In general, the minimum number of focus groups is two (Bryman, 2012; Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2015). For this study, focus groups were conducted aiming to explore the key constructs surrounding consumer cynicism as well as to determine brand-cause fit and donation situation of CRM campaign. Two focus groups were considered as sufficient to fulfil the objectives of the qualitative study according to time and budget constraints. Focus group were categorised into four main criteria: recruitment technique and number of respondents; location of the focus group; moderator/interviewer and interview guide; and time.

Recruitment Technique and Number of Respondents

When conducting focus groups, homogeneity can ensure that the respondents have common ideas and interest (Bryman, 2012). For the study purpose, the focus groups were composed of undergraduate students. According to Tang and Davis (1995), there are different recommendations about how many individuals should participate in a focus group. For instance, Floch-Lyon and Frost (1981) claimed that the typical size of a focus group is between 6 and 12 while Kitzinger (1995) believed it to be between 4 and 8. Therefore, the ideal focus group size is controversial and requires more discussion. The typical focus group consists of between 8 to 10 people who are screened on certain predetermined characteristics (Grover and Vriens, 2006). In this research aimed to recruit eight respondents in each group as groups of over 10 respondents tend to be somewhat unwieldy and unmanageable, and as interactions amongst respondents can be less effective and discussions can be difficult to control (Edmunds, 2000).

Convenience sampling was used where focus groups are selected, each of which comprises four male and four female students (Ismail *et al*., 2010). Convenience sampling is a non-probabilistic technique which means that the collection of information from target population who are conveniently available (Ismail *et al*., 2010). Convenience sampling is considered as the best way to collect basic information effectively and efficiently (Malhotra, 2003; Sekaran and Bougie, 2010; Ismail *et al*., 2010). In this study, all respondents were approached by the researcher on the university campus to join the focus group. The current research tried to avoid some human biases (i.e. selective perception on selecting respondents) by controlling individual characteristics. Gender balance was supervised during the recruitment process. The number of respondents targeted of each group was eight, which means that 4 females and 4 males was the consideration for the gender balance issue. Cash incentives are recommended for focus groups (Morgan, 1997). Hence, all respondents received £5 cash for taking part in this research.

Location of the Focus Group

Two focus group sessions were conducted in a library group meeting room on the university campus. As recommended by Jensen and Laurie (2016), a soundproof room in a quiet environment was booked to ensure the best quality recording and group performance. Mobile phones were required to be turned off during the focus group sessions. Videotaping is rather intrusive and is therefore not recommended (Morgan, 1997). A voice recorder was deployed during the focus group sessions to transcribe the data at a later stage.

Moderator/Interviewer and Interview Guide

The two focus group sessions were held with the purpose of exploring key issues surrounding consumer cynicism in a CRM context. The first two focus groups were conducted to see if "NND" as a company name evoked in their minds and also to determine a brand name for the toothpaste. Eight fictitious causes were shown to the respondents to see if they had any problem in understanding the fictitious names. The test of the brand-cause fit were sent to the respondents who agreed to be contacted after focus group session. From a list of eight fictitious causes, the subjects rated how compatible they feel each is if that cause would form a partnership with the selected brand of toothpaste. Based on a 7-point scale anchored at not compatible at all (1) and very compatible (7). The respondents were asked to sign the consent form for agreeing to participate in the focus group study (see Appendix 1).

Time

The time length of the focus group is needed to establish rapport with the respondents and explore their attitude, beliefs, and insights (Morgan, 1996). According to Eriksson and Kovalainen (2015) the optimal time of group discussion session is between an hour and half and two hours. Bloor *et al.* (2001) suggest that from an hour to an hour and half is advisable, as over an hour and half could cause the probability of respondents leaving. All respondents were asked twenty-two major questions within 90 minutes. This was considered adequate for the focus groups in this study. Focus groups were proposed to be conducted after lunchtime in the afternoon when respondents were available.

5.2.1.2 Focus Group Questions

The focus group discussions followed a semi-structured interview schedule, whilst allowing the discussion to develop freely. When topics diverged greatly from the research area, respondents were gently guided back to relevant ground. As "cynicism" is a sensitive word which may cause response bias, an indirect questioning technique was used to conduct the focus group. A discussion guide was developed and was reviewed by two academic researchers who are scholarly experts in the area of focus group designs and consumer research. The guide consists of three major sections of questions (see Appendix 2, 3 and 4). The first section comprises constructs definition and warm-up questions aiming to capture the main ideas relating to the research topic. The second section aims to determine brand name for toothpaste (see the justification of using toothpaste as product in Section 4.3) and access respondents' understanding of the fictitious company name, and names of the fictitious non-profit organizations. The third section comprises questions that are related to belief elicitation of the TPB and consequences of consumer cynicism. All questions were developed to explore, elicit and probe the relevant information in an interactive setting of discussion. The moderator followed the discussion guideline in order to ensure that the discussions have covered thoroughly all necessary topics based on the research objectives. The moderator ensured that all respondents engaged in the discussion and that no member dominated the group discussions. As stated in Section 5.2.1.3, the piloting of the focus group was conducted to assess the discussion format, length of time required and any relevant issues of managing a discussion.

Section One

This section begins with an introduction by the moderator. The introduction included the objectives of the study and the general purpose of the focus group. The respondents were asked to sign the consent form for agreeing to participate in the focus group study (see Appendix 1). Administrative details and the level of confidentiality were stressed. Each participant was asked to introduce himself or herself. Following these introductions, the respondents were asked to have a look at the definition of consumer cynicism. As justified in Section 4.4, an indirect questioning technique was used for this study. The definition of consumer cynicism was first shown to respondents first then they are asked to "think of a friend of the same sex as himself or herself who is cynical about CRM practices". The definition of CRM was also presented to respondents. Respondents were asked if they needed more clarification or explanations of these constructs. As discussed in Section 4.4, an indirect questioning technique was used in this study. The moderator then proceeded with the first question:

1. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What are consumers' perceptions of company motives of CRM practices that your friend would think of?

2. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Does your friend think these perceived company motives have impact on his/her cynicism towards CRM practices?

As discussed in Section 4.2.1, attribution theory was used in this study to explore the role of consumer cynicism towards CRM by examining consumers' perceptions of company motives of engaging in CRM activities. This purpose of the first question was to investigate the impact of consumers' perceptions of company motives on consumer cynicism.

Following this, the scale items of consumer cynicism (Appendix 2) were presented to respondents. The moderator then asked the following questions:

3. Read carefully the words that describe consumer cynicism (Appendix 2). Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Any wordings in this page do you think are not relevant to reflect your friend's cynicism towards CRM practices?

4. If not relevant, why do you think they are not relevant to reflect your friend's cynicism towards CRM practices?

The purpose of the second question is to identify possible problems, and to verify whether all the items are properly worded and correctly understood by the respondents.

Section Two

As stated in Section 4.3, this study used "NND" as a fictitious company name. Respondents were asked to see if "NND" as a company name evoked in their minds and to determine a brand name for the toothpaste. Moreover, eight fictitious causes were shown to the respondents to see if they had any problem in understanding the fictitious names. For the ongoing cause condition, the created fictitious non-profit organizations are: Dental Fund for Orphans, Road Safety Trust, Save the Dolphins, AIDs Trust. The disaster conditions are: National Flood Relief, Dental Fund for Tsunami Victims, Extreme Weather Relief, Natural Disaster Recovery Fund (see Appendix 3). The following questions were asked:

5. Do you think the company name "NND" is associated to any company that you know?

6. Do you think the company name "NND" is associated to specific occasions that you know?

7. Can you create a brand name for a toothpaste product?

8. Do you have any problem in understanding these names for non-profit organisations that are listed in part 2 of Appendix B?

9. Are any of these names associated to any non-profit organisations that you are familiar with?

Section Three

The questions that had been asked in section three were based on the recommendations and evaluations of Ajzen (2002, 2006) and Fishbein and Ajzen (2009). Beliefs play a central role in the TPB and are expected to offer the affective and cognitive bases for attitudes towards the behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 2006). It is necessary to conduct a qualitative study to identify accessible behavioural, normative, and control beliefs (Ajzen, 2006). This view is in line with Francis et al. (2004) who recommend “one elicitation study can be used to develop the indirect (belief-based) measures for all the predictor constructs in the TPB model” (p. 25). In this study, focus groups were used to elicit salient beliefs.

Elicitation of Behavioural Beliefs

"A person's attitude towards a behaviour is his or her positive or negative evaluation of performing the behaviour..., and irrespective of the behaviour under consideration, the attitude is determined by the person's salient beliefs about that behaviour (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975, p. 67). Ajzen and Fishbein (1975) recommend that attitude questions simply ask respondents to state the advantages and disadvantages of a behaviour. When eliciting the salient beliefs that determine attitudes towards a given behaviour, it is fundamentally necessary to ensure correspondence in action, target, context, and time elements among the various constructs of the TPB framework (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

10. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What does your friend believe are the advantages of him or her being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she see CRM products?

11. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What does your friend believe are the disadvantages of him or her being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she see CRM products?

12. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Is there anything else that your friend associate with being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she see CRM products?

Elicitation of Normative Beliefs

According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1975), subjective norms are a function of normative beliefs. Subjective norms are an individual's beliefs that the important others (that is, people with whom he/she relates) think that he/she should or should not perform a specific behaviour. Normative beliefs, on the other hand, are beliefs about another person's behavioural prescriptions (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1975). Normative beliefs differ from subjective norms in that they involve specific individuals or groups, rather than a generalised significant other (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). In forming subjective norms, a respondent generally takes into account the normative expectations of various others in his or her environment, considering whether these individuals or groups think he or she should or should not participate in certain behaivor. In order to elicit the identity of relevant people affecting the respondents' decision to purchase CRM products, the focus group respondents were asked the following:

13. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any individuals or groups who would approve of your friend being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she see CRM products?

14. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any individuals or groups who would disapprove of your friend being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she see CRM products?

15. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any other individuals or groups who come to mind when you think about your friend being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she see CRM products?

Elicitation of Control Beliefs

Control beliefs refer to the perception of factors likely to facilitate or impede the performance of a behaviour (Ajzen, 1988). These factors include both internal factors (for example, information, personal deficiencies, skills, abilities and emotions) and external factors (for example, opportunities, dependence on others and barriers). These control beliefs, "partly based on past experience with the behaviour, are often influenced by second-hand information, by the experiences of acquaintances and friends, and by other factors that increase or reduce the perceived difficulty of performing the behaviour in question" (Ajzen, 1991, p. 196). In line with this theory, “the more resources and opportunities individuals believe they possess, and the fewer obstacles or impediments they anticipate, the greater should be their perceived control over the behaviour" (Ajzen, 1991, p. 196). In order to elicit control beliefs, the respondents of focus groups were asked the following questions:

16 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What factors or circumstances you think that would make your friend easily to be cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she see CRM products?

17 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What factors or circumstances you think would make it difficult/impossible for your

friend to be cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she see CRM products in a shop?

18 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any other factors or circumstances that could make it difficult or prevent your friend from being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she see CRM products?

A content analysis of the responses to the above questions will result in lists of behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs. These lists were used to construct items to be included in the pilot and respectively, the final questionnaire (Ajzen, 2002). Details of the content analysis were presented in Chapter four.

Finally, respondents were asked to have a look at the construct definitions as shown in Appendix 4 before answering the following questions that are related to the consequences of consumer cynicism:

19 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would still have intention to purchase CRM products despite his or her consumer cynicism towards CRM practices?

20 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would still purchase CRM products despite his or her consumer cynicism towards CRM practices?

21 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would still purchase CRM products if he or she believe he/she can make a difference to the causes that companies support?

22 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would have protest behaviour against firms that involve in CRM practices?

5.2.1.3 Piloting of Focus Groups

Three students were invited to participant in the piloting of the focus groups in November 2016. However, one student was poorly and was not able to attend the pilot. The primary objectives of the pilot exercise were to gain experience of the focus group discussion format, test the minidisk recorder for the first time and check participant understanding of the focus group questions.

Piloting of the focus group was held in a quiet meeting room on university campus. A £5 note was provided as an incentive to each participant attending the pilot of the focus group meeting. The pilot focus group was audio-recorded, with the respondents' verbal consent and lasted 35 minutes.

The piloting of the focus group resulted in changes to some of the questions which were seen to be confusing and amendments were subsequently made. The issues and changes are listed below:

- The fictitious cause name of “Road Safety Trust” appeared problematic. One participant identified this cause was, in fact, a newly established charity in the UK. The participant’s suggestion was confirmed correct after an online search was conducted after the focus group session completed. Therefore, this ongoing cause was changed to “Support for Road Safety”, which was not associated to any non-profit organizations that the two respondents were aware of.

- Question 21 is related to the definition of “self-efficacy”. Two respondents both considered question 21 was clear and easy to understand. However, they both thought the definition of self-efficacy is too “academic” to understand and was not necessary to ask the respondents to look at the definition before answering question 21. Following their advice, the definition of self-efficacy was omitted.

The amended focus group questions are listed in Appendix 5. The definitions of constructs, wordings to reflect consumer cynicism, fictitious names for NPOs were presented to respondents each time before or after relevant questions were asked.

5.2.2 Data Preparation and Analysis Method of Focus Groups

There are no well-defined rules or methods for analysing qualitative data (Bryman and Bell, 2015). Saunders *et al* (2012) suggested two methods to analyse the qualitative data: inductive and deductive approach. The inductive approach refers to building a new theory by the qualitative study, while the deductive means validating n existing theory (Bryman and Bell, 2015). The analytical methods of the inductive approach include template analysis, analytical induction, grounded theory, discourse theory and narrative analysis (Saunders *et al*, 2012). The deductive analysis involves procedures of pattern matching and explanation building (Yin, 2014). The existing theory, proposed framework and theoretical propositions are used to explain the data patterns that are in line with expectations (Yin, 2014). In this study, content analysis was used to analyse the data. Qualitative content analysis is "*the process of identifying, coding, and categorising the primary patterns in the data*" (Patton, 2015, p.425). It serves both the deductive and inductive research (Tesch, 1990). Qualitative content analysis includes three approaches: conventional approach, directed codes and summative approach. The conventional approach refers to coding the categories inductively from the data (Saunders *et al*, 2012). The directed codes mean codes are developed initially from the existing theory with the probability of new themes emerging from the data. The summative approach, which is numerical like quantitative content analysis, involves in counting and comparting keywords or content, followed by interpretation of the underlying context (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005; Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009). This research adopts the directed qualitative data as it is compatible with the purpose of qualitative study and it can support and extend the existing theory.

Zhang and Wildemuth (2009) recommend eight steps for qualitative content analysis. Step (1): the data preparation--transcribe the data. Step (2): define the unit of analysis; the current study uses themes expressed in words, phrase, sentences or paragraphs. Step (3): develop categories and the coding scheme by using the data, previous related studies, and theories; Step (4): test the coding scheme; check consistency between the scheme definition and the assigned text. Step (5): code all the text. Step (6): assess the coding consistency. Steps (7): draw conclusions form the coded data. Step (8): report the findings. This research followed the eight steps that Zhang and Wildemuth (2009) suggested to conduct the focus group data analysis for this study.

5.3 Conducting the Focus Groups

The time constraint and the difficulty of recruiting respondents for this research required a degree of pragmatism in regard to the collection of focus group data. The respondents of two focus groups (FG1 and FG2) consisted of undergraduate students. The respondents were informed that the focus group discussion would not be revealed to any third party.

The first focus group was held on university campus in November 2016. This group was consisted of four male and four female respondents (eight respondents in total). Six of them are second year students, two of them are first year students. The focus group lasted one hour and 35 minutes. The second focus group was conducted on university campus in November 2016. Eight respondents were scheduled to attend but only seven attended. This group consisted of three male and four female respondents (seven respondents in total).

Table 5.1 The Profile of Focus Group Respondents

Group	Gender	Age Range	Educational Level	Number of Respondents
FG1	4 Male	19 -- 21	Undergraduate	8
	4 Female			
FG2	3 Male	19 -- 21	Undergraduate	7
	4 Female			

A £5 note was provided as an incentive to each for participation of the focus group discussions. Before a focus group began, each participant completed a consent form (Appendix 1). Each group took place in a quiet meeting room and was audio-recorded with the permission of the respondents. The moderator gave a brief overview of what was going to take place. Respondents were informed of the aims of the study and of the fact that they could withdraw at any time in the discussion process. The moderator highlighted the requirements that interactions between respondents were permitted but only one participant spoke at any one time and each was given the opportunity to make his/her point in full. The focus group protocol (Appendix 7) acted as a guide for the focus groups. However, it did not dictate the precise course of the discussion. Questions were adapted to the specific context and interesting issues that arose were probed further. The discussion lasted 1 hour and 20 minutes. Table 3.3 demonstrated the profile of focus group respondents.

5.4 Findings of Focus group

Focus group respondents were undergraduates who are studying at Leeds Beckett University. All of them were between 19 and 21 years old. Many respondents already knew each other since they studied same modules together. The advantages of working with pre-existing groups is that they can “relate each other's comments to actual incidents in their shared daily lives. They often challenge each other on contradictions between what they are professing to believe and how they actually behaved” (Kitzinger, 1994, p. 105). Moreover, the respondents often feel more relaxed to discuss issues among a group of friends (Wilkinson, 1998, p. 334).

5.2.4.1 Data Analysis

Preparation of the focus group data is the process of transcription. Transcribing focus groups is more complicated than one-to-one interviews (Malhotra et al., 2012). The researcher first listened carefully to the discussion, then listened to it again before starting transcription. The process of transcription of each focus group took between ten and twelve hours. As suggested by (Bernard and Ryan, 2010), data was cleaned by revising errors in the transcriptions. All transcripts were saved as word files in a secure computer. The name of the file reflected the details of the focus group: file "FG1" means the first focus group, “FG2" refers to the second focus group. Coding can be done either manually or through a software programme. In this research, the focus group data were analysed manually due to the small and managed number of transcripts. The researcher coded the data by writing notes on the texts, using highlighters or coloured pens to indicate potential patterns, and using “post-it” notes to identify segments of data.

5.2.4.2 Results of Focus Groups

Consumers’ perceptions of company motives

Consumers view a firm’s motives for participating in CRM practices as either driven by internal causes (intrinsic motives), e.g., monetary motives or external causes (extrinsic motives), e.g., motives for supporting a good cause (Ellen et al. 2000; Du et al.,2010). Consumers’ perceptions of company motives are expected to have an influencing effect on the direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products to the company for their CRM practices. From the findings of the focus group, it was found that 5 out of 15 respondents perceived the firms' motives for involving in CRM is profit-driven. Below are the typical views that were given by some respondents, who remarked:

"Er.. Thinking she is cynical about CRM, the perceived motives are profit-driven. I mean, the ultimate goal of any business is to make a profit, anything they do is for the sake of money…. Practicing cause-related marketing can attract more consumers, in a way to make more profits." (FG1, female-2)

"Erm, I suppose he would think it's just to increase sales. It looks like companies are doing good deeds, but everything within, erm, what's the word, yes cause-related marketing is another trick to make consumers buy more of their products. So they can make more money. That's it." (FG2, Male-3).

A few respondents suggested that consumers' perceptions of company motives of practising CRM are that companies are exploiting the good cause for publicity as reflected in the following statement:

"'Well, don't think companies want to give something back to society by doing cause-related. It's kind of like using the good cause as a way to generate publicity. They probably pocket the donations, who knows" (FG2, Female 1).

Consequently, some respondents believed that CRM activities are perceived as a win-win situation for both the firms and the supported causes:

“.....the companies get what they want, profits, reputation, etc while doing something good for the society. It’s a good practice in my opinion....” (FG1, Male 2).

Others believed companies are using CRM to help to demonstrate corporate values and culture:

“...in some cases, it’s all down to the corporate leaders. Some corporate leaders who have kind heart probably genuinely want to give somethings back to society. CRM is like a reflection of their values and corporate values..” (FG2, Female 6)

Another viewpoint held by some was that companies participated in CRM under the pressure from the society and government:

“Well companies that, say for example, engage with social activities, like giving an offer that is linked with a good cause, don’t genuinely want to pay something back to society. The business has to behave socially responsible because of social pressure and government regulations...for example, especially the big corporates want to meet the requirements of the government, like helping local communities etc” (FG1, Female 3)

“Basically, erm, companies that provide offers that, erm, some amount of money is donated to charities, want to make themselves look good in society. They know publics want to see such good acts. By doing cause-related offers, make consumers feel good about the companies, it’s kind of like meeting the expectations, well it’s all good for the brand or company image.” (FG2, Male 4)

Moreover, there was a high level of consistency amongst respondents, agreeing on the impact of consumers' perceptions of company motives on consumer cynicism towards CRM practices. The findings of the focus group discussion reflect what has previously been highlighted in the literature review on the relationship between consumers' perceptions of company motives and consumer cynicism in Section 3.3.1. Here, Kanta et al. (2014) stated that less favourable responses are easily created among consumers as they attribute more self-centred motives to firms engaged in CRM campaign activities, but did not indicate what type of less favourable responses these might include. The findings of the focus group discussion confirmed the link between less favourable responses and (specifically) consumer cynicism. The focus group findings also discovered that a company being primarily profit-driven was perceived most often as the motivation for firms to participate in CRM practices. Focus groups are useful to discover similarities and differences in attitudes, perspectives, preferences and behaviours among group participants (Iacobucci and Churchill 2015; Stewart and Shamdasani 2014). In this study, however, there was one participant who was not very sure if consumers' perceptions of company motives have an impact on consumer cynicism. Therefore, no new different perceptions of company motives were generated from the focus group study. As there were only two focus groups conducted, different perceptions of company motives could be generated by conducting more focus groups or by integration with other forms of exploratory data to provide a more rounded picture of the phenomena and views being studied.

Consumer Cynicism Scale

The measure of consumer cynicism in this research was taken from previous research (Van Dolen et al., 2012). Van Dolen et al. (2012) developed the scale based on the work of Stanley et al. (2005). The scale was developed to measure consumer cynicism towards collective buying. Amendments were made to adapt to the current study. For example, the scale item "I believe that the online firm has little regard for meeting my and other customers' needs during collective buying" (Van Dolen et al., 2012) was changed to "I believe that NND has little regard for meeting consumers' needs while supporting XXX".

The scale items were presented to focus group respondents to discuss each item and verify whether all the items were properly worded and correctly understood by the respondents. The statement, "My friend believes firms would misrepresent information to gain acceptance for a cause-related buy", caused some confusion to two respondents from focus group 1 (FG1). Following group discussion, the statement was changed to "My friend believes firms would misrepresent information in order to persuade consumers to purchase cause-related products". The original statement and the changed statement were both presented to focus group 2 (FG2). Respondents from FG2 all agreed that the changed statement was clearer and easier to understand. Views regarding the rest of the items that reflect consumer cynicism were consistent across two focus group respondents. No recommended changes to the rest of the scale items of the consumer cynicism construct.

Company Name, Brand Name and Brand-cause Fit

As justified in Section 4.3, toothpaste was used as the product in this research. Many of research used fictional names in their CRM studies (i.e., Herr et al., 1991; Bone, 1995; Laczniak, et al., 2001; Yoon et al., 2006; La Ferle et al., 2013). “NND” was used as a fictitious company name in this study. All the focus group respondents indicated that “NND” didn’t evoke in their minds and agreed to use “NND” as a company name.

Respondents from focus group one were encouraged to brainstorm a brand name for the toothpaste product. With ten minutes to brainstorm, the moderator wrote down the suggested brand names on a flipchart visible to all respondents. The name that was agreed on by most participants was chosen as the fictitious brand name used in this research. During the focus group discussion, a few names were brainstormed as fictitious brand names, such as “Den hygiene”, “Dentgiene”, “Tooth Clean” and “Beausmile”. After some discussion, a few respondents did not find comfortable or appropriate to include the word “dent” and “den” in the brand name. However, the word “Dental” has appeared in many brand names that are associated with dental products. Respondents from focus group one considered “Beausmile” as the most appropriate fictitious name for toothpaste brand. The toothpaste brand name “Beausmile” was presented to focus group two to identify if the name was associated with any brand names that they were aware of. All respondents from focus group two didn’t associate any known brand names that were associated with “Beausmile”. Therefore, “Beausmile”, a fictitious name was used as the brand name to eliminate respondents’ biases towards existing toothpaste brands.

Respondents from both focus groups didn't have any problem in understanding the eight cause conditions that were presented: Dental Fund for Orphans, Support for Road Safety, Save the Dolphins, AIDs Trust, National Flood Relief, Dental Fund for Tsunami Victims, Extreme Weather Relief, and Natural Disaster Recovery Fund. Consequently, none of these names were associated to any NPOs that they were aware of.

Next, the respondents were given a list (see Appendix 7) containing eight causes and were asked to rate how compatible they felt for each cause that partner with Beausmile toothpaste. The findings indicated that the most compatible ongoing cause was the Dental Fund for Orphans and the least compatible ongoing cause was Save the Dolphins. The most compatible natural disaster cause was the Dental Fund for Tsunami Victims and the least compatible one was the Extreme Weather Relief.

Table 5.2 Findings of brand-cause Fit

Statistics									
		Dental Fund for Orphan	Support for Road Safety	Save the Dolphins	AIDs Trust	National Flood Relief	Dental Fund for Tsunami Victims	Extreme Weather Relief	Natural Disaster Recovery Fund is
N	Valid	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		6.2000	4.7333	1.5333	4.6667	6.1333	6.6667	4.8667	5.8000
Std. Deviation		.67612	.88372	.63994	.72375	.51640	.48795	.63994	.56061

Elicitation of Behavioural, Normative and Control Beliefs

Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) stated that salient beliefs need to be identified prior to the administration of the final questionnaire. Focus group respondents discussed both the advantages and disadvantages of being cynical about purchasing CRM products by thinking of a friend of the same sex as themselves. Findings in relation to advantages of being cynical indicated that many respondents acknowledged that their friends being cynical could prevent themselves from being let down by firms' deceptive behaviour during CRM practices. The following statement was typical of at least one respondent in each group: "Being cynical is good. If companies fail to deliver what they have promised, for example, the certain amount of sales didn't, in fact, contribute to the cause, you won't be surprised or disappointed by the news." Similarly, "Being cynical has the advantage of having less disappointment if companies have deceptive behaviour, like giving less money or whatever they promised to the good cause". Other most mentioned advantages of being cynical include "prevent oneself from being manipulated" and "motivate the firms to behave better by questioning firms' motives for participating in CRM practices". Respondents from two focus groups have consistent views on the disadvantages of being cynical about purchasing CRM products. "Missing out helping others" was the most mentioned disadvantage. Table 3.5 illustrated the beliefs elicited by the sample described.

Normative beliefs are concerned with the likelihood that important specific individuals or groups would approve or disapprove of performing the behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Evidently, not all the important referents would be significant. Only the salient ones will influence indirectly the respondent's subjective norm. The normative outcomes for the formulation of the normative beliefs were based on question of individuals or groups who would think or approve whether individuals should or should not perform the behaviour (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). The findings of focus groups indicated that five salient referents were identified by respondents thinking of a friend of the same sex who are cynical about purchasing CRM products. These were as follows: family, close friends, colleagues/co-workers, members of the community to which one belongs (see Table 3.5)

According to the TPB, the control beliefs, "partly based on past experience with the behaviour, are often influenced by second-hand information, by the experiences of acquaintances and friends, and by other factors that increase or reduce the perceived difficulty of performing the behaviour in question" (Ajzen, 1991, p. 196). Focus group respondents expressed their views about control beliefs of friends of the same sex who are cynical about CRM practices. The responses were analysed, and control beliefs were extracted and used as the basis of a set of statements reflecting the beliefs which can make it difficult or easier to be cynical about purchasing CRM products. The most frequently expressed beliefs were related to lack of trust for firms that involve in CRM activities, beliefs that firms' CRM practices are purely driven by profits, and guilty feeling of not contributing to the cause. In terms of each of the control beliefs elicited, two items, namely control beliefs strength and control beliefs perceived power, were designed to assess indirectly the perceived behavioural control.

Using content analysis, the beliefs were categorised into recurrent underlying themes (Ajzen et at., 1995). Individual responses that were similar and reflected the same underlying theme were merged together to form one belief (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). Following the guidelines recommended by (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975), if a participant mentioned more than nine beliefs (i. e., for one type of belief), only the first nine beliefs were recorded to ensure that all beliefs were accessible to the participant who mentioned them. The behavioural, normative and control beliefs mentioned by the respondents regarding each behaviour were presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Results of Elicitation of Beliefs (F: Frequency)

Behaviour Beliefs	F	Normative Beliefs	F	Control Beliefs	F
Avoid him/ her being let down by firms' deceptive behaviour during CRM practices.	6	Family	11	Lack of Trust	8
Avoid him/her being manipulated by firms' CRM practices.	10	Close Friends	9	Firms' CRM practices are driven by profits	7
Encourage the firms deliver what they promise to support the designated causes.	4	Colleagues/co-workers	6	Guilty feeling of not contributing to the cause	5
Cause him/her missing out helping others.	7	Members of the community	4		

Purchase Intention, Purchase behaviour and Protest Behaviour

Six out of fifteen focus group respondents indicated that intention to purchase CRM products could occur despite the existence of consumer cynicism. Five respondents were not sure if friends with cynicism towards CRM practices would still purchase CRM products. Four respondents indicated that they believed that consumer cynicism would not result in intention to purchase CRM products. There was a high level of consistency amongst respondents who believed that friends who hold cynical attitudes would not actually purchase CRM products. However, nine out of fifteen respondents emphasised that intention to purchase and purchase behaviour could still occur if cynical individuals have strong belief that the purchases could make a difference to the causes. Respondents had a variety of views on the relationship between consumer cynicism and protest behaviour. Some respondents believed that cynical individuals have doubts about firms' motives in participating in CRM practices, therefore, they wouldn't bother to purchase CRM products and not to mention to take any actions towards firms. Some respondents suggested that whether cynical individuals engage in protest behaviour or not depends on what the firms have done wrong during CRM practices.

Some respondents believed that individuals with a cynical attitude would engage in protest behaviour to punish the firms involved in CRM practices.

5.5 Limitations of Using Focus Group

Focus groups are often criticized for a lack of reliability and generalisability to the wider population (Saunders *et al.*, 2012). In this research, the two focus groups were conducted representing the sampling frame. Moreover, the focus groups were followed by the quantitative study, so therefore, the reliability of the results was assessed.

Other limitations of focus groups are related to the facilitation of the discussion, such as a lack of control over the respondents, respondents' reluctance to engage in the discussion and the difficulty of audio-recording and transcribing the data (Bryman, 2008). However, these limitations are avoidable by careful planning and moderating of the focus groups. A structured focus group format was adopted in this research (see Section 5.2.1). Most focus group respondents engaged very well in the discussion, which helped to achieve relevant information, ideas and recommendations for the study. However, there were a few respondents who shifted the conversation by making jokes or irrelevant references. To overcome this, the moderator reminded the respondents to focus on the topic and asked them if there were any questions that they needed the moderator to clarify. To overcome the limitations, the researcher transcribed the conversations as soon as the focus group was conducted to avoid missing, or being overwhelmed by important data.

5.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the qualitative method, analysis and results of the focus group. The justification of using a structured focus group format was discussed. The number of focus groups and the development of focus group questions were also detailed in this chapter. Two focus groups were conducted to generate relevant information to support the quantitative study in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER SIX: QUANTITATIVE METHOD AND QUESTIONNAIRE DEVELOPMENT

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is dedicated to exposing in detail the quantitative method and questionnaire development. Section 6.2, under the theme of questionnaire development, details the review of the constructs and choice of scales used in the thesis. The targeted respondents and sample size is presented in Section 6.3. The results of the pre-testing and piloting of the questionnaire were presented in Section 6.4 and 6.5. The final version of the questionnaire was provided in Section 6.6. Section 6.7 summarize the chapter.

6.2 Questionnaire Development

As stated in Section 4.3, the quantitative phase of this study used a 2 × 2 experimental design, in which independent variables, namely, types of donation situation (natural disaster versus ongoing cause) and brand-cause fit (high versus low) are manipulated. The quantitative part of the study formed the main part of the research effort.

The findings focus group indicated that the most compatible ongoing cause was the Dental Fund for Orphans (M=6.20) and the least compatible ongoing cause was Save the Whales (M=1.53). The most compatible natural disaster cause was the Dental Fund for Tsunami Victims (M=6.67) and the least compatible one was the Extreme Weather Relief (M=4.87).

Therefore, four experimental stimuli/scenarios were prepared by using the a 2 × 2 design. The fictitious organization and causes remained constant across all four stimuli/scenarios (Brown and Dacin, 1997). The four stimuli/scenarios were demonstrated in Appendix 8.

6.2.1 Development of Questionnaire Instrument

The development of the questionnaire followed two stages. First, all the constructs and the various scales used to measure the constructs were reviewed. The scale that was most closely related to this research was adopted when there were more than one existing scales to measure the same construct. Second, academics specialising in this field of study reviewed the questionnaire in terms of its length and wording. A pilot study was also carried out before the main data collection process in order to check its feasibility to improve the design of the instrument (Zikmund, 2003). The content of the questionnaire covered measures of all constructs embraced in the research theoretical framework.

In order to determine the use of measures for the concepts in the theoretical framework, the researcher re-visited the literature in search of reliable and valid measures. The literature confirmed that such measures exist for all the constructs that made up the conceptual models. Following the guidelines by Bearden et al. (1999), the criteria for adapting existing scales from the literature in the current research are:

(1) The measure had a reasonable theoretical base and conceptual definition;

(2) The measures were developed within the social science literature and were relevant to the consumer behaviour literature;

(3) Scaling procedures were employed during scale development;

(4) Estimates of reliability and/or validity of the constructs in the studies from which they were adapted were above the recommended standards.

The researcher followed these criteria to adapt existing scales to improve their reliability and validity within the context of the study. The constructs of the TPB were based on the TPB (Ajzen, 2002), and based on the results of the elicitation study. Items assessing attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, and intentions with respect to the specific behaviour were all included in the questionnaire. The direct and indirect measures of the TPB predictors were both included in the questionnaire. Accordingly, the TPB predictors were all measured directly, by asking respondents to judge each on a set of scales, and were indirectly assessed on the basis of their corresponding beliefs. Items designed to assess behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs were integrated. Furthermore, questions related to the respondents' background were incorporated.

The items within each construct were measured using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree). A seven-point Likert scale was preferred to a five-point Likert scale as research had shown that respondents were likely to interpolate in the latter. A review of the relevant literature indicated that reliability was maximized with seven-point scale (Nunnally, 1967; Finn, 1972; Ramsay, 1973; Dawes, 2008) and a seven-point scale was the most common choice of marketing researchers (Cox, 1980). Therefore, a seven-point scale was adopted for all constructs in the questionnaire. The content of the individual questions were adapted from established measures developed by previous researchers. The justification for using and adapting these measures is as follows.

All constructs used in the questionnaire were taken from the existing literature. In addition, the focus group findings were used to help to develop the questionnaire. As detailed in Section 5.2.4.2, the findings from the focus group were used to make amendments to the consumer cynicism scale to adapt to the current study. For example, following the feedback from focus group respondents, the scale item "I believe that the online firm has little regard for meeting my and other customers' needs during collective buying" (Van Dolen et al., 2012) was changed to "I believe that NND has little regard for meeting consumers' needs while supporting XXX". Focus group findings were also used to determine the company Name, brand Name and band-cause Fit that were applied in the main quantitative study. Behavioural, Normative and Control Beliefs that were elicited from focus groups were also used in the development of questionnaire.

6.2.2 Consumers' perceptions of company motives for Engaging in CRM

Many studies on consumer attributions on firms that participate in socially responsible activities focus on purely egoistic or self-centred motives and purely altruistic or other-cantered motives (e.g., Drumwright, 1996; Webb and Mohr, 1998; Lichtenstein et al. 2004). The more consumers attribute self-serving motives to firms that involve in socially responsible activities, the more negative attitudes that consumers have. In contrast, the more consumers attribute other-serving motives, the more positive attitudes (Drumwright, 1996). However, Ellen et al. (2006) found out that consumer attributes were not simplistic as just other-centered and self-centered motives. Four types of attributions were suggested by Ellen et al. (2006), namely, egoistic-driven, strategic-driven, stakeholder-driver and values-driven. Swanson (1995) identified three types of consumer attributions: economical, positive duty and negative duty, which shared many similarities to the consumer attributions identified by

Ellen et al. (2006). These findings (Swanson, 1995; Ellen et al., 2006) indicated that consumer attributions to firms that involve in socially responsible activities are more complicated than the attributions that were suggested by other researchers (e.g., Drumwright, 1996; Webb and Mohr, 1998; Lichtenstein et al. 2004). However, Swanson's (1995) study was only based on existing literature and lacked empirical basis. In contrast, Ellen et al. (2006) identified different consumer attributions using empirical evidence.

The consumer attribution scale developed by Ellen et al. (2006) was applied in CSR and CRM studies (e.g., Groza et al., 2011; Gatignon-Turnau and Mignonac, 2015). The scale tested and achieved good reliability and validity (values-driven: α= 89; stakeholder-driven: α= .91; egoistic-driven: α= .79; strategic-driven: α= .76). Therefore, this study adopted Ellen et al.'s (2006) scale (see Table 6.1) with slight adaptation to measure consumers' perceptions of company motives for engaging in CRM. XXX represents the cause that NND supports, such as Dental Fund for Orphans, Save the Dolphins, Dental Fund for Tsunami Victims and Extreme Weather Relief.

Table 6.1 Results of Elicitation of Beliefs (F: Frequency)

		Consumer Perceived Company Motives for Engaging in CRM
Values-driven	CPMF1	1. Company NND have a long-term interest in society.
	CPMF2	2. Company NND feels morally obligated to help XXX.
	CPMF3	3. The owners and employees of NND believe in the cause XXX.
	CPMF4	4. Company NND want to make it easier for consumers who care about XXX to support it.
	CPMF5	5. Company NND are trying to giving something back to the community.
Egoistic-driven	CPMF6	6. Company NND is taking advantage of the XXX to help their own business
	CPMF7	7. Company NND is taking advantage of the cause (i.e., Beausmile toothpaste that supports XXX) to help their own business
	CPMF8	8. Company NND support XXX as a tax write-off.
	CPMF9	9. Company NND wants to get publicity by supporting XXX.
Stakeholder-driven	CPMF10	10. Company NND feels their customers expect it to support XXX.
	CPMF11	11. Company NND feels society in general expects it to support XXX.
	CPMF12	12. Company NND feels their stakeholders expect it to support XXX.
	CPMF13	13. Company NND feels their employees expects it to support XXX.
Strategic-driven	CPMF14	14. Company NND will get more customers by supporting XXX.
	CPMF15	15. Company NND will keep more of their customers by supporting XXX.
	CPMF16	16. Company NND hopes to increase profits by supporting XXX.

Source: Ellen et al. (2006)

6.2.3 Consumer Cynicism

This research identified four consumer cynicism scales developed for marketing applications (Kanter and Wortzel, 1985; Turner and Valentine, 2001; Helm, 2015). Turner and Valentine's (2001) cynicism scale was developed to be used in organizational behaviour and business ethics and therefore it's unsuitable to capture the construct as this research defines it. Kanter and Wortzel's (1985) scale had been used to measure social cynicism, which is a distinctive from consumer cynicism. In addition, Kanter and Wortzel's (1985) scale has not been validated. Therefore, Turner and Valentine's (2001) and Kanter and Wortzel's (1985) scales were not considered to be appropriate for this research. Helm (2015) developed a twelve-item scale to measure consumer cynicism. Helm's (2015) scale was used to tap three elements of cynicism, namely, general opportunism, opportunism specifically directed towards consumers and deception. However, this scale was designed to measure general consumer cynicism and was only adapted in Ketron's (2016) study. This study focuses on a specific form of cynicism, namely, consumer cynicism towards CRM, therefore, Helm's (2015) consumer cynicism scale was not considered as the most suitable measure for this study. Stanley et al. (2005) developed a definition of consumer cynicism that can be applied across several contexts. Based on Stanley's et al (2005) work, this research defined consumer cynicism as an attitude characterized by a disbelief in a firm's underlying motives for using CRM as a marketing practice. Similar to the researcher's perspective on consumer cynicism in this study, Van Dolen et al. (2012) developed a scale to measure consumer cynicism following Stanley's et al (2005) work. Van Dolen's et al. (2012) six-item scale which used mostly short and simple words, achieved scale reliability of 0.78 and was therefore employed by this study albeit with a slight adaptation (see Table 6.2).

Table 6.2 Initial Constructs with Items: Consumer Cynicism

	Consumer Cynicism
CYS17	17. I believe that NND has little regard for meeting consumers' needs while supporting XXX.
CYS18	18. I believe that NND support XXX for its own benefits only.
CYS19	19. I question NND's motives for supporting XXX.
CYS20	20. I believe that NND pretends to care more about consumers and orphans than they really do in order to get consumers into the their products.
CYS21	21. I believe that NND misrepresents information, by supporting XXX, in order to persuade consumers to purchase Beausmile toothpaste.
CYS22	22. I believe that NND only pretends to care about its consumers in order to gain profit from selling Beausmile toothpaste that supports XXX.

Source: Van Dolen et al. (2012)

6.2.4 Purchase Intention

A variety of scales have been used by researchers to measure purchase intentions. For instance, a single-item scale (e. g., Whitlark et al. 1993; Hajjat, 2003; Tangari et al., 2010), a 2-item scale (e. g., Boulding et al. 1993), a 3-item scale (e. g., Chang, 2004), a 4-item scale (e. g., Li et al. 2002; Prendergast and Hwa 2003), a 6-item scale (e. g., Boulding et al., 1993), and an 11-item scale (e.g., Martin and Bush, 2000). Every study measuring purchase intention used different scales with different set of items. Some researchers (e. g., Zeithaml et al., 1996) argued that single-item, two-item and even six-item scales were not able to capture the full range of potential consumer intentions. However, research findings evidenced that the single-item or two-item scales were usable and could provide good predictions of purchase intentions (e.g., Whitlark et al. 1993; Kumar et al., 2009). In order to make every question relevant and avoid a lengthy questionnaire, this research adopted a single-item scale to measure purchase intention. The measure of purchase intention utilized single-item built on the work by (Tangari et al., 2010). In this research, Attribution Theory and the TPB are applied separately. Therefore, purchase intention in the TPB model (see Section 6.2.6) was measured by three items recommended by Azjen (2002).

Table 6.3 Initial Constructs with Items: Purchase Intention

	Purchase Intention
PI23	23. I would consider purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX.

Source: Tangari et al. (2010)

6.2.5 Self-efficacy

Measures of self-efficacy fell into two categories. The first category measured general self-efficacy. General self-efficacy was defined as "one's belief in one's overall competence to effect requisite performances across a wide variety of achievement situations" (Eden, in press, p. 6) or as "individuals' perception of their ability to perform across a variety of different situations" (Judge, et al., 1998, p.170). Thus, general self-efficacy referred to differences between individuals who perceived themselves capable of achieving goals in a broad array of contexts. The first and the most widely used general self-efficacy scale was developed by Sherer et al. (1982) which had been used in different research studies (e.g., Riggio et al., 2013). Although Sherer's et al. scale (1982) was used in business settings, the scale was developed and mostly adopted for clinical and personality research. Sherer's et al. (1982) scale was, therefore, not considered appropriate for this research. The second category measured domain-specific self-efficacy. The measures of self-efficacy were often domain or task specific (Bandura, 1984; Park and John, 2014), such as self-efficacy in the context of negotiation activities (Chowdhury, 1993), self-efficacy for software piracy (Kuo and Hsu, 2001), Self-efficacy over getting information online (Pavlou and Fygenson, 2006; Yi and Gong, 2008), self-efficacy as a salesperson (Sujan et al., 1994; Chelariu and Stump, 2011).

The use of the general self-efficacy scale was criticised by various researchers (e.g., Bandura, 1986, 1997; Mischel and Shoda, 1995). It was claimed that the utility of general self-efficacy for both theory and practice was low. Some researchers questioned whether general self-efficacy is a construct distinct from self-esteem (e.g., Stanley & Murphy, 1997). Failures of using general self-efficacy scales were evidenced in previous research (e.g., Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998). Eden (1996) introduced the concept of "specificity matching", which required matching the specificity of the measure to the specificity of the performance predicted. A better match could provide greater predictability (Eden, 1996). In line with Eden (1996), Bandura (1986, 1997) stated that domain or task specific self-efficacy predicted outcomes the best. Thus, this research decided to choose a task-specific scale to measure self-efficacy in order to achieve greater predictability. However, little research has been undertaken on task-specific self-efficacy scales that are related to ethical behaviour (Shacklock et al., 2011). Kuo and Hsu (2001) developed an ethical computer self-efficacy scale and used it to predict software piracy. Kuo and Hsu's 12-item scale (2001) was tailored to measure software piracy and wordings of the scale items are not relevant for this research. Hence, the adoption of Kuo and Hsu's scale (2001) to measure self-efficacy towards CRM would be problematic. In the context of this study, self-efficacy represents that consumers believe they have great awareness of charitable issues and activities and can make a difference by purchasing cause-related products. Dermody et al.'s (2010) self-efficacy scale captured the specific task that this research focused on. Thus, Dermody et al.'s (2010) three-item scale (α= .80) was modified and adapted to the context of this study to measure self-efficacy.

Table 6.4 Initial Constructs with Items: Self-efficacy

	Self-efficacy
SES24	24. I feel that by purchasing cause-related products I can make a difference.
SES25	25. I feel that I have a pretty good understanding of the important charitable issues facing our society.
SES26	26. Purchasing cause-related products gives people an effective way to help charitable activities.

Source: Dermody et al. (2010)

6.2.6 Protest Behaviour

Protest behaviour is linked with political cynicism (Van Stekelenburg, 2013). Political cynicism can result in different forms of protest behaviour, such as supporting extremist and protest parties (Pattyn et al., 2012), or voting for anti-policy makers' establishment parties (i.e., right-wing extremists) (Bélanger and Aarts, 2006). Van Stekelenburg (2013) suggests that there are two routes to political protest behaviour: one is directed by efficacy and the other by cynicism, respectively amplified and muted by emotions (see Klandermans et al. 2008; Van Stekelenburg and Klandermans, 2013a, 2013b). The joint effect of political cynicism and perceived unfairness is higher protest behaviour (Lee and Glasure, 2007; Van Stekelenburg, 2013). For example, political cynics who display anger or perceive unfair treatment participate more in protest activities. Similarly, consumers with high levels of consumer cynicism use negative electronic word of mouth as a medium for expressing that cynicism (Amezcua and Quintanilla, 2016) and encouraging others to boycott firms (Donoghue and De Klerk, 2013). It is hypothesized that consumer cynicism is positively related to protest behaviour (see Section 3.3.1.2).

There has been limited formal empirical research on consumer protest behaviour (Ettenson, et al., 2005). Protest behaviour in business has been mainly studied in the field of direct boycotts (e.g., Klein, mith and John, 2004; Hoffman and Müller, 2009; Yuksel & Mryteza, 2009; Lindenmeier et al., 2012). To the best of the author's knowledge, the only empirical study on protest behaviour in the area of CSR research was conducted by Grappi et al. (2013). Grappi et al. (2013) posited protest behaviour as reactions to corporate misconduct. The seven-item scale developed by Grappi et al. (2013) (α= .85), as shown Table 6.5, was therefore used to measure protest behaviour for this research, since this was the only scale found to be suitable to apply in a CRM context.

Table 6.5 Initial Constructs with Items: Protest Behaviour

	Protest Behaviour
PB27	27. Participate in boycotting NND.
PB28	28. Blog against NND.
PB29	29. Participate in picketing NND.
PB30	30. Participate in actions of resistance against NND
PB31	31. Support legal actions against NND.
PB32	32. Join collective movements against NND.
PB33	33. Complain to NND.

Source: Grappi et al. (2013)

6.2.7 Questionnaire Items Adopted from the TPB

The following questionnaire items were developed based on the TPB (Ajzen, 2002), and based on the results of the elicitation study, all initial measurement items were kept for the main questionnaire. An indirect questioning technique (see Section 4.4) was used to project views from consumers who are cynical towards purchasing CRM products. This application allows assessment of the volitional control of intention to purchase CRM products despite the existence of consumer cynicism. Next, respondents were asked to "think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices" then answer the questions from section six to section twelve of the questionnaire (see Appendix 9). The direct and indirect measures of the TPB predictors were both included in the questionnaire. It was evidenced that earlier questionnaire items, which may activate memories, could bias responses to later items (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993). Therefore, in this study direct measures of the TPB were presented before the belief based TPB measures. All of the TPB items employed seven-point rating scales.

Direct Measures

This research defined consumer cynicism as an attitude characterized by a disbelief in a firm's underlying motives for using CRM as a marketing practice. According to Azjen (2002), an attitude represents a positive or negative evaluation of performing the behaviour. Some of the adjective pairs used to assess attitude directly were derived from Ajzen (2002), however, others were based on the nature of the behaviour and the empirical results of the elicitation study. A direct measure of attitudes (see Table 6.6) was obtained using six bipolar adjectives (Azjen, 2002).

Table 6.6 Direct Measure of Consumer Cynicism (TPB)

A friend of the same sex as yourself

Having cynicism towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX is							
CYSDM34	Extremely Undesirable	Quite Undesirable	Slightly Undesirable	Neither	Slightly Desirable	Quite Desirable	Extremely Desirable
CYSDM35	Extremely Useless	Quite Useless	Slightly Useless	Neither	Slightly Useful	Quite Useful	Extremely Useful
CYSDM36	Extremely Unimportant	Quite Unimportant	Slightly Unimportant	Neither	Slightly Important	Quite Important	Extremely Important
CYSDM37	Extremely Bad	Quite Bad	Slightly Bad	Neither	Slightly Good	Quite Good	Extremely Good
CYSDM38	Extremely Unpleasant	Quite Unpleasant	Slightly Unpleasant	Neither	Slightly Pleasant	Quite Pleasant	Extremely Pleasant
CYSDM39	Extremely Unfair	Quite Unfair	Slightly Unfair	Neither	Slightly Fair	Quite Fair	Extremely Fair

Source: Azjen (2002)

Subjective norms reflect the perceived social pressure to perform or not perform the behaviour. Three items (Azjen, 2002) were used to obtain a direct measure of subjective norms (see Table 6.7).

Table 6.7 Initial Constructs with Items: Subjective Norm

	Subjective Norm
SN40	40. Most people who are important to my friend think that he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX.
SN41	41. It is expected of my friend that he/she is cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX.
SN42	42. Most people who are important to my friend is cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX.

Source: Azjen (2002)

Perceived behavioural control refers to the degree to which an individual feels that the behaviour is under his or her control. Three items (Azjen, 2002) were used to assess perceived behavioural control. The items were shown in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8 Initial Constructs with Items: Perceived Behavioural Control

	Perceived Behavioural Control
PBC43	43. If my friend wants, he/she could refrain from being cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX.
PBC44	44. It is entirely up to my friend whether or not he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX.
PBC45	45. My friend has total control over whether or not he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX.

Source: Azjen (2002)

Indirect Measures

Behavioural beliefs. These are beliefs about the likely outcomes of the behaviour and the evaluations of these outcomes (Ajzen, 2002). In this study, these beliefs were generated from two focus groups (see Elicitation of Behavioural beliefs in section 3.6.4.2). Attitudinal indirect measures were calculated by multiplying the strength of each behavioural belief (questions 41 to 44) anchored with a disagree – agree scale with its corresponding evaluation (questions 45 to 48) anchored with a undesirable – desirable scale. These questions were shown in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9 Initial Constructs with Items: Behavioural Beliefs

	Strength of Behavioural Beliefs
BB46	46. Avoid him/her being let down by NND's deceptive behaviour.
BB47	47. Avoid him/her being manipulated by NND's CRM practices.
BB48	48.Encourage NND to deliver what they promise to support XXX.
BB49	49. Cause him/her missing out helping XXX.
	Outcome Evaluation
OE50	50. To avoid being let down by NND's deceptive behaviour., my friend's cynicism towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX is …
OE51	51. To avoid being manipulated by NND, my friend's cynicism towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX is …
OE52	53. To encourage NND to delivery what they promise to support XXX, my friend's cynicism towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste is …
OE53	53. The outcome of my friend missing out helping XXX due to his/her cynicism is …

Source: Azjen (2002)

Normative beliefs. These are salient beliefs about the normative expectations of others and motivation to comply with these expectations (Ajzen, 2002). Four items were identified through the elicitation study. Normative beliefs were assessed by asking respondents the likelihood that salient others (four different referents, including family, close friends, colleagues/co-workers, members of the community to which one belongs) would think that he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX. Following the guidelines by (Ajzen, 2002), normative indirect measures were calculated by multiplying strength of each normative belief (questions 49 to 52) by its corresponding motivation to comply (questions 53 to 56) (Ajzen, 2002) (see Table 6.10).

Table 6.10 Initial Constructs with Items: Normative Beliefs

	Strength of Normative Beliefs
NB54	54. Close friends of my friend think he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX.
NB55	55. Family of my friend think he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX.
NB56	56. Colleagues/co-workers of my friend think he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX.
NB57	57. Members of the community of my friend think he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX.
	Motivation to Comply
MC58	58. With respect to being cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX, my friend wants to do what his/her close friends think he/she should do.
MC59	59. With respect to being cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX, my friend wants to do what his/her family think he/she should do.
MC60	60. With respect to being cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX, my friend wants to do what his/her colleagues/co-workers think he/she should do.
MC61	61. With respect to being cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX, my friend wants to do what members of the community think he/she should do.

Source: Azjen (2002)

Control beliefs. These are the salient beliefs that refer to the presence of factors facilitating or impeding behavioural performance and the perceived power of these factors in behavioural performance (Ajzen, 2002). Three control beliefs items were identified from the elicitation study. As with behavioural beliefs and normative beliefs, control beliefs were calculated by multiplying the strength of each control belief (questions 57 to 59) by its corresponding perceived power (questions 60 to 62) (see Table 6.11).

Table 6.11 Initial Constructs with Items: Control Beliefs

	Strength of Control Beliefs
CB62	62. My friend has little trust in NND supporting XXX.
CB63	63. My friend believes that NND's support for XXX is purely driven by profits.
CB64	64. My friend would feel guilty if he/she could not contribute to XXX if he/she didn't purchase Beausmile toothpaste.
	Perceived Power
PP65	65. Lack of trust for NND' involvement in supporting XXX makes my friend become cynical about purchasing Beausmile toothpaste.
PP66	66. Beliefs that NND's support for XXX are purely driven by profits make my friend become cynical about purchasing Beausmile toothpaste.
PP67	67. The guilty feeling for not contributing to XXX prevents my friend from exercise his/her cynicism about purchasing Beausmile toothpaste.

Source: Azjen (2002)

Additional Variables

Intention and purchase behaviour. Based on Azjen's (2002) work, three items were used to measure purchase intention in the TPB. One item was used to measure purchase behaviour in the TPB. These items were measured on a 7-point scale ranging from (1) 'strongly disagree' to (7) 'strongly agree'. The scale items were shown in Table 6.12 and Table 6.13.

Table 6.12 Initial Constructs with Items: Purchase Intention （TPB）

	Purchase Intention (TPB)
PIT68	68. I think my friend will try to purchase Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX.
PIT69	69. I think my friend intends to purchase Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX.
PIT70	70. I think my friend plans to purchase Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX.

Source: Azjen (2002)

Table 6.13 Initial Constructs with Items: Purchase Behaviour

	Purchase Behaviour
PB71	71. My friend would purchase Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX in the near future.

Background information. General information about the respondent was covered and included age, gender, course of the study and ethnicity (see Appendix 4.1)

6.3 Targeted Respondents and Targeted Sample Size

A student sample had been chosen for three reasons. First, student samples are commonly used in experimental research and CRM studies (e.g, Ellen et al., 2000; La Ferle et al., 2013). Second, this study focused on four different experimental situations. Student samples are appropriate since they have relatively little socio-demographic variation compared to the overall society. Student samples are a relevant segment of population and that their homogeneity increases their statistical power of tests (Burton and Lichtenstein 1988). When the respondents are heterogeneous, the error variance is increased and the sensitivity of statistical tests in identifying the significant relationships declines (Cook and Campbell 1976). By selecting a homogeneous sample, these random sources of error can be controlled (Babbie, 2010). Third, homogeneity sampling frame is recommended for theory application tests, which is an important focus of this research. Theory application aims to test a general theory, therefore, statistical generalisation of the findings is not important. As long as a sample is relevant to the universe of the theory, it constitutes a test of that theory (Kruglanski 1973). For these reasons, a homogeneous sample, such as a student sample, was desired and appropriate in the current study.

The sample size is important for conducting factor analysis, t-tests, ANOVA and multiple regressions. It is advised that researchers must aim to collect data from a relatively large sample and avoid using factor analysis with a small sample such as a sample fewer than 50 cases (Hair et al., 2010). On the one hand, it is proposed that a minimum of five observations for each variable to be assessed is necessary, and more preferably a ten-to-one ratio is required (Hair et al. 1998, Nunnally and Bernstein 1994). When this falls below the five-to one ratio there may be the risk of overfitting the set of variables to the sample (Hair et. al., 2011). For example, for a factor analysis with 20 variables, a sample size of 100 is acceptable. There are 4 experimental groups, therefore, 420 questionnaires were collected for the purchase of this study between the 13th December 2016 and the 18th January 2017. Each group has a minimum of 100 respondents. A profile of the final sample is presented in Section 7.5.

6.4 Pre-testing Questionnaire and Verification

Pre-testing a questionnaire is a vital part of the questionnaire development process (Churchill, 1999; Mooi and Sarstedt, 2011). Pre-testing the questionnaire for a survey should be undertaken after the completion of the initial questionnaire design before the questionnaire is used for the main survey in order to minimise measurement errors. In other words, primary data collection should never begin without an adequate pre-test of the instrument (Sudman and Bradburn, 1982; Churchill, 1999; Mooi and Sarstedt, 2011). Though all of the scales used in this research were taken from the existing literature, pre-testing was still required to satisfy two specific objectives. The first objective was to ensure that respondents understood the questions and that the responses were relevant. The second objective was to refine the scale items by checking the level of wording accuracy, the suitability of the order of questions and the number and order of answer options. The results from the pre-test were used to adapt the questions accordingly.

6.4.1 Pre-test Procedure and Respondent Profile

The measures for all the constructs in the research were taken from previous research albeit with necessary amendments. Following advice from the methodological literature (Diamantopoulos et al., 1994), a two-stage procedure was used to conduct the pre-test. First, three academic researchers, who were not involved with the design of the questionnaire but are scholarly experts in the area of questionnaire design and consumer behaviour research, were invited to identify potential problems such as the wording of scale items that might influence respondent comprehension and generally responses. The use of "experts" as pre-test respondents was suggested by a number of previous researchers (e. g., Diamantopoulos et al., 1994; Presser et al., 2004). Three academic researchers were briefed on the topic of this survey as well as samples and population for the principal research. Their opinions were particularly useful for the detection of problems in the questionnaire. A second pre-test using the revised questionnaire was then undertaken. Given that the pre-test sample should be as similar as possible to the target population (Churchill, 1999; Malhotra, 1996; Oppenheim, 2000), four respondents drawn from the target population were used at this stage. These four individuals were not approached later to participate in the main survey. The objective of this second stage was to provide a test of the mode of administration, individual question meanings and their sequences. The debriefing method, which involved discussing each question and associated problems with the respondents (Presser et al., 2004), provided further details to improve the design of the questionnaire was used at this stage.

6.4.2 Issues Identified and Actions Taken by the Researcher

A couple of amendments to the instrument were made based on feedback from the pre-tests using the three academic researchers and four respondents from the target population. The issues and changes were listed below.

- A serial number was recommended to added to each questionnaire item, as this could help with statistical analysis (i.e., calculating the indirect measures of TPB variables).

- The statement (number 30) "Participate in actions of resistance against NND" was considered as not clear and difficult for respondents to understand. Therefore, this statement was changed to "Participate in actions of resistance against NND (e.g., try to stop NND from selling its products). A relevant example was adopted from the measure of protest behaviour by Grappi et al. (2013), which provided a better understanding of the statement.

- The statement (number 60) "Lack of trust for NND that involve in supporting XXX makes my friend become cynical about purchasing Beausmile toothpaste" was changed to "Lack of trust for NND's involvement in supporting XXX makes my friend become cynical about purchasing Beausmile toothpaste".

- The statement (number 62) "The guilty feeling of not contributing to XXX prevents my friend from having cynicism about purchasing Beausmile toothpaste" appeared problematic, and was changed to "The guilty feeling for not contributing to XXX prevents my friend from exercise his/her cynicism about purchasing Beausmile toothpaste".

6.5 Pilot Questionnaire

A separate pilot study was conducted with the purpose being to develop a proper and clear meaning of the questionnaire questions. Four types of questionnaires containing four different experimental stimuli/scenarios were presented to twelve respondents (i.e., three respondents to each of the four stimuli/scenarios). These twelve respondents were later excluded from the main data collection.

The respondents were instructed to read each page carefully and were asked to comment on the questionnaire. As recommended by (Francis, et al., 2004), the following questions were asked:

- Are any questions ambiguous or difficult to answer?
- Does the questionnaire feel too repetitive?
- Does it feel too long?
- Does it feel too superficial?
- Are there any annoying features of the wording or formatting?
- Are there inconsistent responses that might indicate that changes in response endpoints are problematic for respondents who complete the questionnaire quickly?

The respondents did not have any comment regarding the wording or understanding of the questionnaire questions. The questions asked were regarded as coherent and not superficial. However, each participant spent approximately 10-15 minutes to complete the questionnaire, which they regarded as lengthy. Therefore, during the main data collection the researcher prepared the respondents about the length of questionnaire in advance. In sum, the questionnaire was applicable for the main study.

6.6 The Final Version of the Questionnaire

The final version of the questionnaire (Appendix 9) contained eleven full A4 pages (excluding the cover page) with fifteen sections in total. Wording of the questionnaire items was clear and easy to understand. Respondent background information was collected in the last section, which included age category, gender, course of the study and ethnicity. This information was required for the analysis of the database to evaluate hypotheses related to relevant variables. The length of the final version of the questionnaire could be considered to be a shortcoming of the primary research, however, it was unavoidable given the objectives of the study. The researcher was aware of this and put great efforts into increasing the response rate.

Ethical Approval of the questionnaire and covering letter (Appendix 10) was granted by the Research Ethics Panel of the University of Salford prior to commencement of the data collection. The confirmation of the Panel's approval is in Appendix 11.

6.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the quantitative method and the development of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was developed based on the focus group findings and the existing literature. The final version of the questionnaire (Appendix 9) contained fifteen sections in total. Homogeneity sampling frame was used and 420 questionnaires were collected for the purpose of this study. The following chapter reports the analysis and results from the quantitative stage of the investigation.

CHAPTER SEVEN: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis performed and discussion of the findings to facilitate the reader's understanding. Section 7.2 provides a description of the statistical techniques used in this thesis as well as an overview of the reliability and validity of the study in Section 7.3. The experimental procedure is illustrated in Section 7.4. A profile of the final sample is presented in Section 7.5. Data coding and editing, data screening, treatment of the missing data, and assessment of the normality is explained from Section 7.6 to Section 7.8. A discussion around the linearity, homoscedasticity, reliability and exploratory factor analysis is presented from Section 7.9 to Section 7.12. Section 7.13 and Section 7.14 highlights the tests and results of hypotheses. Finally, section 7.15 presents a summary of the chapter.

7.2 Data Analysis Methods

After the completion of data collection, SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) version 24 was employed to analyse the quantitative data gathered from the questionnaire survey. The reason for selecting SPSS was that it performs the calculation of all essential statistics required by this research, such as coding, missing data, normality, reliability tests, factor analysis, etc. Moreover, SPSS has a user-friendly interface which can be learnt within a short period of time. Another added reason is that this software has largely been used and accepted by researchers as a data analysis technique (Zikmund, 2003). SPSS 24 was therefore used to conduct the data analysis. The statistical techniques adopted in this study include descriptive statistics, Little's MCAR test, correlation analysis, Cronbach's coefficient alpha, factor analysis, average variance extracted (AVE), composite reliability (CR), moderation analysis, t-tests and ANOVA.

Moreover, hierarchical regression analyses were performed drawing on the theoretical rationale of the TPB model. In the first set of tests, intention, the dependant variable, was regressed against attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. In order to test first for the sufficiency of the theory of reasoned action, attitudes, and subjective norms were entered in the first step. In a second step, the researcher tested for the TPB applicability and adequacy: accordingly, the perceived behavioural control variable was entered in step 2. These tests were first performed for all experimental scenarios together, and then was performed by high brand-cause fit group versus low brand-cause fit group to check for significant differences. A number of additional tests (e.g., correlation analysis) were also performed drawing on the rationale behind these theories.

The indirect measures were used to test the TPB. Following Ajzen and Fishbein's work (1980), the responses on behavioural belief statements were multiplied by their corresponding outcome evaluations. The fourteen resulting multiplicative products were then summed to obtain a unified indirect measure of attitude. The indirect subjective norms were multiplied by their corresponding motivation to comply. The five resulting multiplicative products were then summed to get a measure of indirect subjective norm. The same procedure was done with the perceived behavioural control variable, where control-belief strength and perceived power were multiplied for each of the three control factors, and the summed multiplicative product term constituted the belief-based measure of perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991). Based on the above, indirect measures of attitudes, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control were used to predict both their corresponding direct measures and intentions. Stepwise regression analysis was undertaken for each of the TPB belief-cased components. In a last stage, and according to the assertion made by TPB that intentions help in predicting behaviour, a test was performed to ascertain whether behaviour was indeed a linear regression function of intentions and perceived behavioural control.

7.3 Reliability and Validity

The underlying constructs of this thesis need to be assessed for reliability and validity (Anderson and Gerbing, 1982; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Dunn et al., 1994; Hair et al., 2010). Reliability and validity are two separate concepts but they are closely related to each other (Bollen, 1989). Reliability refers to the extent an assessment is consistent and stable in measuring what it is intended to measure. Validity refers to the extent to which an assessment actually measures what it is supposed to measure (Sekaran, 2003). A measure needs to be consistent (reliable) and accurate (valid) (Holmes- Smith et al., 2006). Therefore, in order to ensure the quality of the findings and conclusions of this thesis, both reliability and validity were investigated. Reliability and validity assessments are discussed below.

7.3.1 Reliability

Reliability is defined as "the degree to which measures are free from random error and therefore yield consistent results" (Zikmund, 2003, p. 330). In simple terms, reliability refers to the degree to which a scale produces stable and consistent results upon repeated applications (Malhotra, 2003). Reliability and error are related, and thus the larger the error, the lower the reliability (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, the main objective of reliability is to minimize the errors and biases in research (Yin, 1994).

Reliability can be assessed through three approaches – test-retest, alternative-form and internal consistency reliability (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Test-retest reliability is used when the same instrument is given to test the same respondents on two different occasions, taking into account the equivalent conditions. In this case, a correlation coefficient is calculated to reveal the degree of similarity between the two tests. However, the initial test can influence respondents' responses on the second test administration (Malhotra, 1996). For instance, respondents may perform better after experiencing what they have learned from the first test. Furthermore, respondents' attitude may have changed due to the time factor. Respondents may change their attitude if the amount of time between the two tests is too long. Hence, the longer the time allowed between the tests, the lower the reliability. These limitations stated by Malhotra (1996) and Zikmund (2003) make test-retest reliability unsuitable for use in this study.

The alternative-form method "is used when two alternative instruments are designed to be as equivalent as possible" (Zikmund, 2003, p.331). Two different items measuring the same construct are administered to the same group of respondents. The higher the correlation between the two forms, the more reliable the scale is (Zikmund, 2003). However, it is difficult in all cases to create two equivalent forms of the same instrument.

Test-retest reliability and alternative-form reliability are mostly used for longitudinal studies. They are not considered appropriate for use in this thesis because of the abovementioned shortcomings associated with these two methods. Internal consistency – the third approach of reliability, is "used to assess the reliability of a summated scale where several items are summed to form of total score" (Malhotra, 1996, p. 305). In this case, a scale has proven reliability when all the items show consistency in their indication of the concept being measured. There are three methods used to measure internal consistency (Hair et al., 2010). The first is split-half reliability, which requires dividing a multi-items measurement into two halves and then examining the results obtained from the first half of the scales items against the results from the other half. The weakness of this method is that the results vary depending on how the items are divided. The second method is Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha, one of the most widely used methods in estimating reliability (Nunnally, 1978; Sekaran, 2000). This method estimates the extent to which the items in the scale are representative of the domain of the construct being measured. Cronbach's alpha should be used as the first measure to assess the reliability of a measurement scale (Nunnally, 1978; Churchill, 1979). Moreover, Cronbach's alpha is important in measuring multi-point scale items, e.g., the 7-point Likert scales used in this thesis. (Sekaran, 2000). Therefore, Cronbach's alpha is considered appropriate to assess the reliability of the measures used in this thesis.

Furthermore, as suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981), composite reliability and average variance are extracted in order to assess reliability (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). This approach is widely used in marketing research (e.g., De Wulf et al., 2001; Hsieh et al., 2005; Bove and Johnson, 2006). Composite reliability (also called construct reliability) measures the overall reliability of the construct in the aggregate (Holmes-Smith et al., 2006) and is calculated using the formula given below (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

$$CR = \frac{(\sum \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum \lambda_i)^2 + \sum \varepsilon_i}$$

Where,

CR: Composite reliability

$\lambda_{i:}$ The standardized loading

$\varepsilon_{i:}$ The measurement error for each indicator

It is generally recommended that CR should be equal or greater than .70 (Nunnally, 1978).

The average variance extracted (AVE) is another reliability measure and is "a summary of convergence among a set of items representing a latent construct. It is the average percentage of variation explained among the items" (Hair et al., 2006, p. 773). The AVE reflects the overall amount of variance explained by the latent construct (Fornell and Larcker 1981) and is calculated from the formula given below (Fornell and Larcker, 1981):

$$AVE = \frac{\sum (\lambda_i^2)}{\sum (\lambda_i^2) + \sum \varepsilon_i}$$

Where,

AVE: The average variance extracted

$\lambda_{i:}$ The standardized loading

$\varepsilon_{i:}$ The measurement error for each indicator

The AVE should be equal to or greater than .50 to indicate that the observable variables truly reflect the construct in question and ensure the validity of the scale under investigation (Chin, 1998).

In this thesis, CR and AVE have been calculated separately for each multiple item construct because AMOS does not compute these two measures directly (Hair et al., 2010). Cronbach's alpha, CR, and AVE were employed to ensure that the specified items are sufficient in their representation of the underlying constructs.

7.3.2 Validity

Reliability alone is not enough to determine that an instrument is adequate (Churchill, 1979; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Dunn et al., 1994; Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, validity is conducted to validate the constructs of this thesis. Validity refers to "the ability of a scale to measure what intended to be measured" (Zikmund, 2003, p.331). It is believed that the better the fit between the conceptual operational definitions the greater the measurement validity (Hair et al., 2010). Convergent validity, discriminant validity and nomological validity are required to be investigated in the validation of a construct (Peter, 1981). As for the purpose of the generalisability of the research findings, these three validations were conducted in this research.

7.3.2.1 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity indicates the degree to which the latent variable correlates to pre-specified indicators to measure the same construct (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Gerbing and Anderson, 1988; Steenkamp and Van Trijp, 1991). Convergent validity of the constructs in this thesis was firstly investigated by assessing the reliabilities of all the constructs. Then the factor loadings of each construct were estimated to ensure that they are statistically significant. Finally, composite reliability (CR) and the average variance extracted (AVE) were used for evaluating convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). According to Fornell and Cha (1994), convergent validity can be guaranteed if the value of the average variance extracted (AVE) is equal or greater than .50 and composite reliability (CR) is greater than the AVE.

7.3.2.2 Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which one construct is district from other similar constructs (Hair et al., 2006). High discriminant validity indicates that a construct is unique and captures some phenomena that other measures do not. The main aim of discriminant validity is to confirm that internal consistency is greater than external consistency. This research used the method suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981) to evaluate discriminant validity. In this case, the average variance extracted (AVE) was compared with the square of the correlation estimate between the constructs. The AVE for each construct should be greater than the squared correlation between two constructs.

7.3.2.3 Nomological Validity

Nomological validity refers to the investigation of the hypothesized relationships as well as the empirical relationship between the constructs (Hair et al., 2010). In this thesis, nomological validity was first achieved when correlations between the constructs were in accordance with the theory specified (Hair et al., 2006). Then the structural model was used to assess nomological validity of the correlated constructs as suggested by Schumacker and Lomax (2004).

7.4 Experiment procedure

The experiment was a 2 (high versus low brand-cause fit) x 2 (ongoing cause versus natural disaster cause) factorial design. As a result, there were four questionnaires. A sample questionnaire was shown in Appendix 9. The questionnaires were distributed to the undergraduate students in the lectures, seminars, undergraduate common rooms, and libraries on university campus. A prize draw of £100 were offered to encourage the students to fill out the questionnaires. Each participant was assigned randomly to a questionnaire. The random assignment was facilitated by sorting four sets of questionnaires into a systematic order prior to distributing. To be able to conduct the prize draw and to ensure that each student filled out only one questionnaire, the respondents were asked to leave their contact numbers or emails on the last page of the questionnaires.

7.5 Profile of the Final Sample

As discussed in Section 6.3, a convenience sample of university students was desired and appropriate in the current study due to the ease of satisfying the requirements of an experimental design for a homogeneous sample. The questionnaires were distributed to the undergraduate students in the lectures, tutorials, undergraduate common rooms, and libraries on university campus. Each participant was assigned randomly to a questionnaire. The random assignment was facilitated by sorting four sets of questionnaires into a systematic order prior to distributing. The method of hand-delivery of questionnaires were determined to increase the response rate.

The data was collected between the 13th December 2016 and the 18th January 2017. The questionnaires were distributed through different channels and the response rates were different for each channel. There were two channels for questionnaire distribution. First, the questionnaires were distributed in lectures and tutorials. The author used the break time or the end of the lectures and tutorials to inform the students of the data collection and encouraged them to fill in and return the questionnaires on the spot. The questionnaires were distributed to various courses of the Leeds Beckett Business School. This method achieved the highest response rate of 86%. Second, the students were approached to fill out questionnaires in front of libraries and in the departmental common rooms. The students were encouraged to fill in and return the questionnaires on the spot. They were also instructed to bring back the questionnaires to the researcher upon completion. unlike the previous two methods, Similar to the first data collection method, the students were reached in an individual way. The response rate was 63%. A summary of response rates are shown in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 Response rates for the main data collection

	Number of Questionnaires Distributed	Number of Questionnaires Returned	Response Rate
In lectures and tutorials	192	166	86%
In front of libraries and in departmental common rooms	403	254	63%
Total	595	420	71%

Out of the total number of questionnaires collected, 408 were considered to be usable after careful checking, resulting in a 97% usable questionnaire rate. Questionnaire checking mainly discovered incompletion of questionnaires, missing page (s), misunderstanding of respondents, little variance of responses and identifying incomplete, inconsistent, or ambiguous responses (Malhotra, 2012). Questionnaires were considered unusable if:

(1) Five or more questions were unanswered in the whole questionnaire;

(2) All the questions in sections of the questionnaire were given the same score;

(3) The scores given in a section(s) followed an obvious pattern being created, e.g., a perfectly formed zigzag across a whole page of the questionnaire.

In total, twelve questionnaires were discarded due to missing pages, leaving 408 questionnaires used for data analysis. Table 7.2, 7.3 and 7.4 demonstrated the demographics of the final sample.

Table 7.2 Experimental Groups

	Frequency	Percent
high fit ongoing	102	25.0
low fit ongoing	102	25.0
high fit disaster	103	25.2
low fit disaster	101	24.8
Total	408	100.0

Table 7.3 Gender

	Frequency	Percent
Male	203	49.8
Female	205	50.2
Total	408	100.0

Table 7.4 Age

	Frequency	Percent
18 -- 24	398	97.5
25 -- 34	9	2.2
35 --44	1	.2
Total	408	100.0

7.6 Data Coding and Reverse Items Recoding

Coding referred to allocation numbers to each answer (Malhotra, 2012) and transformation of data from the questionnaire to SPSS. The coding could be conducted either before the questionnaire was answered (pre-coding), or after (post-coding) (DeVaus, 2001). The coding procedure of this research was undertaken by establishing a data file in SPSS 24, and all question items were all pre-coded with numerical values (see questionnaire in Appendix 9). Data editing procedures were undertaken after data was entered into the data file. Any errors in data entry were detected by a data editing procedure, which was carried out after data entering. Out-of-range values in the data file were corrected by referring to the original questionnaire. Most of the information was obtained using 7-point scales. Meanwhile, reverse items were recoded using SPSS to ensure that agreement was indicative of the same direction.

7.7 Treatment of Missing Data

It is common to obtain data sets with some missing data (Coakes, 2006; Hair et al., 2010). Missing data usually occurs when a respondent fails to answer one or more survey questions. There are two ways to evaluate the degree to which there are missing data (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001). The first is to estimate the amount of missing data, and the second is to evaluate what data are missing (the pattern). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), checking the pattern of missing data can help to determine whether or not missing data occur randomly or relate to specific items. That means the pattern of missing data should be randomly distributed among the questionnaires. If it is not, then the missing data would lead to biased estimates of results (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001).

Data screening in SPSS indicated that there was no variable that had more than 5% of missing data (see Appendix 12) in this research. It was not necessary to evaluate the pattern of missing data as there was less than 5% of missing data in this study (Churchill, 1999). Nonetheless, to ensure that there were no systematic patterns in the missing data that could bias the results (Hair et al., 2010), a missing value analysis was conducted by performing Little's MCAR test (Little, 1988). Little's MCAR test (chi-square=265.312; df =273; p=.761) indicated the randomness of the missing values, suggesting there was no identifiable pattern existed in the missing data. As there was minimal missing data and the missing data were distributed randomly, pairwise deletion was used to handle cases with missing data (Graham, 2009). Thus, the data was ready for further analysis.

7.8 Assessment of the Normality

Following the replacement of missing values, the scale data was assessed to check normality of distribution (Coakes, 2006). It was necessary to perform a normality test, as ANOVA and factor analysis both requires variables to be normality distributed (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001; Kline, 2005; Hair et al., 2010). Normality tests are usually conducted by examining histograms, box plots, skewness, and kurtosis. For both skewness and kurtosis, the critical values should be within the 'range of ± 2.58' in order to accept that data distribution is not far from normal (Hair *et al*., 2010, p. 73).

Even though normality is one of the basic assumptions underlying multivariate, data collected by a survey is normally unable to match the normal distribution in practice. It was also noted that the assumption of normality becomes less important when the sample size is sufficiently large, for example larger than 200 (Field 2009; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). For larger samples (i.e. more than one or two hundred), the assumption of normality might be rejected too easily but it is generally less important (Field, 2009).

The normality analysis for this study (see Appendix 14) indicated that no variables fell outside of acceptable range for values of skewness and kurtosis, i.e., range of ± 2.58 (Hair *et al*., 2010). There were some mixed negative and positive skewness and kurtosis. The negative values of skewness indicate that the tail on the left side is longer than the right side, and the bulk of the values lie to the right of the mean (Field, 2010). Furthermore, the Kolmogorov-

Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks test was also conducted to determine data normality (Field, 2010). The test revealed that all variables in the dataset were significant, as shown in Appendix 15. However, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks tests are sensitive to large sample (Field, 2010) and this study used a large sample size of 408. Moreover, as mentioned earlier, no variables were out of acceptable range for values of skewness and kurtosis. Therefore, significant Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks test does not reveal departure from normality of data (Field, 2010).

7.9 Linearity

Linearity refers to the straight-line relationship between two sets of variables (Field, 2010). Linearity can be measured by the Pearson's correlation test or a scatter plot (Field, 2010; Hair *et al*., 2010). Pearson's correlation test was used to investigate the linearity for this study. Correlation analysis was conducted using SPSS 24. The results found that the independent variables were correlated significantly with the dependent variable, as shown in Table 7.5 and Table 7.6.

Table 7.5 Correlation analysis 1 (Whole Sample: N = 408)

		value driven	egoistic driven	stakeholder driven	strategic driven	consumer cynicism	self-efficacy	protest behaviour	PI23 purchase intention
value driven	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.774**	.847**	.863**	-.836**	.180**	-.259**	.781**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.273	.006	.000
egoistic driven	Correlation Coefficient	-.774**	1.000	-.705**	-.856**	.838**	-.252**	.356**	-.713**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
stakeholder driven	Correlation Coefficient	.847**	-.705**	1.000	.833**	-.780**	.101*	-.240**	.712**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.764	.006	.000
strategic driven	Correlation Coefficient	.863**	-.865**	.833**	1.000	-.877**	.203*	-.343**	.771**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
consumer cynicism	Correlation Coefficient	-.836**	.838**	-.780**	-.877**	1.000	-.172**	.369**	-.753**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
self-efficacy	Correlation Coefficient	.180**	-.252**	.101*	.203**	-.172**	1.000	.117*	.210**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.042	.000		.018	.000
protest behaviour	Correlation Coefficient	-.259**	.356**	-.240**	-.343**	.369**	.117*	1.000	-.231**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.018	.	.000
PI23 purchase intention	Correlation Coefficient	.781**	-.713**	.712**	.771**	-.753**	.210**	-.231**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 7.6 Correlation analysis 2 (Whole Sample: N = 408)

		PBT71 Purchase Behaviour TPB	cynicism direct measure	subjective norms	perceived behaviour control	strengths of behaviour beliefs	outcome evaluation	strengths of normative beliefs	motivation to comply	strengths of control beliefs	perceived power	purchase intention TPB	behaviour beliefs	normative beliefs	control beliefs
PBT71 Purchase Behaviour TPB	Correlation Coefficient	1	-.732**	-.775**	.056	.419**	-.773**	-.833**	-.010	-.870**	-.650**	.937**	-.398**	-.664**	-.459**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.		.000	.000	.260	.000	.000	.000	.837	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
cynicism direct measure	Correlation Coefficient	-.732**	1	.868**	.020	-.541**	.744**	.831**	.020	.864**	.534**	-.777**	.301**	.681**	.292**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.687	.000	.000	.000	.684	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003
subjective norms	Correlation Coefficient	-.775**	.868**	1	.056	-.435**	.837**	.892**	.008	.905**	.592**	-.824**	.433**	.633**	.290**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000		.263	.000	.000	.000	.865	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
perceived behaviour control	Correlation Coefficient	.056	.020	.056	1	.140**	.059	-.011	-.103*	.380**	.126	.039	.110*	-.014	.280**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.260	.687	.263		.005	.233	.820	.038	.000	.197	.426	.026	.774	.005
strengths of behaviour	Correlation Coefficient	.419**	-.541**	-.435**	.140**	1	-.220**	-.437**	-.083	-.108	.053	.418**	.457**	-.397**	-.022

beliefs	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.005		.000	.000	.095	.227	.589	.000	.000	.000	.825
outcome evaluation	Correlation Coefficient	-.773**	.744**	.837**	.059	-.220**	1	.872**	-.036	.888**	.628**	-.821**	.730**	.688**	.366**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.233	.000		.000	.474	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
strengths of normative beliefs	Correlation Coefficient	-.833**	.831**	.892**	-.011	-.437**	.872**	1	.045	.911**	.611**	-.868**	.469**	.826**	.334**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.820	.000	.000		.364	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
motivation to comply	Correlation Coefficient	-.010	.020	.008	-.103*	-.083	-.036	.045	1	-.110	-.374**	.046	-.091	.533**	-.402**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.837	.684	.865	.038	.095	.474	.364		.222	.000	.355	.068	.000	.000
strengths of control beliefs	Correlation Coefficient	-.870**	.864**	.905**	.380**	-.108	.888**	.911**	-.110	1	.433**	-.892**	.545**	.542**	.856**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.227	.000	.000	.222		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
perceived power	Correlation Coefficient	-.650**	.534**	.592**	.126	.053	.628**	.611**	-.374**	.433**	1	-.687**	.336**	-.070	.833**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.197	.589	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.475	.000
purchase intention	Correlation Coefficient	.937**	-.777**	-.824**	.039	.418**	-.821**	-.868**	.046	-.892**	-.687**	1	-.438**	-.671**	-.567**

TPB	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.426	.000	.000	.000	.355	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
behaviour beliefs	Correlation Coefficient	-.398**	.301**	.433**	.110*	.457**	.730**	.469**	-.091	.545**	.336**	-.438**	1	.329**	.116
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.026	.000	.000	.000	.068	.000	.000	.000		.000	.248
normative beliefs	Correlation Coefficient	-.664**	.681**	.726**	-.014	-.397**	.688**	.826**	.533**	.542**	-.070	-.671**	.329**	1	-.343**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.774	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.475	.000	.000		.000
control beliefs	Correlation Coefficient	-.459**	.292**	.290**	.280**	-.022	.366**	.334**	-.402**	.856**	.833**	-.567**	.116	-.343**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.003	.003	.005	.825	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.248	.000	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

7.10 Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity refers to the assumption that ‘conditional variance of the residuals around the regression line is constant for any value of an independent variable’ (Lewis-Beck, 1993, p. 18). Homoscedasticity is an essential assumption for ANOVA analysis (Hair *et al*., 2010). The ANOVA test would assume that variances are equal across answers given at two different points in time (Field, 2010). Violation of homogeneity of variance across groups will lead to incorrect estimations of standard errors, as well as significant tests (Hair *et al*., 2010). The Homoscedasticity assumption in this research was examined both by visual inspection of the scatter plots and through the Levene’s test. The Levene’s test is a special case for testing possible heteroskedasticity between two groups of variables and it is used in order to detect possible differences among the demographics of the sample (Field, 2010). If Levene's test is significant ($p < .05$), then it can be concluded that the null hypothesis is incorrect and that the variances are significantly different. In this case the assumption of the homogeneity of variances has been violated. If Levene's test is nonsignificant ($p > .05$), the variances are about equal and the assumption is acceptable (Field, 2010). Therefore, only when the p-value of Levene’s test is insignificant, it is legitimate to carry out ANOVA analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Visual inspection of the scatter plots and Levene’s test was conducted each time before the ANOVA and regression analysis. On the other hand, if the Levene’s test was significant then there was evidence of heteroskedasticity and thus differences in the responses of different groups and therefore further exploration of the results with multi-group analysis was necessary.

In this study, prior to ANOVA and regression analysis, graphs with the standardised residuals plotted against the standardised predictors were visually inspected to check the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity, and histograms and normal probability plots were inspected to check that the standardised residuals were normally distributed. Unless stated, these assumptions were met. Finally, in most cases, tolerance statistics were above .2 indicating that there were no serious issues with multicollinearity (Field, 2010). It is stated where this criterion was not met.

7.11 Reliability Analysis

Even though all the constructs were taken from the existing literature, reliability analysis was carried out for each construct in the final survey using SPSS 24. The purpose of this test is to verify whether all items are measuring the same construct (DeVellis, 2003). Cronbach's alpha has been widely used to estimate the reliability of the measurement tool. De Vaus (2001) and Nunnally (1978) recommended that the value of alpha equal to or greater than 0.70 indicates that the items make a reliable set. Therefore, a coefficient alpha value above 0.7 was accepted by this thesis to determine the reliability of the scales (Nunnally, 1967; Churchill, 1979; Hinkin et al., 1997). Table 7.7 displayed the results of the reliability test.

Table 7.7 Cronbach's Alpha Values

Constructs in the Questionnaire			Cronbach's Alpha
Values-driven motives	Item 1-5	value_driven	0.93
Egoistic-driven motives	Item 6-9	egoistic_driven	0.85
Stakeholder-driven motives	Item 10-13	stakeholder_driven	0.91
Strategic-driven motives	Item 14-16	Strategic_driven	0.71
Consumer cynicism scale	Item17-22	consumer_cynicism	0.94
Self-efficacy	Item 24-26	self_efficacy	0.70
Protest behaviour	Item 27-33	protest_behaviour	0.72
Direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products (TPB)	Item 34-39	cynicism_direct	0.95
Subjective norms	Item 40-42	Subjective_norms	0.93
Perceived behaviour control	Item 43-45	perceived_behaviour_control	0.74
Strengths of behaviour beliefs	Item 46-49	strength_behaviour_beliefs	0.75
Outcome evaluation	Item 50-53	outcome_evaluation	0.80
Strength of normative beliefs	Item 54-57	strengths_normative_beliefs	0.96
Motivation to comply	Item 58-61	motivation_to_comply	0.78
Strength of control beliefs	Item 62-64	strength_control_beliefs	0.85
Perceived power	Item 65-67	perceived_power	0.71
Purchase intention (TPB)	Item 68-70	purchase_intentionTPB	0.96

As shown in Table 7.7, all the constructs included in the questionnaire showed good internal reliability (Netemeyer et al., 2003). However, deleting item CPMF 16 (Company NND hopes to increase profits by supporting XXX) would increase the Cronbach's alpha score of Strategic-driven motives to $\alpha = 0.92$. Therefore, CPMF16 was deleted. Similarly, the deletion of item PB28 (Blog against NND) resulted in increasing the alpha values to $\alpha = 0.75$.

7.12 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Following reliability analysis, the items for each construct were inspected before calculating average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR). Factor analysis is a statistical technique which enables researchers to have a greater understanding of the underlying structures. EFA was recommended when there is no strong theoretical or empirical basis upon which assumptions can be made about the specific variables within the factor (Fabrigar et al., 1999). Moreover, it was generally suggested that the sample size should be larger than 200 to conduct EFA (Comrey, 1973; Cattell 1978). Hence, it was appropriate to conduct an exploratory factor analysis to uncover underlying structure of scales that were adopted in this research.

SPSS version 24 was utilised for EFA in this research. An EFA with maximum likelihood (ML) extraction and promax rotation method was conducted with all items for each variable. The ML method is sensitive to distributional characters of the data. A violation of normality can result in inflated chi-square statistics, which is more likely to lead to rejection of a well-fit model (Hair et al., 2010). As discussed in Section 7.8, the data of this research did not violate normality. Therefore, ML was applicable for this research and could also produce reliable results compared to other techniques (Olsson et al., 2000; 2004). There are two main types of rotation methods: orthogonal and oblique. Varimax, quartimax, and equamax are commonly available orthogonal methods of rotation. Direct oblimin, quartimin, and promax are oblique rotation methods (Byrne, 2010). Orthogonal rotation methods assume that the factors in the analysis are uncorrelated, whereas oblique methods allow the factors to correlate (Byrne, 2010). In social science factors are expected to be correlated to some degree, as attitudes or behaviours are rarely partitioned into neat factors that function independently of one another (Byrne, 2010). Therefore, using oblique rotation can theoretically provide a more accurate, and perhaps more reproducible solution for the research. There is no widely preferred method of oblique rotation, as all can produce similar results. Promax rotation was used in this research as the computations are much quicker compared with other methods of oblique rotation (Fabrigar et al., 1999).

Factor loading values greater than 0.30 were retained (Stevens, 2002). Kaiser- Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measures of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's tests of Sphericity were performed to see if using factor analysis was appropriate (Goh et al., 2010). A KMO index lower than 0.5 indicates that the sample is not appropriate for a factor analysis (Kaiser, 1970). Kaiser (1974) suggested guidelines for evaluation levels of KMO index which was shown in Table 7.8.

Table 7.8 Indices of Kaiser- Meyer-Olkin (KMO)

KMO Value	**Evaluation**
Above 0.9	Marvellous
Between 0.9 to 0.8	Meritorious
Between 0.8 to 0.7	Middling
Between 0.7 to 0.6	Mediocre
Between 0.6 to 0.5	Miserable
Below 0.5	Unacceptable

Source: Kaiser (1974)

Bartlett's test of Sphericity verifies the level of the probability of a significant correlation amongst the variables (Yang, 2006). Therefore, values of significance level lower than 0.05 demonstrate that there are significant relationships amongst the variables. However, values above 0.05 indicate the data is not appropriate for factor analysis.

Table 7.9 demonstrated the results of EFA, average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR) of all constructs. Factor loading values greater than 0.30 were retained (Stevens, 2002). Item CPMF9 and PB28 were removed due to low factor loadings. The remover of if PB27, PB29 and PB33 help to increase the total variance explained from 46% to 66% and also helped to improve CR and AVE indices. Following the adjustments, the results indicated that the KMO index, Bartlett's test of Sphericity, composite reliability (CR), and AVE appeared to be adequate. Nunnally (1978) recommended that composite reliability should be higher than .70 and the AVE should be greater than .50 in order to achieve an internal consistency level (Chin, 1998). According to Fornell and Cha (1994), convergent validity can be guaranteed if the value of the average variance extracted (AVE) is equal or greater than .50 and composite reliability (CR) is greater than the AVE. The results of AVE and CR indicated that convergent validity of all constructs was achieved. Furthermore, this research used the method suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981) to evaluate discriminant validity. In this case, the average variance extracted (AVE) was compared with the square of the correlation estimate between the constructs. The AVE for each construct should be greater than the squared correlation between two constructs. The correlation matrix was shown in Table 7.5 and 7.6. In all cases, the square root of the AVE was larger than the correlation, which suggested that discriminant validity was achieved. The assessment of nomological validity was based on causal relationships identified by literature review and the relevant tests to see whether the scales had analogous relationships (Hair et al., 2010). Assessment of nomological validity was based on the correlation matrix (Hair et al., 2010), the results of which are shown in Table 7.17. The results support the prediction that these constructs were positively related to one another and that these relationships made sense. Further analysis was conducted to examine the proposed hypothesis in the following sections.

Table 7.9 EFA, CR and AVE Results

Constructs	Standardised factor loadings	CR	AVE	Total variance explained	KMO	Bartlett's test of Sphericity
Values-driven	CPMF1: .762	.93	.74	79%	.889	(χ^2 = 1675.671, df = 10, Sig.< 0.001)
	CPMF2: .878					
	CPMF3: .865					
	CPMF4: .877					
	CPMF5: .900					
Egoist--driven	CPMF6: .841	.88	.70	92%	.766	(χ^2 = 1380.677, df = 6, Sig.< 0.001)
	CPMF7: .879					
	CPMF8: .787					
Stakeholder-driven	CPMF10: .813	.90	.68	80%	.818	(χ^2 = 1158.576, df = 6, Sig.< 0.001)
	CPMF11: .869					
	CPMF12: .895					
	CPMF13: .831					
Stategic-driven	CPMF14: .913	.95	.89	64%	.516	(χ^2 = 523.440, df = 2, Sig.< 0.001)
	CPMF15: .928					
Consumer cynicism	CYS17: .761	.94	.72	77%	.856	(χ^2 = 2689.046, df = 16, Sig.< 0.001)
	CYS18: .719					
	CYS19: .890					
	CYS20: .941					
	CYS21: .845					
	CYS22: .914					
Self-efficacy	SES24: .940	.76	0.53	63%	.607	(χ^2 = 250.428, df = 3, Sig.< 0.001)
	SES25: .585					
	SES26: .600					
Protest behaviour	PB30: .724 PB31: .764 PB32: .612	.75	.50	66%	.659	(χ^2 = 281.534, df = 3, Sig.< 0.001)

Cynicism Direct	CYSDM34: .654 CYSDM35: .948 CYSDM36: .865 CYSDM37: .954 CYSDM38: .938 CYSDM39: .926	.96	.79	82%	.892	(χ^2 = 3157.260, df = 15, Sig.< 0.001)
Subjective Norms	SN40: .865 SN41: .961 SN42: .884	.93	.82	88%	.745	(χ^2 = 1010.009, df = 3, Sig.< 0.001)
Perceived behaviour control	PBC43: .644 PBC44: .792 PBC45: .666	.75	50	66%	.678	(χ^2 = 237.199, df = 3, Sig.< 0.001)
Strengths of Behaviour Beliefs	BB46: .986 BB47: .921 BB48: .525 BB49: .525	.81	.57	66%	.618	(χ^2 = 830.751, df = 3, Sig.< 0.001)
Outcome Evaluation	OE50: .892 OE51: .648 OE52: .295 OE53: .939	.87	.55	62%	.702	(χ^2 = 725.025, df = 6, Sig.< 0.001)
Strengths of normative beliefs	NB54: .923 NB55: .924 NB56: .955 NB57: .934	.97	.87	90%	.873	(χ^2 = 1997.879, df = 6, Sig.< 0.001)
Motivation to comply	MC58: .745 MC59: .790 MC60: .582 MC61: .601	.78	.51	60%	.714	(χ^2 = 476.493, df = 6, Sig.< 0.001)
Strengths of control beliefs	CB62: .919 CB63: .990 CB64: .554	.88	.72	78%	.844	(χ^2 = 260.600, df = 3, Sig.< 0.001)
Perceived power	PP65: .973 PP66: .771	.76	.55	64%	.559	(χ^2 = 96.657, df = 3, Sig.<

	PP67: .330					0.001)
Purchase intention TPB	PIT68: .951	.96	.89	93%	.776	(χ^2 = 1421.034, df = 3, Sig.< 0.001)
	PIT69: .961					
	PIT70: .925					

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7.13 Test of Hypotheses

As outlined in detail in Chapter Four, a 2 × 2 between-subject quasi-experimental design was used for this study. The experiment was a 2 (high versus low brand-cause fit) x 2 (ongoing cause versus natural disaster cause) factorial design. To test each of the hypothesis, four sets of analysis were performed.

7.13.1 Consumer Cynicism and Attribution Theory

<u>Hypotheses 1a to Hypotheses 4b</u>

As stated in Chapter two, individuals often make causal attributions about firms' activities (Kelley 1973). Drawing on the Attribution Theory (Heider, 1958), nine hypotheses were proposed in Section 3.3.1. Hypotheses 1a to Hypotheses 4b posit the relationships between consumer cynicism, consumers' perception of firms' motives and purchase intention:

H1a. Egoistic-driven motives relate positively to consumer cynicism towards CRM practices.
H1b. Egoistic-driven motives relate negatively to intention towards purchasing CRM products.

H2a. Values-driven motives relate negatively to consumer cynicism towards CRM practices.

H2b. Values-driven motives relate positively to intention towards purchasing CRM products.

H3a. Strategic-driven motives relate negatively to consumer cynicism towards CRM CRM practices.

H3b. Strategic-driven motives relate positively to intention towards purchasing CRM products.

H4a. Stakeholder-driven motives relate positively to consumer cynicism towards CRM practices.

H4b. Stakeholder-driven motives relate negatively to intention towards purchasing CRM products.

These hypotheses were tested by conducting a bivariate correlation analysis. Table 7.10 to Table 7.13 demonstrated the results of correlation analysis.

Table 7.10. Tests of Hypotheses 1a to Hypotheses 4b (high fit with ongoing cause) (N = 101)

		Stakeholder driven	Strategic driven	consumer cynicism	value driven	egoistic driven	PI23 purchase intention
Stakeholder driven	Pearson Correlation	1	.160	-.065	.315**	-.004	-.204*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.111	.520	.001	.967	.041
Strategic driven	Pearson Correlation	.160	1	-.474**	.293**	.056	.266**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.111		.000	.003	.577	.007
consumer cynicism	Pearson Correlation	-.065	-.474**	1	-.239*	.077	-.142
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.520	.000		.016	.443	.157
value driven	Pearson Correlation	-.315**	.293**	-.239*	1	-.041	.450**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.003	.016		.682	.001
egoistic driven	Pearson Correlation	-.004	.056	.077	-.041	1	.096
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.967	.577	.443	.682		.340

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 7.11. Tests of Hypotheses 1a to Hypotheses 4b (low fit with ongoing cause) (N = 102)

		value driven	egoistic driven	stakeholder driven	strategic driven	consumer cynicism	PI23 purchase intention
value driven	Pearson Correlation	1	-.038	.118	.139	-.021	-.014
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.701	.238	.164	.836	.888
egoistic driven	Pearson Correlation	-.038	1	-.152	-.203*	.217*	-.272**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.701		.127	.041	.029	.006
stakeholder driven	Pearson Correlation	.118	-.152	1	.309**	-.135	.025
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.238	.127		.002	.177	.803
strategic driven	Pearson Correlation	.139	-.203*	.309**	1	-.051	-.122
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.164	.041	.002		.607	.222
consumer cynicism	Pearson Correlation	-.021	.217*	-.135	-.051	1	-.080
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.836	.029	.177	.607		.423

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 7.12 Tests of Hypotheses 1a to Hypotheses 4b (high fit with disaster cause) (N = 103)

		egoistic driven	value driven	strategic driven	stakeholder driven	consumer cynicism	PI23 purchase intention
egoistic driven	Pearson Correlation	1	-.207*	-.006	-.022	.113	-.343**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.036	.953	.826	.257	.000
value driven	Pearson Correlation	-.207*	1	.276**	.-418**	-.122	.373**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.036		.005	.000	.218	.000
strategic driven	Pearson Correlation	-.006	.276**	1	.163	.014	.279**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.953	.005		.099	.891	.004
stakeholder driven	Pearson Correlation	-.022	-.418**	.163	1	-.061	-.247**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.826	.000	.099		.543	.012
consumer cynicism	Pearson Correlation	.113	-.252**	.014	-.061	1	-.032
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.257	.005	.891	.543		.749
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).							

Table 7.13 Tests of Hypotheses 1a to Hypotheses 4b (low fit with disaster cause) (N = 101)

		value driven	egoistic driven	Strategic driven	stakeholder driven	consumer cynicism	PI23 purchase intention
value driven	Pearson Correlation	1	-.112	.157	.414**	.068	.300**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.267	.116	.000	.501	.002
egoistic driven	Pearson Correlation	-.112	1	-.150	-.080	-.207*	-.040
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.267		.134	.426	.038	.692
Strategic driven	Pearson Correlation	.157	-.150	1	.469**	.025	.057
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.116	.134		.000	.801	.569
stakeholder driven	Pearson Correlation	.414**	-.080	.469**	1	-.034	.109
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.426	.000		.737	.055
consumer cynicism	Pearson Correlation	.068	.207*	.025	-.034	1	.137
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.501	.038	.801	.737		.172

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The findings showed when there is high brand fit with ongoing cause (Dental Fund for Orphans), there are medium and low levels of correlation between consumer cynicism, strategic-driven and values-driven motives (Table 7.10). Consumer cynicism negatively related to strategic-driven (r = -.474) and values-driven motives (r = -.239). The results are aligned with the hypotheses (H2a and H3a) and findings of previous studies (Ellen, et al., 2000; Vlachos et al., 2009). High brand-cause fit is evidenced to influence consumers' perceptions of company motives that participate in CRM practices (Rifon et al., 2004). Consumers are likely to perceive motives of high brand-cause fit CRM activities as values-driven and strategic-driven. Therefore, it was not surprised to see that egoist and stakeholder-driven motives were not associated with consumer cynicism when there is high brand-cause fit. A linear regression was conducted to examined the influence of values-driven and strategic driven motives on consumer cynicism. The results indicated that strategic-driven motives explained 22.4% of the variance in consumer cynicism ($F(1, 99) = 28.642$, $p < .001$). Values-driven motives explained only 5.7% of the variance of consumer cynicism ($F(1, 99) = 6.023$, $p < .05$).

Table 7.11 (low fit with ongoing cause) and Table 7.13 (low fit with disaster cause) demonstrated similar findings of the relationship between consumer cynicism and consumers' perceptions of company motives for engaging in CRM activities. In both groups, egoistic-driven motives were positively related to consumer cynicism ($r = .217$; $r = .207$). Linear regress was performed to examine the effect of egoistic-driven motives on consumer cynicism. The result indicated that in low brand-cause fit with ongoing cause only 4.7% of the variance of consumer cynicism were explained by egoistic-driven motives ($F(1, 100) = 4.920$, $p < .05$). In low brand-cause fit with disaster group, egoistic-driven motives explained 4.3% of the variance of consumer cynicism ($F(1, 99) = 4.412$, $p < .05$). Although the effect of egoistic-driven motives was small, this finding was consistent with the view that low brand-cause fit can result in negative reactions from consumers as they perceive the motives of such CRM campaigns as purely for the self-interest of the company (Rifon et al., 2004; Nan and Heo, 2007). Therefore, H1a was supported. However, stakeholder-driven motives were not found to be positively related to consumer cynicism in any of the experimental situations. Therefore, the hypothesized relationship between stakeholder-driven motives and consumer cynicism (H4a) was rejected.

Table 7.12 demonstrated that values-driven motives are negatively (r = -.252) related to consumer cynicism when there is high brand fit with natural disaster cause (Dental Fund for Tsunami Victims). The linear regression demonstrated values-driven motives explained 5.8% of the variance of consumer cynicism ($F(1, 101) = 6.483$, $p < .05$). Different from high fit with ongoing cause, there wasn't any relationship between strategic-driven motives and consumer cynicism. A probable explanation for this finding is that strategic-driven motives are attributed when consumers believe that companies can obtain their business objectives while supporting the assigned causes (Ellen et al., 2006; Vlachos et al., 2009). When there is high fit with natural disaster cause, consumers tempt to believe firms' activities are driven by their values but not driven by strategic motivations. Consumers are tolerant of the firms that support natural disaster causes. This is consistent with the findings that the type of donation situation, such as disaster versus. ongoing cause, can make a difference on consumers' evaluation of firms' CRM activities (e.g., Ross et al., 1990-1991; Ellen et al., 2000; Vyravene and Rabbanee, 2016).

The correlation results indicated that values-driven, egoist-driven, strategic-driven and stakeholder-driven motives were all found to be significant in the hypothesized direction but the influence of each type of consumers' perceptions of company motives on purchase intention varied across groups. A linear test was conducted to further test the proposed relationships. In high brand fit with ongoing cause group, values-driven motives explained 20.3% of the variance of purchase intention ($F(1, 99) = 25.169$, $p < .001$), strategic-driven motives ($F(1, 99) = 7.518$, $p < .05$) and stakeholder-driven motives ($F(1, 99) = 4.294$, $p < .05$) explained 7.1% and 4.2% variance of purchase intention respectively. In low brand fit with ongoing group, egoistic-driven motives ($F(1, 100) = 7.994$, $p < .05$) explained 7.4% of purchase intention. In high brand-cause fit with natural disaster cause group, egoistic-driven motives (F (1, 101) = 13.472, $p < .001$) explained purchase 11.8% of purchase intention, stakeholder-driven (F (1, 101) = 6.572, $p < .05$) explained only 6.1%, strategic (F (1, 101) = 8.498, $p < .05$) and value-driven (F (1, 101) = 16.273, $p < .001$) explained 7.8% and 13.9% of purchase intention respectively. In low band fit with natural disaster group, values-driven motives (F (1, 99) = 9.765, $p < .05$) explained 9% variance of purchase intention. The results demonstrated that consumers' perceptions of company motives have influencing impact on purchase intention. Therefore, H1b, H2b, H3b and H4b were supported by the data.

Hypotheses 5 and Hypotheses 6

The following analysis aimed to test hypotheses 5 to hypotheses 8 regarding the effect of donation situation (ongoing versus natural disaster), and brand-cause fit on consumer reactions in CRM. As discussed in chapter two, brand-cause fit and donation situation play an influencing role on consumer responses to the CRM campaign. The following hypotheses were proposed:

H5. CRM practice involves in natural disaster cause result in lower consumer cynicism than those involve in ongoing cause.

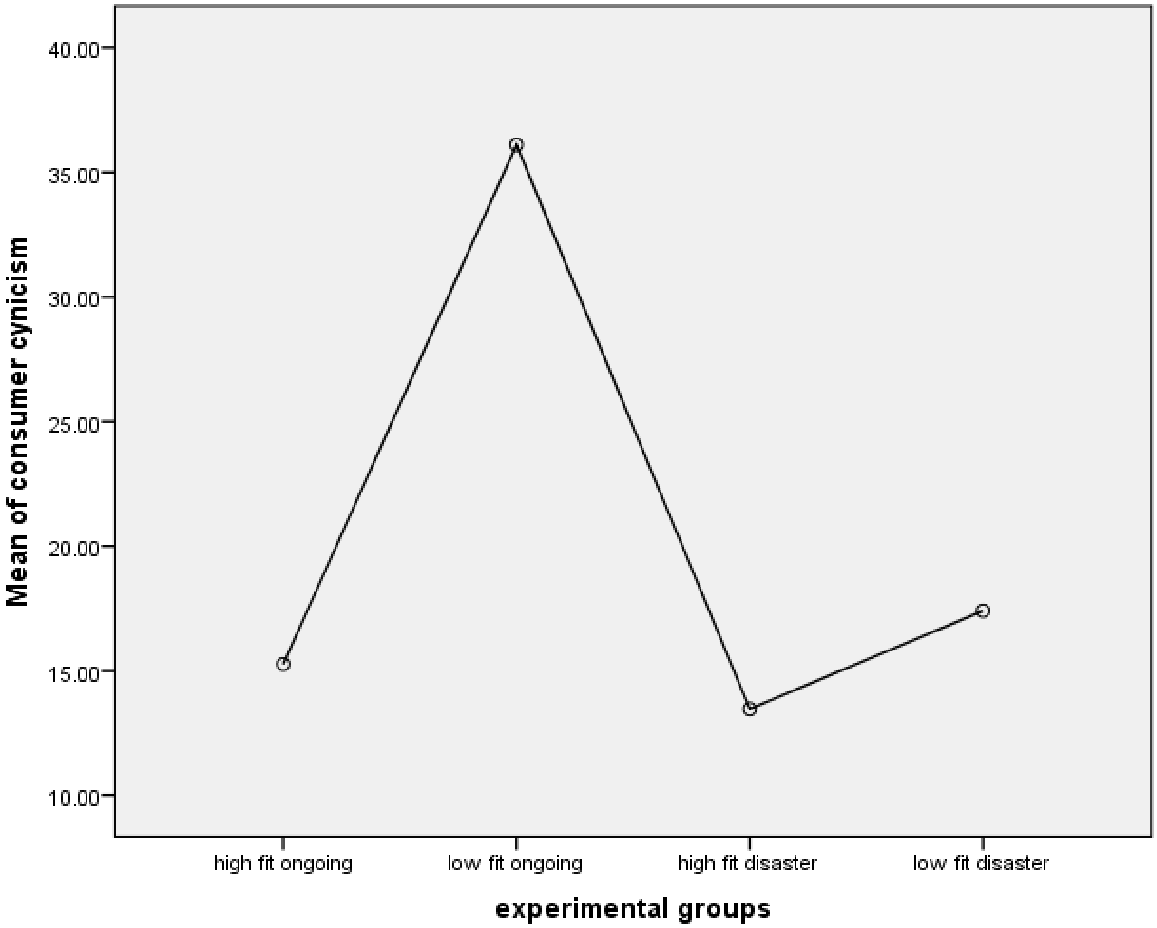
H6. High brand-cause fit result in lower consumer cynicism than low brand-fit.

A one-way ANOVA (Table 7.14) showed that there is significant difference between the groups in terms of the consumer cynicism index. The results showed that the respondents in the low fit ongoing group experienced the highest level of consumer cynicism (M= 36.11) compared to the high fit ongoing (M= 15.26), high fit disaster (M= 13.47) and low fit disaster group (M= 17.41). According to Field (2010), Welch's robust test should be reported when the assumption for homogeneity of an ANOVA test was violated. Although Levene's test was significant and thus the homogeneity assumption was violated, the Welch's robust test of equality of means redeemed the test significant (p <.000). The significant differences between the groups on the basis of consumer cynicism was also confirmed by a series of post-hoc tests i.e. Tukey, Scheffe and Bonferroni. The tests showed that all the groups were different significantly from each other (see Appendix 16). Eta Squared was 0.87, which indicated that 87% of the total variance was accounted for the experimental group effect. The means plot of consumer cynicism compared between groups were presented in Figure 7.1.

Table 7.14 ANOVA test for differences in consumer cynicism between four groups

Groups	N	M	SD	Levene Statistic sig.	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
High fit ongoing	102	15.26	2.85	.000	33705.27	3	11235.09	895.68	.000
Low fit ongoing	102	36.11	2.80	.000					
High fit disaster	103	13.47	3.93	.000					
Low fit disaster	101	17.41	4.34	.000					
Total	408	20.56	9.76	.000	38772.92				

Figure 7.1 Means of Consumer Cynicism between Four Experimental Groups



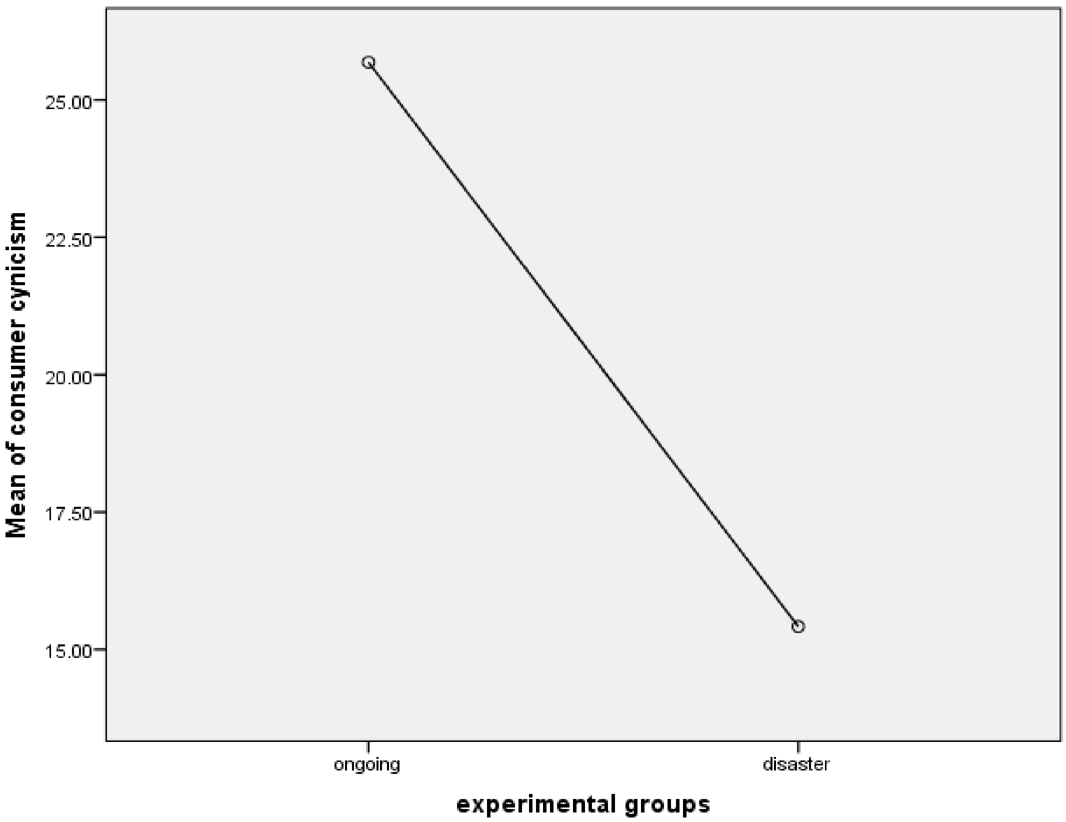
A one-way ANOVA was conducted to investigate hypotheses 5. The findings (Table 7.15) showed that there is significant difference of the consumer cynicism index when CRM practice involve in different donation situation, i.e., ongoing cause versus natural disaster. The results showed that the respondents who were exposed to the ongoing cause experienced higher level of consumer cynicism (M= 25.69) compared to the those exposed to natural disaster cause (M= 15.42). Following Field's recommendation (2010), Welch's robust test was reported (p <.000) when the assumption for homogeneity of an ANOVA test was violated (Levene's test was significant). The findings indicated that the two groups were different significantly from each other. Eta Squared was 0.25, which indicated that 28% of the total variance was accounted for the donation situation effect, i.e., ongoing versus natural disaster cause. The means plot of consumer cynicism compared between these two groups were presented in Figure 7.2. Therefore, H5 was supported by the data that natural disaster cause result in lower consumer cynicism than those involve in ongoing cause.

The finding of H5 was consistent with the view that consumers respond more positively to firms that support natural disaster causes than those that support ongoing causes (Cui et al., 2003). Attribution Theory suggested that individuals are less likely to attribute personal responsibility to the people who suffer from natural disasters than those who suffer from ongoing causes (Ellen et al., 2000). Consumers are more supportive to companies that engage in natural disaster causes as consumers believe that the victims are affected by an event that is not their own fault (Chochinov, 2005). Therefore, the consumer cynicism is lower when companies involve in natural disaster cause than those engage in ongoing cause.

Table 7.15 ANOVA Test for the Differences in Consumer Cynicism between Ongoing and Natural Disaster Groups

Groups	N	M	SD	Levene Statistic sig.	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
ongoing	204	25.69	10.821	.000	10757.41	1	10757.41	155.90	.000
Natural disaster	204	15.42	4.57	.000					
Total	408	20.56	9.76		38772.92				

Figure 7.2 Means of Consumer Cynicism between the Ongoing Cause and Natural Disaster Cause Group



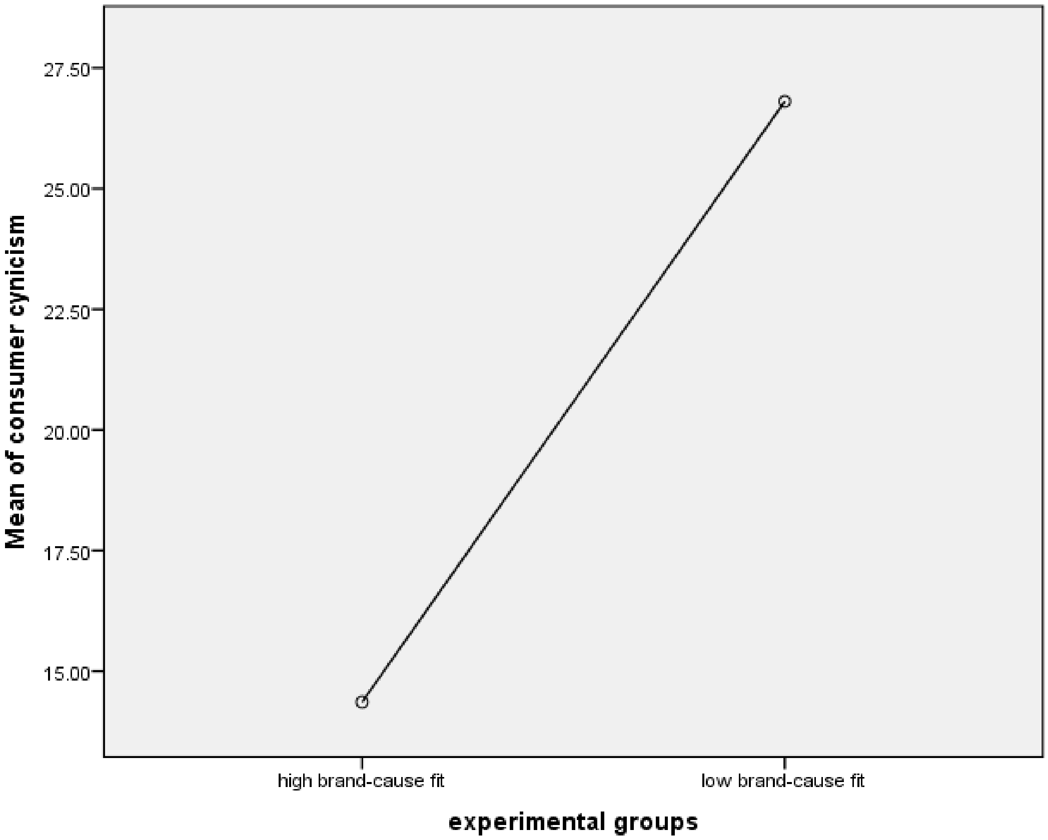
Same process of one-way ANOVA was conducted to test hypotheses 6. The analysis results were shown in Table 7.16. The findings indicated that there is significant difference of the consumer cynicism index between the groups of high brand-cause fit (M=14.37) and low brand-cause fit (M=26.80). Welch's robust test of equality of means redeemed the test significant ($p < .000$). Eta Squared was 0.41, which indicated that 41% of the total variance was accounted for the brand-cause fit effect. The means plot of consumer cynicism compared between these two groups were presented in Figure 7.3. The effect of brand-cause fit on consumer cynicism was evident ($F = 289.72$, $p < .000$). Therefore, H6 was supported by the data.

As proved by supporting H6, brand-cause fit has influencing impact on consumer attitude (e.g., Aaker and Keller, 1990; Rifon et al., 2004; Nan and Heo, 2007). Less favourable attitude is likely to be generated when there is low fit between the brand and the cause (Hamlin and Wilson, 2004). This study confirmed that high brand-cause fit resulted in lower consumer cynicism. Therefore, the fit between brand and cause can impact the success of CRM (Strahilevitz and Meyers, 1998).

Table 7.16 ANOVA Test for the Differences in Consumer Cynicism between High Brand-cause fit and Low Brand-cause Fit Group

Groups	N	M	SD	Levene Statistic sig.	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
High Fit	205	14.37	3.54	.000	15789.51	1	15789.51	278.92	.000
Low Fit	203	26.80	10.05	.000					
Total	408	20.56	9.76		38772.92				

Figure 7.3 Means of Consumer Cynicism between the High brand-cause fit and Low Brand-cause Fit



Hypotheses 7 to Hypotheses 9

Based on the previous discussion in Section 3.3, it was hypothesised that consumer cynicism relates negatively to the purchase intention towards CRM products (H7) but relates positively to protest behaviour (H9). It was posited that self-efficacy moderated the relationship between consumer cynicism and purchase intention (H8). Table 7.17 to Table 7.20 presented the results of bivariate correlation analysis of consumer cynicism, purchase intention, self-efficacy and protest behaviour.

Table 7.17 Correlation Analysis of Consumer Cynicism, Purchase Intention, Self-efficacy and Protest behaviour (high fit with ongoing cause) (N = 101)

		PI23 purchase intention	protest behaviour	Self-efficacy	consumer cynicism
PI23 purchase intention	Pearson Correlation	1	.018	.244*	-.142
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.857	.014	.157
protest behaviour	Pearson Correlation	.018	1	.397**	-.280**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.857		.000	.005
Self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.244*	.397**	1	-.350**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	.000		.000
consumer cynicism	Pearson Correlation	-.142	.280**	-.350**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.157	.005	.000	
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					

Table 7.18 Correlation Analysis of Consumer Cynicism, Purchase Intention, Self-efficacy and Protest behaviour (low fit with ongoing cause) (N = 102)

		PI23 purchase intention	protest behaviour	self-efficacy	consumer cynicism
PI23 purchase intention	Pearson Correlation	1	-.225*	-.157	-.080
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.023	.114	.423
	N	102	102	102	102
protest behaviour	Pearson Correlation	-.225*	1	.142	.254*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.023		.153	.010
	N	102	102	102	102
self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	-.157	.142	1	.202*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.114	.153		.042
	N	102	102	102	102
consumer cynicism	Pearson Correlation	-.080	.254*	.202*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.423	.010	.042	
	N	102	102	102	102
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					

Table 7.19 Correlation Analysis of Consumer Cynicism, Purchase Intention, Self-efficacy and Protest behaviour (high fit with disaster cause) (N = 103)

		PI23 purchase intention	protest behaviour	self-efficacy	consumer cynicism
PI23 purchase intention	Pearson Correlation	1	.329**	.341**	-.032
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.000	.749
	N	103	103	103	103
protest behaviour	Pearson Correlation	.329**	1	.118	.140
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.235	.157
	N	103	103	103	103
self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.341**	.118	1	.207*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.235		.036
	N	103	103	103	103
consumer cynicism	Pearson Correlation	-.032	.140	.207*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.749	.157	.036	
	N	103	103	103	103

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 7.20 Correlation Analysis of Consumer Cynicism, Purchase Intention, Self-efficacy and Protest behaviour (low fit with disaster cause) (N = 102)

		PI23 purchase intention	protest behaviour	self-efficacy	consumer cynicism
PI23 purchase intention	Pearson Correlation	1	.160	.097	.137
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.110	.333	.172
	N	101	101	101	101
protest behaviour	Pearson Correlation	.160	1	.466**	.031
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.110		.000	.760
	N	101	101	101	101
self-efficacy	Pearson Correlation	.097	.466**	1	.026
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.333	.000		.800
	N	101	101	101	101
consumer cynicism	Pearson Correlation	.137	.031	.026	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.172	.760	.800	
	N	101	101	101	101

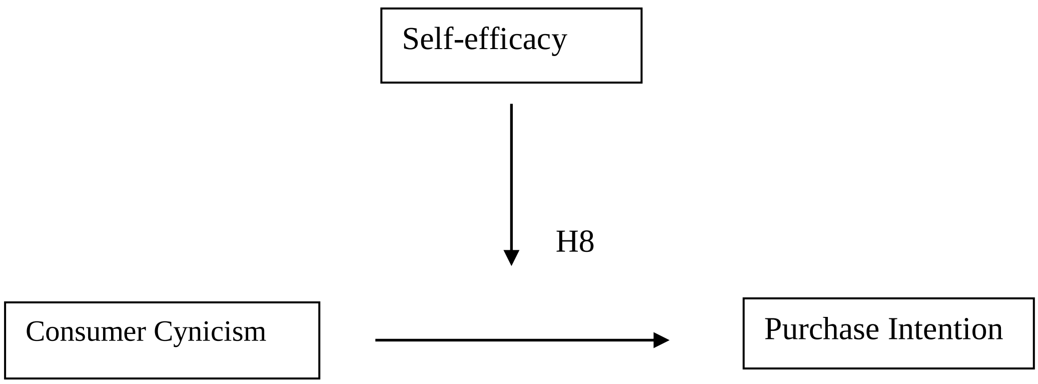
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The findings showed that consumer cynicism was not related to purchase intention in all the experimental groups. Therefore, the hypothesis explaining the relationship between consumer cynicism and purchase intention (H7) was rejected because it was not found to be significant in the hypothesized direction.

Based on the discussion in section 2.5.3, It was hypothesised that self-efficacy moderated the relationship between direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products and purchase intention (H8). The moderated model of H8 was shown as Figure 7.4.

Figure 7.4 Moderated Model of Hypothesis 8



The moderation effect of self-efficacy was tested by using PROCESS in SPSS 24 (Hayes, 2013). There was no moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between consumer cynicism and purchase intention (see Appendix 17). The interaction effect of self-efficacy and consumer cynicism on purchase intention was not significant in four groups (Group 1: $p = 0.86$; Group 2: $p = 0.95$; Group3: $p = 0.72$; Group 4: $p = 0.79$). Therefore, H8 was not supported by the data.

The rejection of the hypotheses H7 and H8 might come as a surprise. This research, however, was the first to link consumer cynicism to purchase intention and self-efficacy. Therefore, this finding emphasized the need for more research to remedy our understanding of the relationships discussed above.

The findings indicated that consumer cynicism relates positively to protest behaviour (H9) in three experimental groups, i.e., high fit and low fit with ongoing cause, low fit with natural disaster cause. No significant relationship was found between consumer cynicism and protest behaviour in the high fit with natural disaster group. A linear regression was performed to further investigate the significant relationship. The results showed that consumer cynicism has significant effect on protest behaviour (Table 7.20). The adjusted R square for the high fit with ongoing cause group is 0.078, meaning that 7.8% of the variation of protest behaviour can be explained by consumer cynicism. Similar results were obtained for the low fit with ongoing cause group with an adjusted R square 0.055. The adjusted R square for the low fit with natural disaster cause group is 0.209, indicating that 20.9% of the variation of protest behaviour can be explained by consumer cynicism. The possible explanation for the non-significant relationship in the high fit with natural disaster group is that individuals are less negative towards firms that support natural disaster causes (Cui et al., 2003). Individuals are less likely to attribute personal responsibility to the people who suffer from natural disasters than those who suffer from ongoing causes (Ellen et al., 2000). Furthermore, when there is high brand-cause fit with natural disaster cause, consumer cynicism level is significant lower (see Table 7.14). The cynicism triggered by the CRM offer under the circumstance of high brand-cause fit with natural disaster is not associated with protest behaviour. Therefore, when the CRM offer is for natural disaster cause with a high brand-cause fit, less consumer cynicism is triggered and the cynicism would not result in protest behaviour.

The findings of this study are consistent with the applied attribution theory (Heider, 1944), which explains how consumers make inferences about the motives of the firms and these inferences, in turn, affect consumers' attitude and subsequent behaviour. Consumer perceive different motives of the firms' CRM activities (Weiner, 1986) when they are exposed to different experimental scenarios. Consumers' perceptions of company motives then determine how they respond (e.g., Weiner, 1986; Parguel, et al., 2011). The experimental scenarios and consumers' perceptions of company motives resulted in different level of consumer cynicism, when then lead to negative behaviour responses such as protest behaviour. Therefore, attribution theory provides an appropriate framework for exploring the role of consumer cynicism towards CRM.

7.13.2 Consumer Cynicism and the TPB

This section aims to test whether the TPB model can help to understand and predict if consumer cynicism could lead to purchase intention and purchase behaviour. As discussed in section 2.2.5, high fit between brand and cause plays an influencing role in consumer attitude and purchase intention (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Ellen et al., 2006). A significant number of literature have acknowledged the importance of brand-cause fit in CRM (e.g., Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2012; Chéron et al., 2012). The degree of the fit has great influencing impact on consumer attitude and purchase intention (e.g., Aaker and Keller, 1990; Rifon et al., 2004; Nan and Heo, 2007). Therefore, the TPB model was examined under the scenarios of high and low brand-cause fit groups. The comparison of the usefulness of the TPB model and to check for significant differences between these two groups was of great interest to academics and practitioners.

Levene's test was first performed to assess the homogeneity of variances of each group. The result of Levene's test was presented in Appendix 18. For all but only direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products, showed to be non-significant, with the computed Levene's test statistics always being below the critical value of 4, and p value higher than 0.05. Although direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products measure in the high brand-cause fit group was significant ($p = 0.029$), this result still indicated that the variances were homogeneous, following the assumption that "when the sample size is large, small differences in group variances can produce a Levene's test that is significant because the power of the test is improved" (Field, 2010, p. 98). As stated in Section 7.8, the normality analysis for this study (see Appendix 14) indicated that no variables fell outside of acceptable range. Therefore, it was legitimate to carry out hierarchical regression analyses.

7.13.2.1 Relationship Between Beliefs-based (indirect measures) Measures and Direct Measures of TPB Variables (Hypotheses 10 to Hypotheses 12)

As discussed in methodology chapter, both direct and indirect measures of the TPB model were included in this study. Salient beliefs were elicited from focus groups. Following the procedure introduced by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), the belief-based or indirect measure of attitude was obtained by multiplying each of the belief-based items by its corresponding outcome evaluation. The same procedure was followed to obtain the belief-based or indirect measure of subjective norm, where each of the normative beliefs was multiplied by the respondent's motivation to comply with the related referent opinion. For the indirect measure of perceived behavioural control, each of the control beliefs strength was multiplied by its matching control belief perceived power. For each category of beliefs, the product terms were summed to obtain a final indirect measure of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioural control respectively.

Drawing upon the TPB (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975), hypotheses 10, 11 and 12 were proposed. Behavioural, normative and control beliefs are positively related to attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control respectively (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). Correlation analysis was performed to investigate the proposed relationships, i.e., H10, H11 and H12. The results of the correlation for the high brand-cause and low brand-cause fit groups were presented in Table 7.21 and Table 7.22 respectively. In both groups, behavioural, normative and control beliefs were positively related to the direct measure of consumer cynicism, subjective norms and perceived behaviour control. In high brand-cause fit, behavioural beliefs explained 6.9% of the variance in direct measure of consumer cynicism. Normative beliefs explained 52.7% of the variance in subjective norms. Control beliefs added 9.1% to the explained variance in PBC. In the low brand-cause fit group, behaviour beliefs explained 41% of the variance in direct measure of consumer cynicism. Normative beliefs added 57% to the variance in subjective norms. Control beliefs explained 8% of the variance in PBC.

Table 7.21 Bivariate Correlations among the Direct Measures and the Belief-based Measures of the TPB (High Brand-Cause Fit Group: N = 205)

Belief-based Measures	Direct Measure of consumer cynicism	Subjective Norms	PBC
Behaviour Beliefs (indirect measure of consumer cynicism)	.263**	.433**	.042
Normative Beliefs (indirect measure of subjective norms)	.022	.726**	.112
Control Beliefs (indirect measure of PBC)	.016	.168**	.302**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 7.22 Bivariate Correlations among the Direct Measures and the Belief-based Measures of the TPB (Low Brand-Cause Fit Group: N = 203)

Belief-based Measures	Direct Measure of Consumer Cynicism	Subjective Norms	PBC
Behaviour Beliefs (indirect measure of consumer cynicism)	.202**	.287**	.039
Normative Beliefs (indirect measure of subjective norms)	.787**	.753**	.097
Control Beliefs (indirect measure of PBC)	.013	.229**	.276**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 7.23 Analysis of Belief-based (Indirect Measures) versus Direct Measures of TPB Model: Variances Explained (High Brand-Cause Fit Group)

	R^2	F
Behaviour Beliefs => Direct measure of consumer cynicism	0.069	15.06
Normative Beliefs => Subjective Norms	0.527	452.57
Control beliefs => PBC	0.091	20.32

Table 7.24 Analysis of Belief-based (Indirect Measures) versus Direct Measures of TPB Model: Variances Explained (Low Brand-Cause Fit Group)

	R^2	F
Behaviour Beliefs => Direct measure of consumer cynicism	0.41	4.22
Normative Beliefs => Subjective Norms	0.57	262.81
Control beliefs => PBC	0.08	8.16

Table 7.21 and Table 7.22, as stated above, presented the bivariate correlations computed between each belief-based measure (indirect measure) of the TPB and the direct measures of attitude, subjective norm, and PBC. The tables showed that there were significant correlations between belief-based measures of attitude and subjective norm, PBC and their direct corresponding terms in both groups, i.e., high brand-cause and low brand-cause fit groups. Table 7.23 and Table 7.24 presented the variances of direct measures that were explained by the belief-based (indirect) measures of the TPB model. In sum, the above presented analyses provided support for the following three hypotheses:

H10. There is a positive relationship between behavioural beliefs and consumer cynicism.

H11. There is a positive relationship between normative beliefs and subjective norms.

H12. There is a positive relationship between control beliefs and perceived behaviour control.

7.13.2.2 Predicting Purchase Intention (Hypotheses 13 to Hypotheses 16)

This section aimed to investigate the following hypotheses.

H13.There is a negative relationship between consumer cynicism and purchase intention.

H14. There is a positive relationship between subjective norms and the intention towards purchasing CRM products.

H15. There is a positive relationship between perceived behavioural control and the intention towards purchasing CRM products.

H16. There is a positive relationship between self-efficacy and the intention towards purchasing CRM products.

Correlation analysis was first performed to investigate the proposed relationships. The results of the correlation for the high brand-cause and low brand-cause fit groups were presented in Table 7.26 and Table 7.27 respectively.

Table 7.25 Correlation Analysis among Direct Measures of TPB with Purchase Intention and Purchase Behaviour for High Brand-Cause Fit Group (N = 205)

		Purchase Intention TPB	Purchase Behaviour TPB	Cynicism direct	Subjective Norms	PBC	Self-Efficacy
Purchase Intention TPB	Pearson Correlation	1	$.721^{**}$	$.140^{*}$	$.234^{**}$	$.210^{**}$	$.307^{**}$
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.045	.001	.003	.000
Purchase Behaviour TPB	Pearson Correlation	$.721^{**}$	1	.081	$.189^{**}$	$.176^{*}$	$.293^{**}$
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.247	.007	.012	.000
Cynicism direct	Pearson Correlation	$.140^{*}$	.081	1	$.289^{**}$	.038	-.069
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.045	.247		.000	.590	.324
Subjective Norms	Pearson Correlation	$.234^{**}$	$.189^{**}$	$.289^{**}$	1	$.179^{*}$	.060
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.007	.000		.010	.390
PBC	Pearson Correlation	$.210^{**}$	$.176^{*}$	.038	$.179^{*}$	1	$.166^{*}$
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.012	.590	.010		.017
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).							
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).							

Table 7.26 Correlation Analysis among Direct Measures of TPB with Purchase Intention and Purchase Behaviour for Low Brand-Cause Fit Group (N = 203)

		Cynicism Direct	Subjective Norms	PBC	PBT71 Purchase Behaviour TPB	Purchase Intention TPB	Self-efficacy
Cynicism Direct	Pearson Correlation	1	.949**	-.145*	-.908**	-.935**	-.834**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.039	.000	.000	.000
Subjective Norms	Pearson Correlation	.949**	1	-.113	-.869**	-.896**	-.802**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.108	.000	.000	.000
PBC	Pearson Correlation	-.145*	-.113	1	.168*	.188**	.145*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.039	.108		.017	.007	.038
PBT71 Purchase Behaviour TPB	Pearson Correlation	-.908**	-.869**	.168*	1	.964**	.847**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.017		.000	.000
Purchase IntentionTPB	Pearson Correlation	-.935**	-.896**	.188**	.964**	1	.865**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.007	.000		.000
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).							
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).							

As shown in Table 7.25, in high brand-cause fit group, direct measures of consumer cynicism, subjective norms, PBC and self-efficacy were all significantly related to purchase intention and purchase behaviour. Subjective norms related positively to intention (r = .234) and behaviour (r = .189). The direct measure of consumer cynicism (r = .140) and the perceived behavioural control (r = .188) displayed weak associations with intention. Cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) was not found to be related to purchase behaviour. PBC was positively related to behaviour (r = .176). Self-efficacy was positively related to purchase intention (r = .170) and purchase behaviour (r = .210). The hypothesized relationships proposed in Hypotheses 13 to Hypotheses 16 were all found to be significant. Cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) was proposed to be negatively related to purchase intention, however, it was found to be positively related with weak correlation (r = .140). This finding indicated that when there is high brand-cause fit, cynicism is less negative and could still lead to purchase intention. Hierarchical regression analyses was conducted afterwards to further investigate the relationships between TPB variables, self-efficacy and purchase intention.

The correlation results for low brand-cause group were quite different. Consumer cynicism as a negative attitude, was proposed to be negatively related to purchase intention in scenarios of the low brand-cause fit. Table 7.26 showed that there appeared to be a strong negative correlation between consumer cynicism, purchase intention and purchase behaviour (R = -.935, R = -.908 respectively, both significant at $P < .001$). However, subjective norms were found to be negatively related to purchase intention (R = -.896). Hence, H15 was rejected by the data in low brand-cause fit group. Scale items of subjective norms were presented as "Most people who are important to my friend think that he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX", "It is expected of my friend that he/she is cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX", "Most people who are important to my friend is cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports XXX". It should be noted that when there is low brand-cause fit, individuals temp to have high perceptions of their important others think he or she should be cynical towards purchasing designated CRM products (Ajzen, 1991). Therefore, it's reasonable that subjective norm is related negatively to purchase intention and purchase behaviour in the low brand-cause fit group. Self-efficacy was found to be highly correlated with purchase intention (r = .745) and purchase behaviour (r = .739) in this group.

Though it is feasible to recognize which direct measures were significant in predicting purchase intention and behaviour, the correlation analysis does not help to establish whether which exact measures were most significant in predicting purchase intention and behaviour. It is on these grounds that the hierarchical regression analyses were performed in the following section for each of the TPB components to help estimate the relative contributions of cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) measure, subjective norm or perceived behavioural control. Hierarchical regressions were conducted to examine the ability of the TPB to predict intention towards purchasing CRM products. The cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) was entered first, followed by subjective norms on Step 2 and perceived behavioural control on Step 3. Self-efficacy was entered in Step 4. The results for the high brand-cause fit and low brand-cause fit groups were presented in Table 7.27.

Table 7.27 Predicting Purchase Intention

Variables	**Step 1**			**Step 2**			**Step 3**			**Step 4**		
High Brand-Cause fit (N=205)	R^2	ß	B (SE)	R^2	ß	B (SE)	R^2	ß	B (SE)	R^2	ß	B (SE)
	.020*			.061**			.090***			.167*		
Cynicism Direct		.490*	.024		.028	.025		.029	.025		.032	.024
Subjective Norms					.227**	.076		.192**	.076		.193**	.076
PBC								.188**	.074		.157*	.075
Self-Efficacy											.583***	.135
Low Brand-Cause Fit (N=203)	R^2	ß	B (SE)	R^2	ß	B (SE)	R^2	ß	B (SE)	R^2	ß	B (SE)
	.874***			.874***			.877***			.896***		
Cynicism Direct		-.396**	.011		-.361**	.034		-.352**	.034		-.350**	.035
Subjective Norms					-.082	.075		-.095	.075		-.091	.075
PBC								.207*	.093		.182*	.086
Self-efficacy											.878**	.145

$^{*}p$ <. 05; $^{**}p$ <. O1; $^{***}p$ < .001. Probability values of betas were adjusted for one-tailed tests.

High brand-cause fit group: On Step 1, cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) explained only 2% of the variance in intention to purchase CRM products ($F (1, 203) = 4.052, p < .05$). On Step 2, subjective norm added 4.1% to the explained variance ($F (1, 202) = 6.525, p < .01$) in purchase intention. However, the influence of cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) on purchase intention became non-significant with the addition of subjective norm. The subjective norm became the dominant predictor on this step. On Step 3, the TPB variables explained 9% of the variance in purchase intention ($F (1, 201) = 6.641, p < .001$). PBC contributed an additional 2.9% to the variance in intention. The inclusion of self-efficacy increased the TPB prediction on intention to 16.7%. In the extended TPB model, self-efficacy became the dominant predictor of purchase intention, followed by subjective norm and PBC. Cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) was not associated with purchase intention in the final model. Therefore, when there is high fit between brand and cause, H14, H15 and H16 were supported. H13 was rejected by the data.

This finding revealed that the inclusion of self-efficacy increased the prediction of intention in the TPB model. Many studies suggested that attitude is a stronger predictor of behavioural intention than subjective norm (e. g., Bentler and Speckart, 1979; Randall and Gibson, 1991). However, the findings of the TPB model for high brand-cause fit group revealed the opposite. Although cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) explained 2% of the variance in purchase intention, subjective norm supressed the effect of cynicism on intention. The combination of subjective norm and PBC explained 9% of purchase intention. The researcher suggested that this result can be explained by the following two explanations. First, when there is high brand-cause fit, individuals are under significant influence of important others' opinion on purchasing CRM products. Individuals are likely to believe that purchasing CRM products with high brand-cause fit are accepted and shared by most other people. Second, when individuals believe they have some volitional control over being cynical towards purchasing CRM products, the PBC has some predictive effect on purchase intention and behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Madden et al., 1992). The addition of self-efficacy construct significantly improved the prediction of intention.

Low brand-cause fit group: Cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) significantly predicted purchase intention on the first step, explaining 87.4% percent of the variance in purchase intention ($F (1, 201) = 1390.103$, $p < .001$). The inclusion of subjective norm did not improve the explained variance in purchase intention on the second step. The explained variance remained 87.4%. On Step 3, PBC added only contributed additional 0.3% of the variance in purchase intention. The inclusion of self-efficacy added another 1.9% to the prediction of purchase intention. In this TPB model, cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) remained the dominant predictor, followed by self-efficacy and PBC. This finding is consistent with the view that attitude is a stronger predictor of behavioural intention in the TPB model (e. g., Bentler and Speckart, 1979; Randall and Gibson, 1991).

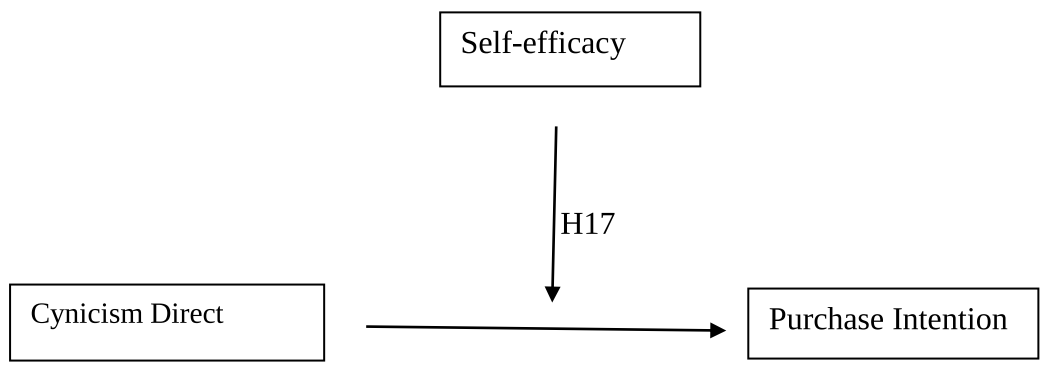
In this model, subjective norm did not predict purchase intention, which indicates when there is low brand-cause fit the opinions of the important others have no impact on purchase intention. In addition, this finding is consistent with the view that the subjective norm is the weakest predictor of intention in TPB model (White et al., 1994; Terry and Hogg, 1996;

Armitage and Conner, 2001). The findings for this group revealed that H13, H15 and H16 were supported. H14 was rejected by the data in low brand-cause fit group.

7.13.2.3 The Moderating Effect of Self-efficacy (Hypotheses 17)

Hypotheses 17 proposed that self-efficacy has a moderating effect on the relationship between cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) and purchase intention. The moderated model of H17 was shown as Figure 7.5.

Figure 7.5 Moderated Model of Hypothesis 17



The moderation effect of self-efficacy was tested by using PROCESS in SPSS 24 (Hayes, 2013). However, there was no moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between consumer cynicism and purchase intention in both high and low brand-cause fit groups.

7.13.2.4 Predicting Purchase Behaviour (Hypotheses 18 and Hypotheses 19)

H18. There is a positive relationship between the intention and purchase behaviour towards purchasing CRM products.

H19. There is a significant positive relationship between perceived behavioural control and intended behaviour towards purchasing CRM products.

In order to test the hypotheses that intentions (H1), perceived behavioural control (H19), are all significant and positively-related predictors of purchase behaviour, the correlations between each of these variables and the purchase behaviour were calculated. Hierarchical regressions to test the validity of intentions and PBC in predicting actual boycotting behaviour were performed. In the following analysis, purchase intention was first regressed against behaviour, then followed by PBC on behaviour.

Table 7.28 exhibited the results of the testing of the validity of intentions and PBC in predicting purchase behaviour for the high brand-cause and low brand-cause fit group. In the first step of the hierarchical analysis, the averaged intention score was the only predictor regressed against behaviour. The analysis below showed that in the high brand-cause fit group the 52% of the variance in behaviour was accounted for by the behavioural intention variable. In the low brand-cause fit group, purchase intention contributed 93% of the variance in purchase behaviour. These results indicated that the higher one's intention, the more likely the respondent is to purchase CRM products, and reversely if one's intention to purchase is low. This finding supports the argument that in normal circumstances and when behaviour is under some volitional control, behaviour intention is the immediate determinant of actual behaviour (Smetana and Adler, 1980; Ajzen, 1991). Therefore, H18 was supported in both groups.

In both groups, PBC failed to explained any additional variance in purchase behaviour on the second step. Hence, H19 was rejected by the data. The influence of PBC on target behaviour varies with the amount of control over the behaviour (Madden et al., 1992). When perceptions of control are accurate and individuals believe they have less control over the behaviour, PBC has stronger predictive effect on the target behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Madden et al., 1992). This result may confirm that being cynical is somehow under consumers' relative volitional control. Furthermore, because perceived control may not be actual behavioural control (in other words, the consumer may perceive he or she has control but actually no control exists), PBC did not add to the prediction of behaviour (Beck and Ajzen, 1991).

Table 7.28 Predicting Effect of Purchase Intention and PBC on Purchase Behaviour

Variables	**Step 1**			**Step 2**		
High Brand-Cause fit (N=205)	R^2	ß	B (SE)	R^2	ß	B (SE)
	520***			.521***		
Purchase Intention		.356***	.024		.353***	.025
PBC					.014	.027
Low Brand-Cause Fit (N=203)	R^2	ß	B (SE)	R^2	ß	B (SE)
	.930***			.930***		
Purchase Intention		.323***	.006		.324***	.006
PBC					-.018	.024
*p <. 05; **p <. O1; ***p < .001. Probability values of betas were adjusted for one-tailed tests.						

7.14 Results of the Hypotheses

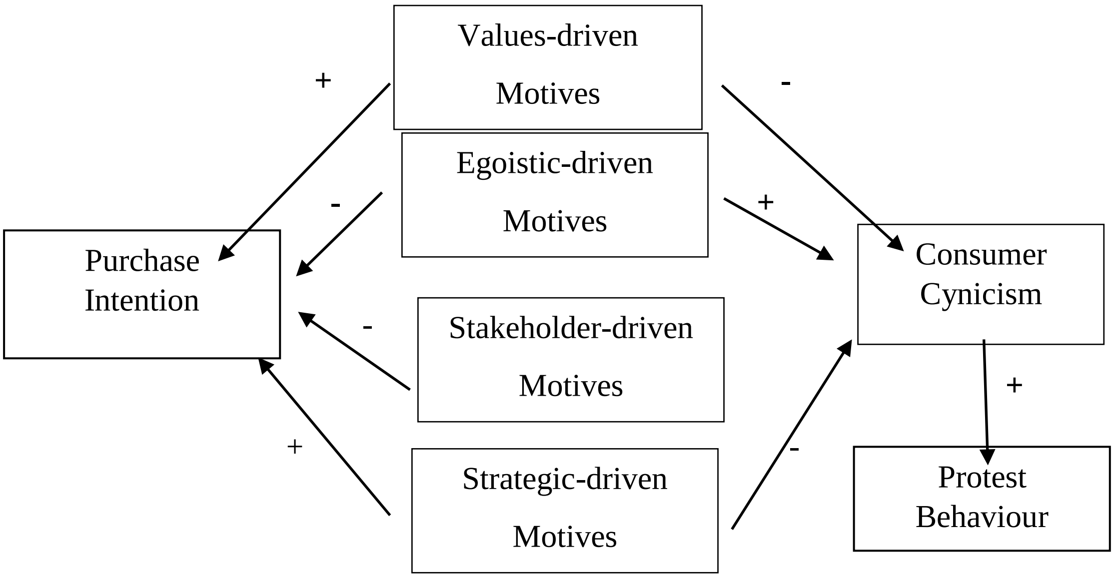
The main purpose of this research was to investigate consumer cynicism in the context of CRM and the factors that gave rise to them. Two well-established theories, Attribution Theory (Heider, 1958) and the TPB (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975) were applied to form theoretical framework to have a better understanding of consumer cynicism. Nine hypotheses were generated based on Attribution Theory. Seven hypotheses that formed the basis of the TPB model. The result of the hypotheses tests was given in Table 7.29.

Table 7.29 Hypotheses Results

	Hypotheses based on Attribution Theory	Supported
H1a	Egoistic-driven motives relate positively to consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products.	Yes
H1b	Egoistic-driven motives relate negatively to intention towards purchasing CRM products.	Yes
H2a	Values-driven motives relate negatively to consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products.	Yes
H2b	Values-driven motives relate positively to intention towards purchasing CRM products.	Yes
H3a	Strategic-driven motives relate negatively to consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products.	Yes
H3b	Values-driven motives relate positively to intention towards purchasing CRM products	Yes
H4a	Stakeholder-driven motives relate positively to consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products.	No
H4b	Stakeholder-driven motives relate negatively to intention towards purchasing CRM products.	Yes
H5	CRM practice involves in natural disaster cause result in lower consumer cynicism than those involve in ongoing cause.	Yes
H6	High brand-cause fit result in lower consumer cynicism than low brand-fit.	Yes
H7	Consumer cynicism relates negatively to the purchase intention towards CRM products.	No
H8	Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between consumer cynicism and purchase intention towards CRM products.	No
H9	Consumer cynicism relates positively to protest behaviour.	Yes
	Hypotheses based on TPB Model	**Supported**
H10	There is a positive relationship between behavioural beliefs and consumer cynicism.	Yes
H11	There is a positive relationship between normative beliefs and subjective norms.	Yes
H12	There is a positive relationship between control beliefs and perceived behaviour control.	Yes
H13	There is a negative relationship between consumer cynicism and purchase intention.	Partially supported
H14	There is a positive relationship between subjective norms and the intention towards purchasing CRM products.	Partially supported
H15	There is a positive relationship between perceived behavioural control and the intention towards purchasing CRM products.	Yes
H16	There is a positive relationship between self-efficacy and the intention towards purchasing CRM products.	Yes
H17	Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) and intention towards purchasing CRM products.	No
H18	There is a positive relationship between the intention and purchase behaviour towards purchasing CRM products.	Yes
H19	There is a significant positive relationship between perceived behavioural control and intended behaviour towards purchasing CRM products.	No

Attribution Theory was applied to investigate the influences of consumer' perceived company motives on consumer cynicism, purchase intention and protest behaviour. Figure 7.6 demonstrated the theoretical model of consumer cynicism that was developed based on the Attribution Theory and the findings of the hypotheses testing.

Figure 7.6 Model of Consumer Cynicism (Attribution Theory)



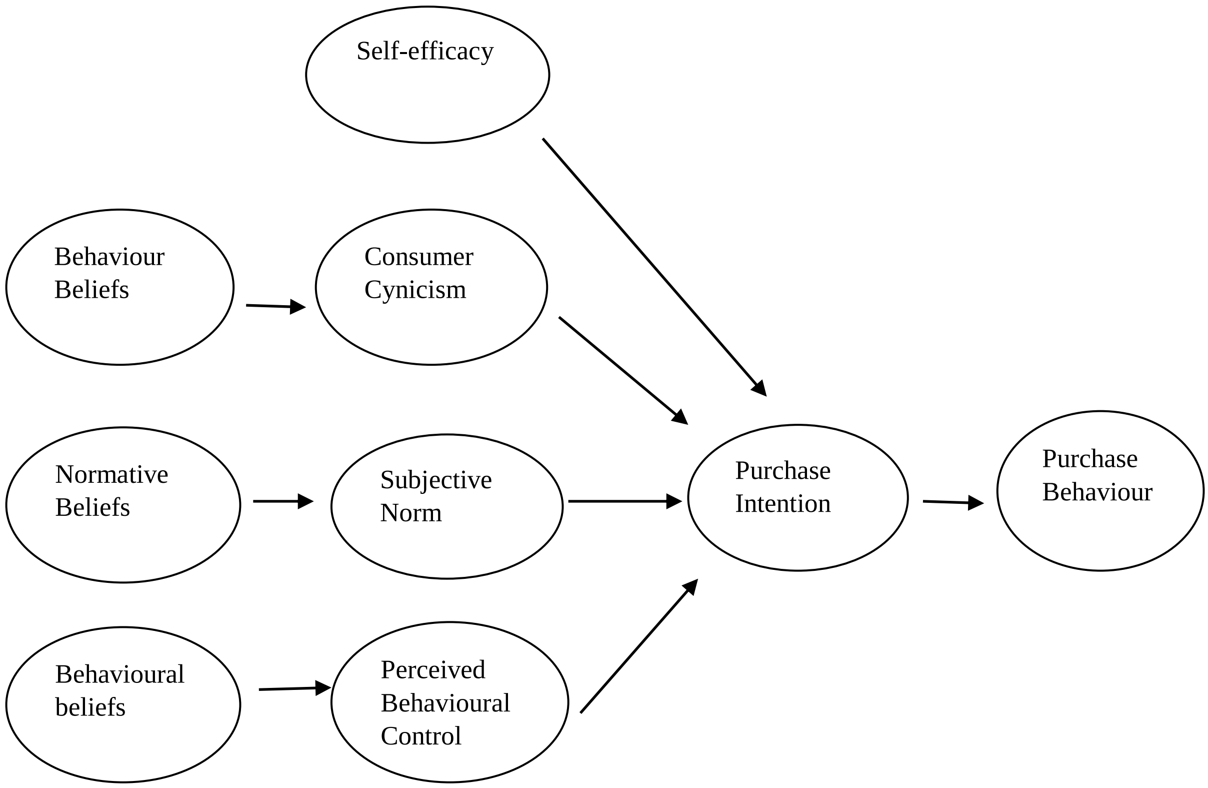
Note: "+" means positively related; "–" means negatively related

Hypotheses 1a to hypotheses 4b tested the relationship between consumer cynicism and attributed motives of firms that participate in CRM practices. Only stakeholder-driven motives were not related to consumer cynicism across four experimental groups. When there is low fit between brand and cause, egoist-driven motives were positively related to consumer cynicism. The more consumers perceived firms' motives as values-driven, the less consumer cynicism existing in the high brand-cause fit. Strategic-driven motives was found negatively related to consumer cynicism in the high fit with ongoing cause group. Different consumers' perceptions of company motives could help firms to design more effective communication messages to minimize consumer cynicism during the CRM practices.

The findings discovered that CRM practice involves in natural disaster cause result in lower consumer cynicism than those involve in ongoing cause. This finding is consistent with Ellen et al.'s view (2000) that that individuals are less likely to attribute personal responsibility to the people who suffer from natural disasters than those who suffer from ongoing causes. Consumers are more supportive to companies that engage in natural disaster causes as consumers believe that the victims are affected by an event that is not their own fault (Chochinov, 2005). Moreover, high brand-cause fit was found to result in lower consumer cynicism than low brand-fit. The degree of the fit that consumers perceive between the brand and the cause has influencing impact on consumer attitude (e.g., Aaker and Keller, 1990; Rifon et al., 2004; Nan and Heo, 2007). Consumer cynicism was found to be positively related to protest behaviour when brand partners with ongoing causes. Interestingly, protest behaviour was not found to be related to consumer cynicism in when firms engage in natural disaster causes. This finding showed that individuals are less negative towards firms that support natural disaster causes (Cui et al., 2003). Consumers are less like to protest against companies support natural disaster cause. Consumer cynicism was not related to purchase intention and no moderating effect was found between consumer cynicism and purchase intention.

The results also showed the applicability of the TPB to understand consumer cynicism in the context of CRM. The results established that the selected theory supports the model as 6 out of 10 hypotheses are supported in this study. Two were partially supported subject to high and low brand-cause fit conditions. This study also extended the TPB by adding self-efficacy to predict purchase intention. The extended TPB model is presented in Figure 7.7

Figure 7.7 The Extended Model of the TPB



Beliefs-based measures were found positively related to direct measures of attitude, subjective norm and PBC. General support was received for the predictions that cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products), subjective norms and perceived behavioural control would be positively related to intention to purchase CRM products. However, the addition of subjective norms in the high fit group makes the effect of consumer cynicism become non-significant but slightly improves the prediction of intentions. In this case, cynicism has no effect on purchase intention when there is high brand-cause fit. This indicates that high-brand fit can inhibit consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products. The perceptions of what important others think play an influencing role on purchase intention. More interestingly, in the low brand-cause fit group, the addition of subjective norm in the TPB model did not bring any enhancement to the prediction of purchase intention. This is due to the fact that when there is low brand-cause fit, the significant others' opinion plays no effect on purchase intention. The addition of self-efficacy increased the prediction of purchase intention. However, self-efficacy has no moderating effect on the relationship between cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) and purchase intention. Purchase intention was found to be predictive of purchase behaviour in both high and low fit groups. The findings based on the TPB in relation to the theoretical extensions, practical implications, and future directions are presented in the following chapter.

7.15 Summary

This chapter presented the profile of the final sample and the results from the analysis and hypotheses-testing. SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) version 24 was employed to analyse the quantitative data gathered from the questionnaire survey. Twelve questionnaires were discarded due to missing pages, leaving 408 questionnaires for data analysis. The final results of the hypotheses were presented in Table 7.29. All hypotheses developed were discussed in relation to the previously reviewed literature. Two models that built on Attribution Theory and the TPB were shown in Figure 7.6 and Figure 7.7 respectively.

CHAPTER EIGHT: CONCLUSIONS

8.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of six sections. Following this introduction, an overview of the study is presented in Section 8.2. A summary of the findings and conclusions are provided in Section 8.3. Section 8.4 highlights the research contributions in terms of its theoretical and managerial aspects. Section 8.5 discusses the limitations of the study, and suggestions for future research are made in Section 8.6. Finally, a summary of Chapter Eight is provided in Section 8.6.

8.2 Research Overview

Although CRM is a growing area of interest as reflected in both academic and practitioner marketing literature (Barone et al., 2007), negative consumer responses such as cynicism are easily generated (Arnoldy, 2007; Keene, 2008; Hessekiel, 2010). As a consequence, academic interest in consumer cynicism has increased at a significant rate in the field of marketing and consumer research (Odou and Pechpeyrou, 2011). To date, however, so far, consumer cynicism is an under-researched area in marketing (Chylinski and Chu, 2010), and the existing literature is limited. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this research aimed to investigate consumer cynicism in the context of CRM and subsequently offer one of the first empirical study to address this gap in the literature. Using Attribution Theory and the TPB as a theoretical base for understanding this topic, a factorial experimental design was used to examine the effect of the donation situation (natural disaster versus ongoing cause) and brand-cause fit (high versus low) on consumer cynicism (Malhotra and Birks, 2012). Next, two focus groups were conducted to gather useful information to design a questionnaire for a quantitative survey.

The findings offer robust evidence, demonstrating the hypothesised relationships between consumer cynicism and other constructs. Table 7.29 summarised the hypotheses and results. Finally, two theoretical models were presented, shown in Figure 7.6 and 7.7. The following section presents the overall findings and in respect of the research objectives highlighted in Chapter One and the following section.

8.3 Conclusions

This section revisits the research objectives and provides strong evidence of how the research objectives were achieved.

<u>1. To identify the influences of brand-cause fit on consumer cynicism in the context of cause-related marketing.</u>

<u>2. To examine the influences of donation situations (ongoing versus natural disaster) on consumer cynicism in the context of cause-related marketing.</u>

In order to achieve objective 1 and 2, stimuli elements were manipulated in a quasi-experiment, namely brand-cause fit (i.e. high versus low) and donation situation (i.e., ongoing cause versus natural disaster). The findings indicated that consumer cynicism vary depending on the brand-cause fit and donation situation. Consumer cynicism was found to be significantly different between the high brand-cause and low brand-cause fit groups. 41% of the total variance of consumer cynicism was accounted for the brand fit effect. The cynicism level was also significantly different between the ongoing and sudden disaster groups, 28% of the total variance was accounted for by the donation effect. These findings are consistent with previous research which stated that high brand-cause fit results in a more positive consumer attitude (e.g. Aaker and Keller, 1990; Rifon et al., 2004; Nan and Heo, 2007).

3. To identify the influences of consumers' perceptions of company motives on consumer cynicism in the context of cause-related marketing.

In order to attain objective 3, Attribution Theory is used in this study to explore the role of consumer cynicism towards CRM, by examining consumers' perceptions of firms' motives for engaging in CRM activities and how these influence their subsequent attitudes and behaviour (Ellen, et al., 2000; Vlachos et al., 2009). Attribution Theory relates to how individuals interpret behaviour (Kelley, 1973, Kelley and Michelangelo, 1980) and is relevant to investigating consumer attitude and behaviour in the field of CRM (Ellen et al., 2000; Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2009; Tsai, 2009). Following the work conducted by Stanley et al. (2005), this study defined consumer cynicism as an attitude characterised by disbelief in a firm's underlying motives for using CRM as a marketing practice. Consumers believe that the firm seeks its own benefit more, and has less regard for genuinely helping a designated cause. As more companies engage in CRM practices, consumers are likely to be cynical about their intention in supporting the assigned cause (Vlachos et al., 2009). How consumers attribute motives to a company's CRM practice is important in the current study in order to explore how their perception of company motives is linked to consumer cynicism and how cynical consumers respond to CRM activities.

As discussed in Sections 2.2.5, Section 2.2.6 and 2.2.7, the brand-cause fit and donation situation may assist in forming attributions to the firms' involvement in CRM. The fit between the firm and the cause can influence consumer attitude and subsequent behaviour (Drumwright, 1996; Osterhus, 1997; Ellen et al., 2000; Cui et al., 2003; Barone et al., 2007). The findings indicated that egoistic-driven motives were perceived and were positively related to consumer cynicism in low-fit brand-cause groups. Strategic-driven and value-driven motives were negatively related to consumer cynicism. This means that the more consumers perceive firms' CRM activities as having strategic or value-driven motives, the less consumer cynicism is generated. In line with Attribution Theory, consumers' perceptions of company motives were found to influence purchase intention. However, surprisingly, consumer cynicism was found to be related to purchase intention.

<u>4. To examine the relationship between consumer cynicism and protest behaviour in the context of cause-related marketing.</u>

Objective 4 was achieved by the findings that protest behaviour was found to be positively related to consumer cynicism only in the ongoing cause groups. This finding is consistent with Attribution Theory, which suggested that individuals are more supportive of victims affected by sudden disaster (Ellen et al., 2000; Chochinov, 2005).

5. To explore the influences of TPB variables, i.e. consumer cynicism (attitude), subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, on purchase intention towards purchasing CRM products.

In order to achieve objective five, the relative contributions of consumer cynicism (attitude), subjective norms and PBC, on purchase intention towards purchasing CRM products were examined. The results showed that in the high brand-cause fit group, cynicism directly on its own explained 0.2% of the variance in intention to purchase CRM products. This indicated that consumer cynicism still results in purchase intention in the high brand-cause fit scenarios. Cynicism direct had no influence on purchase intention. This result was related to the fact that individuals are more likely to be affected by their social pressure groups when there is high brand-cause fit. In the low brand-cause fit group, the TPB variables explained 87.7% of the variance in purchase intention. Cynicism direct was negatively related to purchase intention. It was the dominant predictor, followed by PBC. The findings showed that when there is low fit between brand and cause, the opinion of important others has no impact on purchase intention. Furthermore, PBC contributed an additional 29% to the variance in intention in the high brand-cause fit group and only 0.3% in the low-fit group. This indicated that individuals have less volitional control of their cynicism towards purchasing CRM products when there is high brand-cause fit, but greater volitional control when there is low brand-cause fit. Purchase intention was proven to be a strong predictor of purchase behaviour in both groups.

6. To explore the role of self-efficacy in the proposed theoretical models.

Objective six was achieved by examining the moderating effect of self-efficacy between consumer cynicism and purchase intention and the inclusion of self-efficacy in the TPB model. Although the moderating effect of self-efficacy was not found in both models that built on Attribution Theory and the TPB, this does not mean that such an effect does not work in a more subtle way or work with other variables involved. This finding emphasised the need for more research to deepen our understanding of the moderating effect of self-efficacy in the proposed theoretical models.

The inclusion of self-efficacy increased the prediction of purchase intention in the TPB model. The results showed that in the high brand-cause fit group self-efficacy became the dominant predictor, followed by subjective norm and PBC. In the low brand-cause fit group, the inclusion of self-efficacy added another 1.9% to the prediction of purchase intention. These results indicated that individuals with great self-efficacy, who believe what they purchase can make a difference, might still purchase CRM products.

7. To empirically test the applicability of the proposed theoretical models built on Attribution Theory and TPB in the context of cause-related marketing.

The research findings demonstrated the feasibility of applying Attribution Theory and the TPB to understand consumer cynicism in the context of CRM. Based on Attribution Theory, how consumers perceive company motives was found related to consumer cynicism, which then result in protest behaviour depending on different CRM stimuli (i.e., ongoing versus natural disaster cause). Based on the TPB model, the results in Section 7.13.2 showed that behavioural beliefs did in fact contribute to the variance in the direct measures of the TPB model (namely, attitudes, subjective norm and PBC). It is important to note that these findings support the use of the belief-based (indirect) measures of cynicism attitude, subjective norm and PBC. Therefore, the above results confirmed the applicability of TPB (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975).

The findings from this study indicate that all seven research objectives have been achieved. Attribution Theory and the extended model of the TPB provided valuable theoretical support to gain a greater understanding of consumer cynicism in the context of CRM.

8.4 Research Contributions

8.4.1 Theoretical Contributions

As stated above, although the topic of consumer cynicism has attracted increasing attention in contemporary consumer research (Andersen and Johansen, 2016), the extensive review of literature conducted for this study revealed that these studies either remain on conceptual ground (e.g. Odou and Pechpeyrou, 2011) or focus on general consumer cynicism in the marketplace (e.g. Chylinski and Chu, 2010; Helm et al., 2015; Ketron, 2016). In recent years, there are more and more companies have become involved in CRM practice (Adkins, 2011; Hawkins, 2012; La Ferle et al., 2013; Lucke and Heinze, 2015; Vilela and Nelson, 2016) and there is occurrence of consumer cynicism in the context of CRM (Hawkins, 2012). However, previous studies only emphasised the importance of understanding consumer cynicism in the context of CRM but without further investigation (Meyer, 1999; Smith and Higgins, 2000; Chiagouris and Ray, 2007; Paek and Nelson, 2009; Chang, 2011; Hawkins, 2012).

Therefore, as there is no well-established theoretical framework to guide the research objectives or hypotheses in investigating consumer cynicism in the context of CRM, this research tested the applicability of Attribution Theory and the TPB in explaining consumer cynicism in a CRM context. Thus, providing the following theoretical contributions.

Attribution Theory

Attribution Theory predicts a relationship between attributions and subsequent attitudes and behaviours (Kelly and Michela 1980). Thus, when consumers make attributions about corporate motives for participating in CRM activities, these influence their attitudes and behaviour. A new perspective has been given to Attribution Theory by identifying the link between consumers' perceptions of company motives, consumer cynicism and protest behaviour. Consequently, three important contributions to Attribution Theory are revealed below.

First, this research adds a new dimension to theoretical knowledge in understanding consumer cynicism in a CRM context. This dimension entails a key cognition, namely consumers' perceptions of company motive. A second new dimension added to theoretical knowledge is the link between consumer cynicism and protest behaviour in the context of CRM. Protest behaviour was found to be positively related to consumer cynicism in the ongoing cause groups. This finding is consistent with Attribution Theory's suggestion that individuals are more supportive of victims affected by sudden disaster (Ellen et al., 2000; Chochinov, 2005).

Third, according to Fiske and Taylor (1991, p.23), "attribution theory deals with how the social perceiver uses information to arrive at causal explanations for events. It examines what information is gathered and how it is combined to form a causal judgment." In other words, individuals use various information sources to make causal attributions about the behaviour of those around them. In this research, experimental stimuli/scenarios (high versus low brand-cause fit and ongoing cause versus sudden disaster cause) were used as the information sources to study how individuals make causal attributions about firms' CRM practices. The findings of this research confirmed that consumers make different causal attributions about companies' involvement in CRM practices when they are exposed to different information sources.

TPB

This research adds to the literature on consumer cynicism by applying the TPB. It instantiates the TPB framework, as attitude in the context of this study refers to consumer cynicism. The findings confirm the relevance of TPB as a theoretical framework for explaining consumer cynicism in a CRM context. In addition, the application of TPB to consumer cynicism was valuable in providing support for the TPB model and for the belief-based measures to predict cynicism direct, subjective norms and PBC.

Ajzen (1991, p. 199) proposed that the TPB is "open to the inclusion of additional predictors if it can be shown that they capture a significant proportion of the variance in intention after the theory's current variables have been taken into account". Several investigations have shown that the inclusion of a self-efficacy measure can account for additional variance in purchase intention in TPB studies (e.g. McCaul et al., 1998; Armitage and Conner, 1999a;

Basil et al., 2008; Chan et al., 2016; Wang and Zhang, 2016). Self-efficacy reflects a person's internal confidence and ability with respect to performing a behaviour (Cotte and Trudel, 2009). However, this is the first study to examine the effect of consumer cynicism and self-efficacy working in tandem with TPB constructs to predict purchase intentions towards CRM products.

This finding has implications for marketers, in that despite consumer cynicism, focusing on increasing self-efficacy can still result in purchase intention. Although this study failed to support the moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between consumer cynicism and purchase intention, this does not mean that such an effect does not work in a subtler way or work with other variables. Further exploration of this moderating role of self-efficacy is needed.

Furthermore, the indirect questioning technique was applied to assess consumer cynicism in the TPB model. In interpreting the cynicism of others, respondents indirectly project their beliefs-based measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products. These measure items are valuable for future research when applying TPB to investigate consumer cynicism in a CRM context. The behavioural beliefs generated from this research are as follows:

Having cynicism towards purchasing CRM products would: 1) Avoid being let down by firm's deceptive behaviour; 2) Avoid being manipulated by firm's CRM practices; 3) Encourage (firm) to deliver what they promise to support XXX (cause); 4) Cause missing out helping XXX (cause).

To sum up, this research not only demonstrates the value of applying Attribution Theory and the TPB to understand consumer cynicism in the context of CRM, but also identifies an interesting connection between these two theories. Consumers' perceptions of company motives can be incorporated into the TPB model. In this case, the extended TPB model provides the possibility of gaining explanatory power in understanding consumer cynicism in a CRM context.

8.4.2 Managerial Implications

In addition to its theoretical and empirical contributions, the findings of this research provided a useful managerial insight into consumer cynicism which should be considered in the development of effective CRM strategies.

The findings of this research highlight the importance of brand-cause fit and the donation situation in influencing consumer cynicism. Choosing the appropriate cause to partner with will ultimately impact on the ability of the CRM strategy to positively reduce consumer cynicism. It is recommended that practitioners should undertake research to discover their consumers' perceptions of appropriate matches between the brand and potential causes. Furthermore, marketers who engage in CRM should develop a communications strategy focusing on creating and reinforcing the links between their brand and the cause in the mind of the consumers. Firms can effectively demonstrate their social responsibility by supporting sudden disaster causes as the findings of this research revealed that supporting sudden disaster causes result in lower consumer cynicism and would not result in protest behaviour.

There are ways to develop communication that may optimise the effectiveness of cause-related campaigns. Generally, a message can be framed as other-benefit (altruistic) or self-benefit (egoistic) (Fisher et al. 2008; White & Peloza 2009). A other-benefit CRM appeal emphasises that the donation will benefit other people, whereas self-benefit appeal includes the message that a donation will help oneself (Chang, 2012). Furthermore, many companies use cause-focused message framing, which highlights the charity incentive, or a representation of the cause (Lafferty and Edmondson 2009; Chang 2011). The findings of this study show that consumers' perceptions of company motives affect their own cynicism towards CRM activities. Value-driven and strategic-driven motives were negatively related to consumer cynicism. Egoistic-driven motives, which have high prediction of consumer cynicism, were found to be negatively related to consumer cynicism. Values-driven motives refer to firms' authentic intention to help the cause they support, driven by their values and moral standards (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006). Strategic-driven motives mean that consumers believe that companies can obtain their business objectives while supporting the assigned causes (Ellen et al., 2006; Vlachos et al., 2009). In other words, they are viewed as a win-win situation for both the firms and the causes they partner. Therefore, marketing managers should include information that demonstrates the firms' values and moral standards and acknowledges supporting the designated cause to provide a win-win situation for the company in their marketing communication activities. Communication messages that emphasise value-driven and strategic-driven motives may reduce consumer cynicism and, in return, maximise the effectiveness of CRM campaigns.

Based on the TPB model, belief-based measures were significantly related to direct measures of cynicism, subjective norm and PBC. This finding is particularly useful for companies in designing intervention strategies aiming to dissuade consumers from being cynical towards purchasing CRM products. For example, firms can develop effective CRM communication campaigns by ensuring they deliver their promise to the supported cause. Firms may not be able to change the prevailing consumer cynicism (Lantieri and Chiagouris, 2009), but by taking measures to influence behavioural beliefs firms can offset consumer cynicism. However, designing an intervention to change these key beliefs requires evaluating it with a separate sample of the target population. The beliefs identified in this research can be used by academics as well as practitioners to guide future studies into counter-cynicism intervention design. Furthermore, findings based on the TPB model indicated that subjective norms play an important role in shaping one's intention to purchase CRM products in the high brand-cause fit group. This finding showed that the purchase intentions of cynical consumers were considerably greater under the influence of important others. Therefore, practitioners should identify the influential social pressure groups of their target consumers and develop effective communication campaigns by influencing these groups in turn.

8.5 Research Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Although this study contributes to the knowledge surrounding consumer cynicism in the context of CRM, several limitations should be acknowledged. These limitations provide a number of suggestions for future research.

This research showed that low brand-cause fit resulted in higher consumer cynicism. CRM with choice, in which companies let consumers choose which cause will receive support (Robinson et al, 2012), is increasing in popularity (Cone LLC, 2010). When consumers are given a choice of causes, the negative effect of low brand-caused fit can be reduced

(Robinson et al., 2012). As such, it would be interesting for future research to explore the effect of choice on CRM on consumer cynicism.

The findings of this research also suggested that consumers' perceptions of company motives of brand-cause fit and donation situations are critical factors in affecting their cynicism. This influence varies with different CRM offers (i.e. sudden disaster versus ongoing cause and high versus low brand-cause fit). Therefore, it is suggested that future research explore these factors in more detail, for example whether the firm could favourably influence this perception by clearly articulating the connection in the communication strategy. Message framing can significantly influence the effectiveness of CRM campaigns (e.g. White and Peloza 2009; Chang, 2012). An important implication arising from this research is that an appropriately framed message should be incorporated into CRM campaigns to increase their effectiveness. Although different framing messages have been used in various studies, such as donation framing (e.g. Chang, 2008), attribute framing (Grau and Folse 2007) and temporal framing (Tangari et al. 2010), emphasising value-driven or strategic-driven motives in a CRM context need to be explored further.

Throughout this thesis, fictitious brand and cause names were used so that the respondents had no previous experience or bias from existing names that would influence the effects of variables. However, in examining the effects of consumer cynicism for existing brands and causes, initial consumer cynicism might vary, which would be of interest to researchers and marketing practitioners.

In this study toothpaste was selected as a product because it is relevant to the sample population and they are familiar with it. As such, the findings may not relate to hedonic or service products, or even to other fast-moving consumer goods. Different product categories may elicit different results. The elements of product stimuli may also limit the generalisability of the study. Therefore, it is suggested that this study be replicated using different product categories to determine whether these results can be extended to other conditions.

Given that consumer cynicism is an under-researched area in marketing (Chylinski and Chu, 2010), it is possible that some important constructs were not included in the conceptual models or that the models include some constructs that may not be completely appropriate. For example, familiarity with the cause and the company has a vital influence on consumers' attitude (Lafferty and Goldsmith, 2005; Zdravkovic et al., 2010). Hence, future research could investigate the effect of familiarity on consumer cynicism. Moreover, familiarity with CRM practices influences how consumers perceive company motives (La Ferle et al. 2013). American consumers who have more experience with CRM practices have evaluated CRM offers less positively than do Indian consumers. Thus, future studies could investigate the effect of familiarity of CRM practices on perceived motives and consumer cynicism by using experimental designs or cross-cultural research. This research suggested that stakeholder-driven motives relate positively to consumer cynicism when purchasing CRM products, and when consumers believe that companies participate in CRM practices because of stakeholder pressure (Ellen et al., 2006; Vlachos et al., 2009). In this case, stakeholders refer to different interest groups such as consumers, employees, stockholders and society as a whole (Ellen et al., 2006). However, the results detected no relationship between stakeholder-driven motives and consumer cynicism. One possible reason is that consumers who are cynical of CRM products may not believe that companies are involved in CRM due to stakeholder pressure. The relationship between stakeholder-driven motives and consumer cynicism has not previously been examined, so future studies may add to the findings from this research by investigating this relationship.

The findings indicated that consumer cynicism resulted in protest behaviour when firms are in partnership with ongoing causes, but not with sudden disaster cause groups. Protest behaviour refers to actions taken by consumers with the aim of getting companies into trouble by boycotting (Olson and Dover, 1978; DeCarlo, 2005), blogging against the company, taking legal action against corporations, complaining or joining collective movements against the firm (Yuksel and Mryteza, 2009; Lindenmeier et al., 2012; Grappi et al., 2013). Therefore, further research could explore the relationship between consumer cynicism, boycotting, and negative word of mouth when firms are in partnership with different causes.

Scepticism in the context of CRM has been studied in previous research (e.g., Kim and Lee, 2009; Brønn and Vrioni, 2001; Skarmeas and Leonidou, 2013; Patel et al., 2017). Although the literature suggests that cynicism and scepticism are distinct from each other, they are closely related (Mohr et al., 1998; Obermiller and Spangenberg, 1998; Stanley, 2005; Tan and Tan, 2007). Turner and Valentine (2001) believe that cynicism is a more aggressive attitude and a stronger form of scepticism. Webb and Mohr (1998) state that scepticism towards CRM derived from cynicism towards advertising in general. Patel et al. (2017) called for techniques to reduce scepticism (Singh et al. 2009), to prevent it becoming cynicism. Future research might extend this thesis by investigating the relationship between consumer cynicism and scepticism. Broadening the scope of research to posit consumer scepticism as an antecedent of consumer cynicism could lead to further theoretical understanding of consumer cynicism.

This research tested the applicability of the proposed theoretical models built on Attribution Theory and TPB. The two theories were applied independently but they are not mutually exclusive. Therefore, future research could explore the possibility of gaining explanatory power in understanding consumer cynicism in the context of CRM by incorporating consumers' perceptions of company motives from Attribution Theory into TPB.

This study followed a post-positivist philosophical orientation in order to test the theoretical framework. The philosophical orientation determined the decision to select methods belonging to the post-positivist tradition, such as quasi-experimental design. Whilst advancing knowledge in the direction of the casual relationship between constructs, this method cannot provide individual interpretation of the constructs. In this study, two-well established theories, Attribution Theory and the TPB, provide a theoretical foundation to understand consumer cynicism in the context of CRM. By following an interpretivist philosophical stance, future studies could add to this research, providing further insights into the topic.

As described in Section 6.3, a convenience sample of undergraduates was used to satisfy the requirements of experimental design for a homogeneous sample. However, the use of students as subjects may limit the ability to generalise the findings to the overall population. Hence, this study should be replicated with a non-student sample.

Finally, as this research focused on investigating consumer cynicism in the context of CRM, the findings may not necessarily reflect consumer cynicism in other contexts. Therefore, there is a need to replicate and extend this study to other contexts to examine the scope of the models. Given the focus of this research, there is the potential of social desirability bias, which often occurs when survey respondents tend to answer questions that can be viewed more favourably by others (McBride, 2013). As suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003), respondents are less likely to provide socially desirable answers when informed of the anonymity of their responses. Respondents were informed/reminded of the anonymity and confidentiality of this study during the focus group and the quantitative survey. In addition, the use of indirect questioning can reduce bias in responses (Fisher, 1993). Therefore, because of the anonymity of the respondent and the use of indirect questioning, the likelihood of this bias being exhibited should be minimal.

In summary, additional research is required to address the limitations outlined above, but as it stands this study can hopefully instigate greater research interest in the topic of consumer cynicism in the context of CRM. Given that this research is conducted in a UK context, additional research to support the suitability of the relevant measures and models across cultures is needed.

8.6 Summary

This thesis has fulfilled the research aim, in that it confirms and enhances our understanding of consumer cynicism in the context of CRM. Thus, responding to calls for the need to explore the topic further (e.g. Paek and Nelson, 2009; Chang, 2011; Hawkins, 2012). Given the need for further theoretical development, this research successfully applied Attribution Theory and the TPB to achieve a greater understanding of consumer cynicism in the context of CRM. In fact, in light of how little is known about the influence of consumers' perceptions of company motives on consumer cynicism, Attribution Theory helped to investigate the relationships between these elements, purchase intention and protest behaviour. The TPB has allowed considerable advances in our understanding of the beliefs underpinning consumer cynicism. The addition of self-efficacy to the TPB model improved the prediction of intention to purchase CRM products.

Finally, the encouraging results from Attribution Theory and the TPB extension suggest the usefulness of their application in understanding consumer cynicism in CRM, not only as a theoretical base but also for the design of subsequent business interventions in the future.

Appendix 1: Focus Group Participant Consent Form

Ph.D. Research Project: Towards a Greater Understanding of Consumer Cynicism towards Cause-related Marketing

Name of Participant: ______________________ Email: _________________________

1. I consent to participate in the above project, the objectives of which have been explained to me.

2. I authorise the researcher (Huijing Christine Zhang) to record my interviews as described in the information sheet provided.

3. I hereby give the researcher (Huijing Christine Zhang) the right to use the data I provide, including voice-taped interviews and key-incident diary entries for the PhD research, conference papers, journal articles and other academic publications.

4. I understand that I have the right to withdraw at any stage of the interview process. If required, I can receive a copy of the transcript following the interview and have the right to withdraw any part thereof. Focus Group respondents have the right to withdraw from the group, but not to withdraw any recorded data after the session has been recorded.

5. I acknowledge that the possible effects of this research have been explained to me to my satisfaction.

6. I understand that, unless I specifically request it, I will not be identified in the PhD thesis nor in any presentation or publication and that all the information I provide will be treated as confidential.

If you have any questions/concerns about this research, please do not hesitate to contact Dr Agata Maccarrone-Eaglen at the University of Salford, Email: A.Maccarrone-Eaglen@salford.ac.uk or 0161 295 20335876.

You will be given a copy of this consent form to keep for your records. Thank you for taking time out of your busy schedule to participate in this research process.

I do/ do not*(* Delete as appropriate) wish my name to be used in connection with the data I contribute to this research project.

I do /do not* (* Delete as appropriate) wish to be contacted to choose the brand-cause fit following up focus group discussion.

Signed ________________________ Date ________________________

Appendix 2: Focus Group Topic Guide A

Aim of this study:

This study aims to investigate aims to investigate consumer cynicism as an attitude construct, and its impact on consumer behaviour in the context of cause-related marketing.

The objectives of the study are to:

1. To identify the influences of brand-cause fit on consumer cynicism in the context of cause-related marketing.

2. To examine the influences of donation situations (ongoing versus natural disaster) on consumer cynicism in the context of cause-related marketing.

3. To identify the influences of consumers' perceptions of company motives on consumer cynicism in the context of cause-related marketing.

4. To examine the relationship between consumer cynicism and protest behaviour in the context of cause-related marketing.

5. To explore the influences of TPB variables, i.e. consumer cynicism (attitude), subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, on purchase intention towards purchasing CRM products.

6. To explore the role of self-efficacy in the proposed theoretical models.

7. To empirically test the applicability of the proposed theoretical models built on Attribution Theory and TPB in the context of cause-related marketing.

Construct Definition

Consumer Cynicism

Consumer cynicism is characterized by a disbelief in a firm's underlying motives for using cause-related marketing as a marketing practice. Cynical consumers believe that the firm seeks its own benefit more and has less regard for genuinely helping a designated cause during the CRM practice.

Cause-related Marketing (CRM)

Cause-related marketing is the process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue- providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives (Varadarajan and Menon, 1988, p60).

1. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What are the perceived company motives of firms that participate in CRM practices that your friend would think of?

2. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Does your friend think these perceived company motives have impact on his/her cynicism towards CRM practices?

3. Read the following words that describe consumer cynicism. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Any wordings in this page do you think are not relevant to reflect your friend's cynicism towards CRM practices?

Wordings to reflect Consumer Cynicism:

- My friend believes that firms have little regard for meeting consumers' needs during CRM practices.
- My friend believes that firms use CRM practices for its own benefit only.
- My friend questions firms' motives for involving in CRM activities.
- My friend believes firms would misrepresent information to gain acceptance for a cause-related buy.
- My friend believes that the firms pretend to care more about consumers and charitable causes than they really do in order to get consumers into the CRM products.
- My friend believes that the firms only pretend to care about its consumers in order to gain profit from selling cause-related products.

4. If not relevant, why do you think they are not relevant to reflect your friend's cynicism towards CRM practices?

Appendix 3: Focus Group Topic Guide B

Section 1

5 Do you think the company name “NND” is associated to any company that you know?

6 Do you think the company name “NND” is associated to specific occasions that you know?

7 Can you create a brand name for a toothpaste product?

Section 2

Have a look at the following fictitious names of non-profit organizations:

Ongoing cause conditions: Dental Fund for Orphans, Road Safety Trust, Save the Dolphins, AIDs Trust.

Disaster cause conditions: National Flood Relief, Dental Fund for Tsunami Victims, Extreme Weather Relief, Natural Disaster Recovery Fund.

The following questions are asked:

8 Do you have any problem in understanding these names for non-profit organisations that are listed in part 2 of the Appendix B?

9 Are any of these names associated to any non-profit organisations that you are familiar with?

Appendix 4: Focus Group Topic Guide C

Elicitation of Salient Beliefs

10 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What does your friend believe are the advantages of him or her being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

11 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What does your friend believe are the disadvantages of him or her being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

12 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Is there anything else that your friend associates with being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

13 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any individuals or groups who would approve of your friend being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

14 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any individuals or groups who would disapprove of your friend being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

15 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any other individuals or groups who come to mind when you think about your friend being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

16 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What factors or circumstances you think that would make your friend easily to be cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

17 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What factors or circumstances you think would make it difficult/impossible for your friend to be cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products in a shop?

18 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any other factors or circumstances that could make it difficult or prevent your friend from being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

Consequences of Consumer Cynicism

Ask respondents to have a look at the following construct definitions before answering question from 19 to 22.

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief in his or her ability to accomplish a certain task (Mitchell et al., 1994). In this case, it refers to the fact that individuals are more likely to purchase cause-related products when they believe they can make a difference in the problem (e.g. environmental or social issues).

Intention to Purchase Cause-related Products

Behavioural intention refers to a person's readiness to perform a behaviour (Ajzen, 2006). In this case, it refers to the intention to purchase the cause-related products.

Protest Behaviour

Protest behaviour are actions taken by consumers with the aim of getting companies into trouble by boycotting, blogging against the company, taking legal action against corporations, complaining and joining collective movements against the firm (Yuksel and Mryteza, 2009; Lindenmeier et al., 2012; Grappi et al., 2013).

19 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would still have intention to purchase CRM products despite his or her consumer cynicism towards CRM practices?

20 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would still purchase CRM products despite his or her consumer cynicism towards CRM practices?

21 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would still purchase CRM products if he or she believe he/she can make a difference to the causes that companies support?

22 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would have protest behaviour against firms that involve in CRM practices?

Appendix 5: Focus Group Questions

1. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What are the perceived motives of firms that participate in CRM practices that your friend would think of?

2. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Does your friend think these consumers' perceived motives have impact on his/her cynicism towards CRM practices?

3. Read the following words that describe consumer cynicism. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Any wordings in this page do you think are not relevant to reflect your friend's cynicism towards CRM practices?

4. If not relevant, why do you think they are not relevant to reflect your friend's cynicism towards CRM practices?

5. Do you think the company name "NND" is associated to any company that you know?

6. Do you think the company name "NND" is associated to specific occasions that you know?

7. Can you create a brand name for a toothpaste product?

8. Do you have any problem in understanding the following names for non-profit organisations?

Ongoing cause conditions: Dental Fund for Orphans, Support for Road Safety, Save the Dolphins, AIDs Trust.

Disaster cause conditions: National Flood Relief, Dental Fund for Tsunami Victims, Extreme Weather Relief, Natural Disaster Recovery Fund.

9. Are any of these names associated to any non-profit organisations that you are familiar with?

10. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What does your friend believe are the advantages of him or her being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

11. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What does your friend believe are the disadvantages of him or her being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

12. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Is there anything else that your friend associates with being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

13. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any individuals or groups who would approve of your friend being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

14. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any individuals or groups who would disapprove of your friend being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

15. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any other individuals or groups who come to mind when you think about your friend being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

16. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What factors or circumstances you think that would make your friend easily to be cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

17. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What factors or circumstances you think would make it difficult/impossible for your friend to be cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products in a shop?

18. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any other factors or circumstances that could make it difficult or prevent your friend from being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

19. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would still have intention to purchase CRM products despite his or her consumer cynicism towards CRM practices?

20. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would still purchase CRM products despite his or her consumer cynicism towards CRM practices?

21. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would still purchase CRM products if he or she believe he/she can make a difference to the causes that companies support?

22. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would have protest behaviour against firms that involve in CRM practices?

Appendix 6 Focus Group Protocol

Welcome the respondents.
Self-introduction to the respondents.
Illustrate the aim of the discussion

Aim of this study:

This study aims to investigate aims to investigate consumer cynicism as an attitude construct, and its impact on consumer behaviour in the context of cause-related marketing.

Ask each participant to complete a consent form (Appendix 1). Respondents were informed of the fact that they could withdraw at any time in the discussion process. The moderator highlighted the requirements that interactions between respondents were permitted but only one participant spoke at any one time and each was given the opportunity to make his/her point in full.

Ask the respondents to introduce themselves to each other.

The respondents were required to have a look at the following two construct definitions

before asking question 1 and question 2.

Consumer Cynicism

Consumer cynicism is characterized by a disbelief in a firm's underlying motives for using cause-related marketing as a marketing practice. Cynical consumers believe that the firm seeks its own benefit more and has less regard for genuinely helping a designated cause during the CRM practice.

Cause-related Marketing (CRM)

Cause-related marketing is the process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue- providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives (Varadarajan and Menon, 1988, p60).

1 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What are consumers' perceptions of company motives for participating in CRM practices that your friend would think of?

2 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Does your friend think these perceived motives have impact on his/her cynicism towards CRM practices?

3 Read the following words that describe consumer cynicism. Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Any wordings in this page do you think are not relevant to reflect your friend's cynicism towards CRM practices?

Wordings to reflect Consumer Cynicism:

- My friend believes that firms have little regard for meeting consumers' needs during CRM practices.
- My friend believes that firms use CRM practices for its own benefit only.
- My friend questions firms' motives for involving in CRM activities.
- My friend believes firms would misrepresent information to gain acceptance for a cause-related buy.
- My friend believes that the firms pretend to care more about consumers and charitable causes than they really do in order to get consumers into the CRM products.
- My friend believes that the firms only pretend to care about its consumers in order to gain profit from selling cause-related products.

4 If not relevant, why do you think they are not relevant to reflect your friend's cynicism towards CRM practices?

5 Do you think the company name "NND" is associated to any company that you know?

6 Do you think the company name "NND" is associated to specific occasions that you know?

7 Can you create a brand name for a toothpaste product?

As the respondents to have a look at the following fictitious names of non-profit organizations:

Ongoing cause conditions: Dental Fund for Orphans, Support for Road Safety, Save the Dolphins, AIDs Trust.

Disaster cause conditions: National Flood Relief, Dental Fund for Tsunami Victims, Extreme Weather Relief, Natural Disaster Recovery Fund.

The following questions are asked:

8 Do you have any problem in understanding these names for non-profit organisations that are listed in part 2 of the Appendix B?

9 Are any of these names associated to any non-profit organisations that you are familiar with?

10 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What does your friend believe are the advantages of him or her being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

11 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What does your friend believe are the disadvantages of him or her being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

12 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Is there anything else that your friend associates with being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

13 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any individuals or groups who would approve of your friend being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

14 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any individuals or groups who would disapprove of your friend being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

15 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any other individuals or groups who come to mind when you think about your friend being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

16 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What factors or circumstances you think that would make your friend easily to be cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

17 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. What factors or circumstances you think would make it difficult/impossible for your friend to be cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products in a shop?

18 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Are there any other factors or circumstances that could make it difficult or prevent your friend from being cynical about purchasing CRM products when he or she sees CRM products?

<u>Ask respondents to have a look at the following construct definitions before answering question from 19 to 22.</u>

Intention to Purchase Cause-related Products

Behavioural intention refers to a person's readiness to perform a behaviour (Ajzen, 2006). In this case, it refers to the intention to purchase the cause-related products.

Protest Behaviour

Protest behaviour are actions taken by consumers with the aim of getting companies into trouble by boycotting, blogging against the company, taking legal action against corporations, complaining and joining collective movements against the firm (Yuksel and Mryteza, 2009; Lindenmeier et al., 2012; Grappi et al., 2013).

19 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would still have intention to purchase CRM products despite his or her consumer cynicism towards CRM practices?

20 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would still purchase CRM products despite his or her consumer cynicism towards CRM practices?

21 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would still purchase CRM products if he or she believe he/she can make a difference to the causes that companies support?

22 Think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices. Do you think your friend would have protest behaviour against firms that involve in CRM practices?

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Appendix 7: Brand-cause Fit

Ph.D. Research Project: Towards a Greater Understanding of Consumer Cynicism towards Cause-related Marketing

Please READ the 'scenario' description hereafter BEFORE answering the questions.

"NND is a company that manufactures toothpaste products. NND's toothpaste brand Beausmile has carved a reputation for delivering good quality, value-added toothpastes to meet the needs of consumers. The toothpaste brand Beausmile has recently teamed up with a non-profit organization that supports a good cause. For every Beausmile toothpaste consumers buy, a portion of the proceeds will go to this cause."

From the following ongoing causes, please rate how compatible you feel each cause would form a partnership with Beausmile toothpaste. Based on a 7-point scale anchored at not compatible at all (1) and very compatible (7).

Statements	**Not Compatible At All**	**Not Compatible**	**Slightly Not Compatible**	**Neither**	**Slightly Compatible**	**Compatible**	**Very Compatible**
Beausmile toothpaste partner with Dental Fund for Orphans is…..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beausmile toothpaste partner with Support for Road Safety is…..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beausmile toothpaste partner with Save the Dolphins is…..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beausmile toothpaste partner with AIDs Trust is…..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

From the following natural disaster causes, please rate how compatible you feel each cause would form a partnership with Beausmile toothpaste.

Statements	**Not Compatible At All**	**Not Compatible**	**Slightly Not Compatible**	**Neither**	**Slightly Compatible**	**Compatible**	**Very Compatible**
Beausmile toothpaste partner with National Flood Relief is…..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beausmile toothpaste partner with Dental Fund for Tsunami Victims is…..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beausmile toothpaste partner with Extreme Weather Relief is…..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Beausmile toothpaste partner with Natural Disaster Recovery Fund is…..	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix 8: Experimental Stimuli/Scenarios

Scenario 1: Cause (ongoing); High Brand-cause Fit

“NND is a company that manufactures toothpaste products. NND’s toothpaste brand Beausmile has carved a reputation for delivering good quality, value-added toothpastes to meet the needs of consumers. The toothpaste brand Beausmile has recently teamed up with Dental Fund for Orphans (a non-profit organization that provides dental care for orphans). For every Beausmile toothpaste consumers buy, a portion of the proceeds will go to this cause”.

Scenario 2: Cause (ongoing); Low Brand-cause Fit

“NND is a company that manufactures toothpaste products. NND’s toothpaste brand Beausmile has carved a reputation for delivering good quality, value-added toothpastes to meet the needs of consumers. The toothpaste brand Beausmile has recently teamed up with Save the Dolphins (a non-profit organization that helps to stop killing dolphins). For every Beausmile toothpaste consumers buy, a portion of the proceeds will go to this cause”.

Scenario 3: Cause (natural disaster); High Brand-cause Fit

“NND is a company that manufactures toothpaste products. NND’s toothpaste brand Beausmile has carved a reputation for delivering good quality, value-added toothpastes to meet the needs of consumers. The toothpaste brand Beausmile has recently teamed up with Dental Fund for Tsunami Victims (a non-profit organization that provides free dental treatment for tsunami victims). For every Beausmile toothpaste consumers buy, a portion of the proceeds will go to this cause”.

Scenario 4: Cause (natural disaster); Low Brand-cause Fit

"NND is a company that manufactures toothpaste products. NND's toothpaste brand Beausmile has carved a reputation for delivering good quality, value-added toothpastes to meet the needs of consumers. The toothpaste brand Beausmile has recently teamed up with Extreme Weather Relief (a non-profit organization that provides help for victims who suffer from extreme weather conditions). For every Beausmile toothpaste consumers buy, a portion of the proceeds will go to this cause".

Appendix 9: Questionnaire

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Consumer Opinion Survey

This survey is part of Huijing Christine Zhang's doctoral research at the University of Salford, it concers consumer attitudes to cause-related marketing (CRM) practices. Your opinion is very important to this research and I would be very grateful if you will participate by completing this questionnaire.

The questionnaire should take around 15/20 minutes to complete. Participation to the survey is voluntary and your responses will be treated in strictest confidence; you may withdraw from the survey at any time.

ALL COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRES WILL BE ENTERED TO A PRIZE DRAW OF £ 100.00 !!!

Thank you in advance for your help with this study. Should you have any questions regarding the survey, please contact Huijing Christine Zhang on 07946470619 or email h.zhang3@edu.salford.ac.uk.

IMPORTANT Note: You may find that some statements in the questions appear similar, this is intentional and it is important that you answer all the questions even if they seem repetitious.

Please READ the 'scenario' description hereafter BEFORE answering the questions.

"NND is a company that manufactures toothpaste products. NND's toothpaste brand Beausmile has carved a reputation for delivering good quality, value-added toothpastes to meet the needs of consumers. The toothpaste brand Beausmile has recently teamed up with Dental Fund for Orphans (a non-profit organization that provides dental care for orphans). For every Beausmile toothpaste consumers buy, a portion of the proceeds will go to this cause".

Section One: Perceived Motives

Please indicate your level of disagreement/agreement with each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate option on the scale below.

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.Company NND have a long-term interest in society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Company NND feels morally obligated to help Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. The owners and employees of NND believe in the cause Dental Fund for Orphans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4 Company NND want to make it easier for consumers who care about Dental Fund or Orphans to support it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Company NND are trying to giving something back to the community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Company NND is taking advantage of the Dental Fund for Orphans to help their own business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Company NND is taking advantage of the cause (i.e., Beausmile toothpaste that supports Dental Fund for Orphas) to help their own business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Company NND support Dental Fund for Orphans as a tax write-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

off.							
9. Company NND wants to get publicity by supporting Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Company NND feels their customers expect it to support Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Company NND feels society in general expects it to support Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Company NND feels their stakeholders expect it to support Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Company NND feels their employees expects it to support Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Company NND will get more customers by supporting Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Company NND will keep more of their customers by supporting Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Company NND hopes to increase profits by supporting Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section Two: Opinion about NND's CRM Practice

Please indicate your level of disagreement/agreement with each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate option on the scale below.

Statements	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neither**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
17. I believe that NND has little regard for meeting consumers' needs while supporting Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I believe that NND support Dental Fund for Orphans for its own benefits only.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I question NND's motives for supporting Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I believe that NND pretends to care more about consumers and orphans than they really do in order to get consumers into the their products.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I believe that NND misrepresents information, by supporting Dental Fund for Orphans, in order to persuade consumers to purchase Beausmile toothpaste.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I believe that NND only pretends to care about its consumers in order to gain profit from selling Beausmile toothpaste that supports Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

<u>Section Three:</u> <u>Purchase Intention</u>

Please indicate your level of disagreement/agreement with each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate option on the scale below.

Statements	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neither**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
23. I would consider purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section Four: Consumer Belief in Ability to Achieve a Goal or Outcome

Please indicate your level of disagreement/agreement with each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate option on the scale below.

Statements	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neither**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
24. I feel that by purchasing cause-related products I can make a difference.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. I feel that I have a pretty good understanding of the important charitable issues facing our society.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Purchasing cause-related products gives people an effective way to help charitable activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section Five: Protest Behaviour

Please indicate your level of disagreement/agreement with each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate option on the scale below.

If a portion of the proceeds of Beausmile toothpaste didn't go to the worthy cause (Dental Fund for Orphans), I would ……..							
Statements	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neither**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
27. Participate in boycotting NND.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Blog against NND.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Participate in picketing NND.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Participate in actions of resistance against NND (e.g., try to stop NND from selling its products).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. Support legal actions against NND.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. Join collective movements against NND.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. Complain to NND.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Now think of a friend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices, then answer the questions from section six to section twelve.

Section Six: Consumer Cynicism towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste

Each question in this section refers to YOUR level of cynicism towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste as a sign of support for Dental Fund for Orphans.

Please indicate your view on the **level of desirability** of each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate option on the scale below.

Having cynicism towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans is							
34	Extremely Undesirable	Quite Undesirable	Slightly Undesirable	Neither	Slightly Desirable	Quite Desirable	Extremely Desirable
35	Extremely Useless	Quite Useless	Slightly Useless	Neither	Slightly Useful	Quite Useful	Extremely Useful
36	Extremely Unimportant	Quite Unimportant	Slightly Unimportant	Neither	Slightly Important	Quite Important	Extremely Important
37	Extremely Bad	Quite Bad	Slightly Bad	Neither	Slightly Good	Quite Good	Extremely Good
38	Extremely Unpleasant	Quite Unpleasant	Slightly Unpleasant	Neither	Slightly Pleasant	Quite Pleasant	Extremely Pleasant
39	Extremely Unfair	Quite Unfair	Slightly Unfair	Neither	Slightly Fair	Quite Fair	Extremely Fair

Section Seven: Subjective Norm

Statements	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neither**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
40. Most people who are important to my friend think that he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. It is expected of my friend that he/she is cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Orphans.							
42. Most people who are important to my friend is cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section Eight: Perceived Behavioural Control

Statements	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neither**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
43. If my friend wants, he/she could refrain from being cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. It is entirely up to my friend whether or not he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. My friend has total control over whether or not he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section Nine: Behavioural Beliefs.

Please, read this definition: Consumer cynicism is characterised by a disbelief in a firm's underlying motives for using cause-related marketing as a marketing practice.

Please indicate your level of disagreement/agreement with each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate option on the scale below.

Your friend's cynicism towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste, which supports Dental Fund for Orphans, would ……							
Statements	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neither**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
46. Avoid him/her being let down by NND's deceptive behaviour.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47. Avoid him/her being manipulated by NND's CRM practices.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48.Encourage NND to deliver what they promise to support Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. Cause him/her missing out helping Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section Ten: Outcome evaluation of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products.

Please indicate your view on the **level of desirability** of each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate option on the scale below.

Statements	**Extremely Undesirable**	**Quite Undesirable**	**Slightly Undesirable**	**Neither**	**Slightly Desirable**	**Quite Desirable**	**Extremely Desirable**
50. To avoid being let down by NND's deceptive behaviour, my friend's cynicism towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans is …	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. To avoid being manipulated by NND, my friend's cynicism towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans is …	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. To encourage NND to delivery what they promise to support Dental Fund for Orphans, my friend's cynicism towards purchasing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Beausmile toothpaste is …							
53. The outcome of my friend missing out helping Dental Fund for Orphans due to his/her cynicism is …	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

<u>Section Eleven:</u> <u>Normative Beliefs and Motivation to Comply</u>
Please indicate your level of disagreement/agreement with each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate option on the scale below.

Statements	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neither**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
54. Close friends of my friend think he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. Family of my friend think he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. Colleagues/co-workers of my friend think he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. Members of the community of my friend think he/she should be cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. With respect to being cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans, my friend wants to do what his/her close friends think he/she should do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. With respect to being cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Orphans, my friend wants to do what his/her family think he/she should do.							
60. With respect to being cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans, my friend wants to do what his/her colleagues/co-workers think he/she should do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61. With respect to being cynical towards purchasing Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans, my friend wants to do what members of the community think he/she should do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section Twelve: Control Beliefs

Please indicate your level of disagreement/agreement with each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate option on the scale below.

Statements	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neither**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
62. My friend has little trust in NND supporting Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63. My friend believes that NND's support for Dental Fund for Orphans is purely driven by profits.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64. My friend would feel guilty if he/she could not contribute to Dental Fund for Orphans if he/she didn't purchase Beausmile toothpaste.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65. Lack of trust for NND's involvement in supporting Dental Fund for Orphans makes my friend become cynical about purchasing Beausmile toothpaste.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

66. Beliefs that NND's support for Dental Fund for Orphans are purely driven by profits make my friend become cynical about purchasing Beausmile toothpaste.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67. The guilty feeling for not contributing to Dental Fund for Orphans prevents my friend from exercise his/her cynicism about purchasing Beausmile toothpaste.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

<u>**Section Thirteen**: Purchase Intention</u>

<u>**Think again of a frend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices**</u>.

Please indicate your level of disagreement/agreement with each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate option on the scale below.

Statements	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neither**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
68. I think my friend will try to purchase Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
69. I think my friend intends to purchase Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
70. I think my friend plans to purchase Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

<u>Section Fourteen</u><u>: Purchase Behaviour</u>

<u>Think again of a frend of the same sex as yourself who is cynical about CRM practices</u>.

Please indicate your level of disagreement/agreement with each of the following statements by ticking the appropriate option on the scale below.

Statements	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Neither**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
71. My friend would purchase Beausmile toothpaste which supports Dental Fund for Orphans in the near future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section Fifteen: About you

Please provide a few details about yourself, which will provide a more meaningful interpretation of the results.

1. What is your age group?

18 -- 24	
25 -- 34	
35 -- 44	
45 -- 54	

2. Gender?

Male		Female	

3. What is the course of your study?

4. What is your ethnicity?

White	English/Welsh/Scottish/Northern Irish/British	
	Irish	
	Gypsy or Irish Traveller	
	Other White	
Mixed/Multiple Ethnic Groups	White and Black Caribbean	
	White and Black African	
	White and Asian	
	Other Mixed	
Asian/Asian British	Indian	
	Pakistani	
	Bangladeshi	
	Chinese	
	Other Asian	
Black/African/ Caribbean/ Black British	African	
	Caribbean	
	Other Black	
Other Ethnic Group	Arab	
	Any other Ethnic Group	

Prize Draw
If you wish to participate in the prize draw of £ 100.00, please, indicate below either your telephone number or your email address **clearly written**, in order to be contacted in case of winning.

The End. Thank you very much for your kind cooperation!

University of Salford MANCHESTER

Appendix 10 Consent Form for Questionnaires

Salford Business School

Consent Form for Questionnaires

I have read the information above and understand what I am required to do. I am aware that my anonymity has been guaranteed and that I may withdraw at any point in the survey without penalty. I fully consent to my participation.

Signature:

Date:

N.B. This survey consent form will be stored separately from the completed questionnaire in a secure location.

University of Salford MANCHESTER

Appendix 11: Ethical Approval

Salford Business School

College of Arts & Social Sciences

Room 626 Maxwell Building

The Crescent Salford, M5 4WT

Tel: 0161 295 5876

30 April 2013

Huijing Christine Zhang
University of Salford

Dear Christine

Re: Ethical Approval Application – CASS120018

I am pleased to inform you that based on the information provided, the Research Ethics Panel have no objections on ethical grounds to your project.

Yours sincerely

Deborah Woodman
On Behalf of CASS Research Ethics Panel

Appendix 12: Missing Data

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Missing	
				Count	Percent
CPMF1	408	3.76	1.664	0	.0
CPMF2	408	4.80	1.545	0	.0
CPMF3	407	4.64	1.610	1	.2
CPMF4	408	5.05	1.536	0	.0
CPMF5	406	4.94	1.804	2	.5
CPMF6	407	3.62	1.695	1	.2
CPMF7	408	3.43	1.874	0	.0
CPMF8	408	3.27	1.983	0	.0
CPMF9	408	5.09	1.357	0	.0
CPMF10	408	4.78	1.602	0	.0
CPMF11	406	4.96	1.427	2	.5
CPMF12	408	4.99	1.590	0	.0
CPMF13	408	4.72	1.682	0	.0
CPMF14	408	5.04	1.830	0	.0
CPMF15	408	4.82	1.649	0	.0
CPMF16	408	5.89	.735	0	.0
CYS17	408	3.53	1.752	0	.0
CYS18	408	3.42	1.966	0	.0
CYS19	408	3.76	1.794	0	.0
CYS20	408	3.39	1.807	0	.0
CYS21	408	3.20	1.808	0	.0
CYS22	408	3.18	1.730	0	.0
PI23	408	4.66	1.586	0	.0
SES24	408	6.22	.819	0	.0
SES25	408	5.56	.865	0	.0
SES26	408	6.32	.816	0	.0
PB27	408	5.75	.960	0	.0
PB28	408	2.98	1.417	0	.0
PB29	408	5.28	1.247	0	.0
PB30	408	5.72	.827	0	.0
PB31	408	5.88	.862	0	.0
PB32	408	5.77	.827	0	.0
PB33	408	6.07	.799	0	.0
CYSDM34	408	3.22	1.818	0	.0
CYSDM35	408	3.46	1.887	0	.0

CYSDM36	408	3.14	1.746	0	.0
CYSDM37	408	3.50	2.022	0	.0
CYSDM38	407	3.36	1.713	1	.2
CYSDM39	407	3.57	2.082	1	.2
SN40	407	3.09	1.780	1	.2
SN41	408	3.35	1.852	0	.0
SN42	408	3.50	1.832	0	.0
PBC43	407	6.29	.726	1	.2
PBC44	408	6.32	.689	0	.0
PBC45	408	6.36	.757	0	.0
BB46	408	4.85	1.800	0	.0
BB47	408	4.86	1.774	0	.0
BB48	408	3.94	1.747	0	.0
BB49	408	4.94	1.725	0	.0
OE50	408	3.39	1.771	0	.0
OE51	408	4.03	1.907	0	.0
OE52	408	2.44	.815	0	.0
OE53	408	3.07	1.797	0	.0
NB54	408	3.17	1.734	0	.0
NB55	408	3.07	1.809	0	.0
NB56	408	2.99	1.876	0	.0
NB57	408	2.90	1.773	0	.0
MC58	408	1.99	.755	0	.0
MC59	408	1.99	.779	0	.0
MC60	408	1.91	.790	0	.0
MC61	407	1.83	.802	1	.2
CB62	408	3.43	1.736	0	.0
CB63	408	3.22	1.876	0	.0
CB64	408	4.76	1.719	0	.0
PP65	408	4.92	1.827	0	.0
PP66	408	4.86	1.823	0	.0
PP67	408	4.93	1.751	0	.0
PIT68	408	4.57	1.696	0	.0
PIT69	408	4.53	1.656	0	.0
PIT70	408	4.24	1.665	0	.0
PBT71	408	4.20	1.754	0	.0

Appendix 13: Cronbach Alpha if Item deleted

Table 1. Strategic-driven motives

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
CPMF14 Strategic	10.71	3.632	.791	.205
CPMF15 Strategic	10.93	4.297	.803	.189
CPMF16 Strategic	9.86	11.184	.158	.915

Table 2. Self-efficacy

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SES24 self-efficacy	11.89	1.825	.633	.450
SES25 self-efficacy	12.54	2.092	.422	.721
SES26 self-efficacy	11.78	2.064	.497	.626

Table 3. Protest Behaviour

Item-Total Statistics				
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
PB27 protest behaviour	31.69	14.799	.413	.688
PB28 protest behaviour	34.46	13.846	.276	.747
PB29 protest behaviour	32.16	12.934	.477	.673
PB30 protest behaviour	31.72	14.670	.539	.664
PB31 protest behaviour	31.56	14.276	.575	.654
PB32 protest behaviour	31.67	14.861	.506	.671
PB33 protest behaviour	31.37	15.688	.385	.695

Strengths of behaviour beliefs

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
BB46 Strength of Behaviour Beliefs	13.74	15.410	.670	.607
BB47 Strength of Behaviour Beliefs	13.73	16.226	.612	.643
BB48 Strength of Behaviour Beliefs	14.66	15.537	.692	.596
BB49 Strength of Behaviour Beliefs	13.65	21.481	.229	.841

Appendix 14: Descriptive statistics (Skewness and Kurtosis)

Items	No	Mean	Std.Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std.Error	Statistic	Std.Error
CPMF1 value	408	3.76	1.664	-2.47	.121	-1.145	.241
CPMF2 value	408	4.80	1.545	-.764	.121	-.322	.241
CPMF3 value	408	4.64	1.608	-.412	.121	-.670	.241
CPMF4 value	408	5.05	1.536	-741	.121	-.099	.241
CPMF5 egoistic	408	4.95	1.806	-.797	.121	-.467	.241
CPMF6 egoistic	408	3.62	1.694	.550	.121	-.699	.241
CPMF7 egoistic	408	3.43	1.874	.687	.121	-.798	.241
CPMF8 egoistic	408	3.27	1.983	.624	.121	.906	.241
CPMF9 egoistic	408	5.09	1.357	-.912	.121	.467	.241
CPMF10 Stakeholder	408	4.78	1.424	-.885	.121	.184	.241
CPMF11 Stakeholder	408	4.96	1.424	-.885	.121	.184	.241
CPMF12 Stakeholder	408	4.99	1.590	-.1.004	.121	.110	.241
CPMF13 Stakeholder	408	4.72	1.682	-.589	.121	-.510	.241
CPMF14 Strategic	408	5.04	1.830	-.880	.121	-.427	.241
CPMF15 Strategic	408	4.82	1.649	-.907	.121	-381	.241
CPMF16 Strategic	408	5.89	.735	.176	.121	-1.134	.241
CYS17	408	3.72	1.799	.212	.121	-1.203	.241
CYS18	408	3.76	2.077	.236	.121	-1.567	.241
CYS19	408	3.74	1.702	.397	.121	-.829	.241

CYS20	408	3.26	1.868	.873	.121	-.709	.241
CYS21	408	2.95	1.965	1.065	.121	.778	.241
CYS22	408	3.13	1.749	.877	.121	-.663	.241
PI23	408	4.66	1.586	-.506	.121	-.673	.241
SES24	408	6.22	.819	-.713	.121	.324	.241
SES25	408	5.56	.865	-1.458	.121	1.619	.241
SES26	408	6.32	.826	-.985	.121	.278	.241
PB27	408	5.75	.960	-1.151	.121	2.569	.241
PB28	408	2.98	1.247	.486	.121	-.461	.241
PB29	408	5.28	1.247	-.906	.121	.593	.241
PB30	408	5.72	.827	-.437	.121	.915	.241
PB31	408	5.88	.862	-.611	.121	1.078	.241
PB32	408	5.77	.827	-.282	.121	.340	.241
PB33	408	6.07	.799	-.211	.121	-1.174	.241
CYSDM34	408	3.22	3.305	.735	.121	-.631	.241
CYSDM35	408	3.46	1.887	.522	.121	-1.202	.241
CYSDM36	408	3.14	1.746	.810	.121	-.427	.241
CYSDM37	408	3.50	4.088	.488	.121	-1.260	.241
CYSDM38	408	3.37	1.721	.437	.121	-1.038	.241
CYSDM39	408	3.58	2.080	.543	.121	-1.241	.241
SN40	408	3.10	1.788	.844	.121	-.539	.241
SN41	408	3.35	1.852	.812	.121	-.676	.241
SN42	408	3.50	1.832	.642	.121	-.828	.241
PBC43	408	6.29	.726	-.663	.121	-.068	.241
PBC44	408	.632	.689	-.524	.121	-.811	.241
PBC45	408	6.36	.757	-.899	.121	.179	.241
BB46	408	4.85	1.800	-.761	.121	-.769	.241
BB47	408	4.86	1.774	-.707	.121	-.848	.241
BB48	408	3.94	1.747	.049	.121	-1.333	.241

BB49	408	4.94	1.725	.968	.121	.256	.241
OE50	408	3.39	1.771	.728	.121	-.525	.241
OE51	408	4.03	1.907	-.046	.121	-1.403	.241
OE52	408	2.44	.815	.677	.121	1.590	.241
OE53	408	3.07	1.797	.865	.121	-.496	.241
NB54	408	3.17	1.734	.862	.121	-.462	.241
NB55	408	3.07	1.809	.806	.121	-.596	.241
NB56	408	2.99	1.876	.832	.121	-.590	.241
NB57	408	2.90	1.773	.930	.121	-.438	.241
MC58	408	1.99	.755	.128	.121	-.956	.241
MC59	408	1.99	.779	.115	.121	-1.099	.241
MC60	408	1.91	.790	.274	.121	-1.021	.241
MC61	408	1.83	.803	.368	.121	-1.194	.241
CB62	408	3.43	1.736	.768	.121	-.709	.241
CB63	408	3.22	1.876	.863	.121	-.613	.241
CB64	408	4.76	1.719	-.691	.121	-.646	.241
PP65	408	4.92	1.827	-.680	.121	-.1.050	.241
PP66	408	4.86	1.823	-.664	.121	-1.059	.241
PP67	408	4.93	1.751	-.860	.121	-.437	.241
PIT68	408	4.57	1.696	-.742	.121	-.573	.241
PIT69	408	4.53	1.656	-.754	.121	-.460	.241
PIT70	408	4.24	1.665	-.665	.121	-.625	.241
PBT71	408	4.20	1.754	-.574	.121	-.884	.241

Valid N (list wise): 408

Notes: CPMF--consumer perceived motives; CYS--consumer cynicism; PI—purchase intention; SES--self-efficacy; PB--protest behaviour; CYSDM—cynicism direct (i.e., direct measure of consumer cynicism towards purchasing CRM products) measure; SN—subjective norm; PBC—perceived behaviour control; BB—behaviour beliefs; OE—outcome evaluation; NB—normative beliefs; MC—motivation to comply; CB—control beliefs; PP—perceived power; PIT—purchase intention (TPB); PBT71—purchase behaviourTPB.

Appendix 15: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilks

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
CPMF1 value	.195	408	.000	.908	408	.000
CPMF2 value	.256	408	.000	.882	408	.000
CPMF3 value	.182	408	.000	.929	408	.000
CPMF4 value	.239	408	.000	.890	408	.000
CPMF5 value	.251	408	.000	.862	408	.000
CPMF6 Egoistic	.213	408	.000	.907	408	.000
CPMF7 Egoistic	.231	408	.000	.865	408	.000
CPMF8 Egoistic	.205	408	.000	.871	408	.000
CPMF9 Egoistic	.270	408	.000	.866	408	.000
CPMF10 Stakeholder	.231	408	.000	.901	408	.000
CPMF11 Stakeholder	.263	408	.000	.876	408	.000
CPMF12 Stakeholder	.265	408	.000	.846	408	.000
CPMF13 Stakeholder	.195	408	.000	.914	408	.000
CPMF14 Strategic	.241	408	.000	.842	408	.000
CPMF15 Strategic	.294	408	.000	.827	408	.000
CPMF16 Strategic	.229	408	.000	.805	408	.000
CYS17	.191	408	.000	.909	408	.000
CYS18	.232	408	.000	.842	408	.000
CYS19	.159	408	.000	.920	408	.000
CYS20	.292	408	.000	.797	408	.000
CYS21	.239	408	.000	.836	408	.000
CYS22	.291	408	.000	.800	408	.000
PI23	.247	408	.000	.907	408	.000
SES24	.279	408	.000	.783	408	.000
SES25	.338	408	.000	.775	408	.000
SES26	.316	408	.000	.765	408	.000
PB27	.261	408	.000	.824	408	.000
PB28	.189	408	.000	.920	408	.000
PB29	.225	408	.000	.881	408	.000
PB30	.243	408	.000	.852	408	.000
PB31	.237	408	.000	.850	408	.000
PB32	.230	408	.000	.856	408	.000
PB33	.226	408	.000	.818	408	.000
CYSDM34	.270	408	.000	.862	408	.000
CYSDM35	.251	408	.000	.849	408	.000
CYSDM36	.264	408	.000	.863	408	.000

CYSDM37	.244	408	.000	.851	408	.000
CYSDM38	.222	408	.000	.887	408	.000
CYSDM39	.254	408	.000	.838	408	.000
SN40	.253	408	.000	.841	408	.000
SN41	.275	408	.000	.835	408	.000
SN42	.217	408	.000	.875	408	.000
PBC43	.279	408	.000	.781	408	.000
PBC44	.288	408	.000	.771	408	.000
PBC45	.317	408	.000	.760	408	.000
BB46	.258	408	.000	.837	408	.000
BB47	.247	408	.000	.844	408	.000
BB48	.197	408	.000	.904	408	.000
BB49	.258	408	.000	.826	408	.000
OE50	.288	408	.000	.870	408	.000
OE51	.186	408	.000	.897	408	.000
OE52	.269	408	.000	.844	408	.000
OE53	.261	408	.000	.838	408	.000
NB54	.267	408	.000	.843	408	.000
NB55	.239	408	.000	.850	408	.000
NB56	.242	408	.000	.839	408	.000
NB57	.290	408	.000	.819	408	.000
MC58	.230	408	.000	.826	408	.000
MC59	.212	408	.000	.825	408	.000
MC60	.224	408	.000	.822	408	.000
MC61	.264	408	.000	.798	408	.000
CB62	.256	408	.000	.845	408	.000
CB63	.285	408	.000	.821	408	.000
CB64	.254	408	.000	.877	408	.000
PP65	.246	408	.000	.800	408	.000
PP66	.258	408	.000	.804	408	.000
PP67	.253	408	.000	.847	408	.000
PIT68	.275	408	.000	.868	408	.000
PIT69	.267	408	.000	.877	408	.000
PIT70	.242	408	.000	.883	408	.000
PBT71	.245	408	.000	.882	408	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Notes: CPMF--consumer perceived motives; CYS--consumer cynicism; PI—purchase intention; SES--self-efficacy; PB--protest behaviour; CYSDM—cynicism direct measure; SN—subjective norm; PBC—perceived behaviour control; BB—behaviour beliefs; OE—outcome evaluation; NB—normative beliefs; MC—motivation to comply; CB—control beliefs; PP—perceived power; PIT—purchase intention (TPB); PBT71—purchase behaviourTPB.

Appendix 16: Post Hoc: Consumer Cynicism

Tukey HSD	high fit ongoing	low fit ongoing	-20.84314*	.49594	.000
		high fit disaster	1.79869*	.49473	.002
		low fit disaster	-2.14123*	.49716	.000
	low fit ongoing	high fit ongoing	20.84314*	.49594	.000
		high fit disaster	22.64182*	.49473	.000
		low fit disaster	18.70190*	.49716	.000
	high fit disaster	high fit ongoing	-1.79869*	.49473	.002
		low fit ongoing	-22.64182*	.49473	.000
		low fit disaster	-3.93992*	.49596	.000
	low fit disaster	high fit ongoing	2.14123*	.49716	.000
		low fit ongoing	-18.70190*	.49716	.000
		high fit disaster	3.93992*	.49596	.000
Scheffe	high fit ongoing	low fit ongoing	-20.84314*	.49594	.000
		high fit disaster	1.79869*	.49473	.005
		low fit disaster	-2.14123*	.49716	.000
	low fit ongoing	high fit ongoing	20.84314*	.49594	.000
		high fit disaster	22.64182*	.49473	.000
		low fit disaster	18.70190*	.49716	.000
	high fit disaster	high fit ongoing	-1.79869*	.49473	.005
		low fit ongoing	-22.64182*	.49473	.000
		low fit disaster	-3.93992*	.49596	.000
	low fit disaster	high fit ongoing	2.14123*	.49716	.000
		low fit ongoing	-18.70190*	.49716	.000
		high fit disaster	3.93992*	.49596	.000
Bonferroni	high fit ongoing	low fit ongoing	-20.84314*	.49594	.000
		high fit disaster	1.79869*	.49473	.002
		low fit disaster	-2.14123*	.49716	.000
	low fit ongoing	high fit ongoing	20.84314*	.49594	.000
		high fit disaster	22.64182*	.49473	.000
		low fit disaster	18.70190*	.49716	.000
	high fit disaster	high fit ongoing	-1.79869*	.49473	.002
		low fit ongoing	-22.64182*	.49473	.000
		low fit disaster	-3.93992*	.49596	.000
	low fit disaster	high fit ongoing	2.14123*	.49716	.000
		low fit ongoing	-18.70190*	.49716	.000
		high fit disaster	3.93992*	.49596	.000

Appendix 17: Moderating Effect of Self-efficacy

Group 1: High Brand-Cause Fit with Ongoing Cause

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

************* PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Release 2.16.3 *****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2013). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model = 1
    Y = PI
    X = CCYS
    M = SELFEFF

Sample size
        101

**************************************************************************
Outcome: PI

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2
p
      .2522      .0636      .8765     2.2687     3.0000
97.0000      .0854

Model
                 coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant      5.1725      .1102    46.9239      .0000     4.9537     5.3912
SELFEFF        .1123      .0665     1.6893      .0944     -.0196      .2443
CCYS         -.0150      .0338     -.4438      .6582     -.0821      .0521
int_1        -.0023      .0130     -.1796      .8578     -.0282      .0235

Product terms key:

 int_1    CCYS        X     SELFEFF

R-square increase due to interaction(s):
         R2-chng          F        df1        df2          p
int_1      .0004      .0323     1.0000    97.0000      .8578

*************************************************************************

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator(s):
    SELFEFF     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI
ULCI
    -1.8740     -.0106      .0490     -.2170      .8286     -
.1078      .0865
      .0000     -.0150      .0338     -.4438      .6582     -
.0821      .0521
     1.8740     -.0194      .0329     -.5898      .5567     -
.0847      .0459

Values for quantitative moderators are the mean and plus/minus one SD from
mean.
```

```
Values for dichotomous moderators are the two values of the moderator.

**************************************************************************

Data for visualizing conditional effect of X on Y
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/CCYS SELFEFF PI.
BEGIN DATA.

    -3.7989    -1.8740     5.0023
      .0000    -1.8740     4.9620
     3.7989    -1.8740     4.9216
    -3.7989      .0000     5.2295
      .0000      .0000     5.1725
     3.7989      .0000     5.1154
    -3.7989     1.8740     5.4566
      .0000     1.8740     5.3829
     3.7989     1.8740     5.3093

END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=CCYS WITH PI BY SELFEFF.

******************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND WARNINGS *************************

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
    95.00

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
 CCYS     SELFEFF

NOTE: All standard errors for continuous outcome models are based on the
HC3 estimator

------ END MATRIX -----
```

Group 2: Low Brand-Cause Fit with Ongoing Cause

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

************* PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Release 2.16.3 *****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2013). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model = 1
    Y = PI
    X = CCYS
    M = SELFEFF

Sample size
        102

**************************************************************************
Outcome: PI
```

```
Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2
p
      .1653      .0273      .5103      .7413     3.0000
98.0000      .5299

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     2.4692      .0793    31.1544      .0000     2.3119     2.6265
SELFEFF      -.0586      .0476    -1.2315      .2211     -.1531      .0358
CCYS         -.0139      .0425     -.3260      .7451     -.0983      .0705
int_1         .0014      .0250      .0567      .9549     -.0482      .0511

Product terms key:

 int_1    CCYS        X     SELFEFF

R-square increase due to interaction(s):
        R2-chng          F        df1        df2          p
int_1      .0001      .0032     1.0000    98.0000      .9549

*************************************************************************

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator(s):
    SELFEFF     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI
ULCI
    -1.7740     -.0164      .0654     -.2503      .8029     -
.1463      .1135
      .0000     -.0139      .0425     -.3260      .7451     -
.0983      .0705
     1.7740     -.0114      .0572     -.1984      .8432     -
.1249      .1022

Values for quantitative moderators are the mean and plus/minus one SD from
mean.
Values for dichotomous moderators are the two values of the moderator.

*************************************************************************

Data for visualizing conditional effect of X on Y
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/CCYS SELFEFF PI.
BEGIN DATA.

    -2.8000    -1.7740     2.6190
      .0000    -1.7740     2.5732
     2.8000    -1.7740     2.5273
    -2.8000      .0000     2.5080
      .0000      .0000     2.4692
     2.8000      .0000     2.4304
    -2.8000     1.7740     2.3970
      .0000     1.7740     2.3652
     2.8000     1.7740     2.3334

END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=CCYS WITH PI BY SELFEFF.

******************* ANALYSIS NOTES AND WARNINGS ************************

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
```

```
    95.00

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
 CCYS     SELFEFF

NOTE: All standard errors for continuous outcome models are based on the
HC3 estimator

------ END MATRIX -----
```

Group 3: High Brand-Cause Fit with Natural Disaster Cause

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

************* PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Release 2.16.3 *****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2013). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model = 1
    Y = PI
    X = CCYS
    M = SELFEFF

Sample size
        103

**************************************************************************
Outcome: PI

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2
p
      .3641      .1326      .7830     3.4471     3.0000
99.0000      .0196

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     5.8617      .1079    54.3374      .0000     5.6476     6.0757
SELFEFF       .2032      .0783     2.5969      .0108      .0479      .3585
CCYS        -.0258      .0332     -.7764      .4394     -.0917      .0401
int_1         .0091      .0248      .3647      .7161     -.0402      .0584

Product terms key:

 int_1    CCYS        X     SELFEFF

R-square increase due to interaction(s):
         R2-chng          F        df1        df2          p
int_1      .0050      .1330     1.0000    99.0000      .7161

*************************************************************************

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator(s):
    SELFEFF     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI
ULCI
```

```
    -1.6627     -.0409      .0672     -.6082      .5445     -
.1742      .0925
      .0000     -.0258      .0332     -.7764      .4394     -
.0917      .0401
     1.6627     -.0107      .0333     -.3227      .7476     -
.0767      .0553

Values for quantitative moderators are the mean and plus/minus one SD from
mean.
Values for dichotomous moderators are the two values of the moderator.

**************************************************************************

Data for visualizing conditional effect of X on Y
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/CCYS SELFEFF PI.
BEGIN DATA.

    -3.9278    -1.6627     5.6843
      .0000    -1.6627     5.5238
     3.9278    -1.6627     5.3632
    -3.9278      .0000     5.9630
      .0000      .0000     5.8617
     3.9278      .0000     5.7603
    -3.9278     1.6627     6.2417
      .0000     1.6627     6.1996
     3.9278     1.6627     6.1574

END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=CCYS WITH PI BY SELFEFF.

******************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND WARNINGS *************************

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
    95.00

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
 CCYS     SELFEFF

NOTE: All standard errors for continuous outcome models are based on the
HC3 estimator

------ END MATRIX -----
```

Group 4: Low Brand-Cause Fit with Natural Disaster Cause

```
Run MATRIX procedure:

************* PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Release 2.16.3 *****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2013). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model = 1
    Y = PI
    X = CCYS
    M = SELFEFF
```

```
Sample size
        101

**************************************************************************
Outcome: PI

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2
p
      .1689      .0285     1.0396      .7990     3.0000
97.0000      .4974

Model
              coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     5.1099      .1030    49.6291      .0000     4.9055     5.3142
SELFEFF       .0396      .0378     1.0468      .2978     -.0355      .1147
CCYS          .0324      .0273     1.1877      .2379     -.0217      .0864
int_1        -.0037      .0142     -.2640      .7923     -.0319      .0244

Product terms key:

 int_1    CCYS        X     SELFEFF

R-square increase due to interaction(s):
        R2-chng          F        df1        df2          p
int_1      .0009      .0697     1.0000    97.0000      .7923

*************************************************************************

Conditional effect of X on Y at values of the moderator(s):
    SELFEFF     Effect         se          t          p       LLCI
ULCI
    -2.3822      .0413      .0508      .8122      .4186     -
.0596      .1422
      .0000      .0324      .0273     1.1877      .2379     -
.0217      .0864
     2.3822      .0234      .0344      .6805      .4978     -
.0449      .0918

Values for quantitative moderators are the mean and plus/minus one SD from
mean.
Values for dichotomous moderators are the two values of the moderator.

**************************************************************************

Data for visualizing conditional effect of X on Y
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/CCYS SELFEFF PI.
BEGIN DATA.

    -4.3363    -2.3822     4.8365
      .0000    -2.3822     5.0156
     4.3363    -2.3822     5.1946
    -4.3363      .0000     4.9695
      .0000      .0000     5.1099
     4.3363      .0000     5.2502
    -4.3363     2.3822     5.1026
      .0000     2.3822     5.2042
     4.3363     2.3822     5.3059
```

```
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=CCYS WITH PI BY SELFEFF.

******************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND WARNINGS *************************

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
    95.00

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
 CCYS     SELFEFF

NOTE: All standard errors for continuous outcome models are based on the
HC3 estimator

------ END MATRIX -----
```

Appendix 18: Levene's Tests

High Brand-Cause Group

Test of Homogeneity of Variances				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PBT71 Purchase Behaviour TPB	.007	1	203	.931
subjective norms	.953	1	203	.330
perceived behaviour control	.004	1	203	.947
strengths of behaviour beliefs	2.236	1	203	.136
outcome evaluation	.055	1	203	.815
strengths of normative beliefs	.598	1	203	.440
motivation to comply	.721	1	203	.397
strengths of control beliefs	2.010	1	203	.158
perceived power	.003	1	203	.955
purchase intention TPB	.234	1	203	.629
behaviour beliefs	.317	1	203	.574
normative beliefs	.100	1	203	.752
control beliefs	3.814	1	203	.052
Cynicism direct	4.456	1	203	.029

High Brand-Cause Group

Test of Homogeneity of Variances				
	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
PBT71 Purchase Behaviour TPB	1.581	1	201	.210
strengths of behaviour beliefs	2.405	1	201	.122
outcome evaluation	1.650	1	201	.200
strengths of normative beliefs	.128	1	201	.721
motivation to comply	.233	1	201	.630
strengths of control beliefs	.826	1	201	.364
perceived power	1.094	1	201	.297
behaviour beliefs	.900	1	201	.344
normative beliefs	1.568	1	201	.212
purchase intentionTPB	.049	1	201	.825
cynicism direct	1.531	1	201	.217
subjective norms	.687	1	201	.408
perceived behavioural control	1.474	1	201	.226

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