

THE INFLUENCE OF CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY EFFORTS ON THE
MORAL BEHAVIOR OF CONSUMERS

by

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ABSTRACT

Little is known about how corporate social responsibility (CSR) efforts affect consumer behavior outcomes that are not ultimately tied back to the firm (e.g., corporate financial performance). This dissertation addresses that gap in the literature by examining the influence of CSR behavior on the moral behavior of consumers. Findings from this dissertation demonstrate that some consumers vicariously balance their moral behavior against a brand's CSR efforts. For instance, I show that a brand's more socially responsible behavior can *negatively* influence the moral behavior of consumers (i.e., vicarious moral licensing effect) while a brand's less socially responsible behavior can *positively* influence the moral behavior of consumers (i.e., vicarious moral cleansing effect). However, these effects are limited to those consumers who have extended their psychological self to a brand conducting the CSR efforts.

A series of five studies tests the proposed vicarious moral balancing effect, highlights boundary conditions of this effect, and demonstrates the process by which the vicarious moral licensing effect occurs. Study 1 demonstrates the vicarious moral balancing effect in the generosity behavior of consumers while study 2 extends these effects to the cheating behavior of consumers. Studies 3 and 4 find that making consumers more mindful of their moral decision making and behavior eliminates and even reverses earlier findings showing the negative influence of CSR behavior on the moral behavior of consumers. Study 5 demonstrates a potential process explanation for the vicarious moral licensing effect by showing that CSR behavior framed as goal commitment *increases* positive moral consumer behavior while CSR behavior framed as goal progress *decreases* positive moral consumer behavior. Implications, contributions, and limitations of these findings and directions for future areas of research are discussed.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The use of corporate social responsibility (CSR) is now a mainstream strategic and normative tool that affects how businesses operate. In fact, it is difficult to find a company that *does not* participate in any type of socially responsible business practice. For instance, starting in 2014, certain companies in India will be forced to spend 2% of their average profits from the prior three years on CSR efforts (Banerjee 2013). Microsoft spends around \$900 million annually on corporate social responsibility efforts and reached a milestone in 2013 by donating \$1 billion in employee contributions and Microsoft matching gifts over the past 30 years (Microsoft 2013). Additionally, Google has donated over \$353 million in grants, \$3 billion in free ads, apps, and products, and Google employees have volunteered over 150,000 hours in company time to support non-profits (Smith 2013). The question remains – Does all this CSR spending benefit firms financially and in other ways?

Many academic and non-academic sources agree that CSR efforts are beneficial, especially when they influence corporate reputation and identification with the firm. For instance, due to their CSR efforts, Google and Microsoft have among the top CSR reputations based on 100,000 interviews with consumers across 15 markets covering 75% of the global GDP (Reputation Institute 2013). This increased CSR reputation, according to Reputation Institute, accounts for 60% of the weight placed on a consumer's willingness to buy, recommend, work for, and invest in a company. Additionally, Lii and Lee (2012) find that CSR reputation moderates the relationship between CSR efforts and brand attitude and identification with the company. Specifically, CSR efforts significantly increases brand attitudes and identification with the company for companies with a high vs. low CSR reputation. Further research shows

that increased CSR reputation leads to more favorable evaluations of companies (Sen and Bhattacharya 2001) and their products (Brown and Dacin 1997) as well as increased customer loyalty to the firm (Maignan, Ferrell, and Hult 1999). Additional benefits of CSR efforts include a positive relationship with corporate financial performance (Orlitzky, Schmidt, and Rynes 2003), protection from negative information about the firm (Klein and Dawar 2004; Eisingerich et al. 2011), and the ability to extract price premiums (Bhattacharya and Sen 2004). In summary, the business case to support the use of CSR efforts is generally strong and clear.

The consumer case to support the use of CSR is less clear due to the overwhelming research focus on firm-centric outcomes of CSR behavior such as loyalty to the firm, company evaluations of the firm, and identification with the firm. These measures are clearly important, but there is a large gap in the literature that has not addressed the basic question of whether CSR efforts are good for consumers. Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) proposed that CSR efforts might increase consumer well-being, but research has yet to establish this. In fact, a review of CSR literature, based on 588 journal articles and 102 books and book chapters, made no mention of consumer-centric outcomes of CSR efforts such as consumer well-being (Aguinis and Glavas 2012).

This dissertation will address that gap in the literature by demonstrating how the corporate social responsibility efforts of a brand influence the moral behavior of consumers and in what direction. In other words, does a brand's socially responsible or irresponsible behavior positively influence or negatively influence the moral behavior of consumers? I propose that certain consumers vicariously balance their moral behavior against the CSR behavior of a brand. Specifically, I propose that a brand's more socially responsible behavior can *negatively* influence the moral behavior of consumers while a brand's less socially responsible behavior can *positively*

influence the moral behavior of consumers. However, this vicarious moral balancing effect should only occur for individuals who have formed a psychologically close relationship with the brand sponsoring the CSR efforts. Specifically, for individuals who have expanded their self to include a psychologically close brand, I propose that the more or less socially responsible behavior of that brand becomes a signal of personal progress toward the goal of being a moral person. Subsequently, *insufficient* moral goal progress, as indicated by *less* socially responsible CSR behavior, should motivate consumers to vicariously balance or cleanse their moral behavior (i.e., by increasing moral behaviors). Additionally, *sufficient* moral goal progress, as indicated by *more* socially responsible CSR behavior, should allow consumers to vicariously balance or license their moral behavior (i.e., by decreasing moral behaviors).

In this dissertation, I will present five studies to demonstrate the vicarious moral balancing effect between consumers and brands, boundary conditions of this effect, and the process by which the vicarious moral licensing effect occurs. I will provide a brief overview of the purpose and main findings of these studies.

The purpose of study 1 is to formally test the influence of CSR efforts on consumers' level of generosity, which is considered a typical example of positive moral consumer behavior. Findings from study 1 demonstrate the proposed vicarious moral balancing effect, but only for those participants with a psychologically close relationship with the brand sponsoring the CSR efforts. The purpose of study 2 is to extend the vicarious moral balancing effect to consumer's level of cheating, which is a typical example of negative moral consumer behavior. Findings from study 2 replicate the vicarious moral balancing effect to the cheating behavior of those participants with a close relationship to the CSR brand.

The next two studies introduce boundary conditions of the vicarious moral balance effect in order to address findings from studies 1 and 2, which demonstrate the potential negative influence of CSR efforts on the moral behavior of consumers. Specifically, the purpose of studies 3 and 4 is to introduce two methods designed to address the scenario in which a brand's more socially responsible behavior *negatively* influences the moral behavior of consumers (i.e., vicarious moral licensing effect). Findings from study 3 reveal that making consumers more mindful of their moral decision making process can eliminate the vicarious moral licensing effect for those participants with a close relationship to the CSR brand. Findings from study 4 reveal that inducing a sense of hypocrisy by highlighting participants' personal failure to conduct an advocated CSR behavior is an additional method to eliminate the vicarious moral licensing effect for those participants with a close relationship to the CSR brand.

The purpose of study 5 is to formally test the process by which the vicarious moral licensing effect occurs and to provide a third method that eliminates the potential negative effects of CSR efforts on the moral behavior of consumers. Findings from study 5 show that framing CSR behavior as goal progress *decreases* levels of generosity while framing CSR behavior as goal commitment *increases* levels of generosity for those participants with a close relationship to the CSR brand. These findings suggest that emphasizing goal commitment is an additional method to eliminate the potential negative influence of CSR efforts on the moral behavior of consumers.

Overall, this dissertation makes several contributions to the marketing literature. One, to my knowledge, this research is the first to discover that CSR efforts affect the moral behavior of consumers. The central finding that CSR efforts can have a negative influence on consumers is surprising and raises the importance of studying consumer-level outcomes of CSR behavior.

Two, this dissertation provides three potential methods to address the negative externalities associated with CSR efforts. Three, this dissertation extends literature on brands to highlight the potential negative consequences of close brand relationships. Four, this dissertation provides evidence for vicarious moral self-regulation and extends literature on moral balancing to the vicarious moral balancing that occurs between consumers and psychologically close brands. Five, this dissertation suggests future research to further understand the relationship between CSR and the moral behaviors of consumers.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This dissertation focuses on how a brand's corporate social responsibility efforts can vicariously influence the moral behavior of consumers. To make the case that this effect occurs, I define moral behavior, provide a historical perspective to help define corporate social responsibility and its influence on consumers, introduce moral balancing, and then draw on goal regulation literature in order to propose the underlying process by which the vicarious moral balancing effect occurs. Together, the following sections will address how individuals balance their moral behaviors, how that moral balance might be influenced by the corporate social responsibility behavior of brands, and what mechanism might drive the vicarious moral balancing effect between consumers and brands.

Defining Moral Behavior

The topic of morality is vast and spans centuries. Ancient philosophers, like Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle dedicated their lives to espousing the appreciation and practice of morality. Academics have spent their careers trying to understand what influences people to make moral decisions. I, in no way, intend to make morality and its vast literature as the main focus of my dissertation. I am more concerned about using a more general definition of moral behavior that incorporates how consumers categorize a broad set of behaviors as being more moral or less moral.

Positive Moral Consumer Behavior. There is a wide range of behaviors that can be considered moral. Precisely defining what moral behaviors are is difficult because other terms,

like altruism, prosocial behavior, virtuous behaviors, and ethicality are often used to describe the same type of behavior. To avoid confusion, I will use a more general definition of moral behavior. I will refer to behaviors like charitable giving (e.g., Sachdeva, Iliev, and Medin 2009), sustainable behavior (e.g., Mazar and Zhong 2010), and volunteering (e.g., Jordan, Mullen, and Murnighan 2011) as ‘positive moral consumer behaviors’ to indicate that these behaviors 1) are more valued by society; 2) increase the welfare of others; and 3) involve giving up some personal resource.

Negative Moral Consumer Behavior. At the same time, defining what less moral behaviors are is also difficult because other terms, like antisocial behaviors, immoral behaviors, and unethical behaviors are often used interchangeably to describe the same type of behavior. However, I am hesitant to use terms like immoral or antisocial as they may contain associations of evil, which holds greater negative valance than what is desired for the purposes of this dissertation. Instead, I will refer to behaviors like cheating or stealing (e.g., Mazar and Zhong 2010) or selfishness (e.g., Zitek et al. 2010) as ‘negative moral consumer behaviors’ to indicate that these behaviors 1) are less valued by society; 2) decrease or do not increase the welfare of others; and 3) do not involve giving up some personal resource (and may sometimes involve actually taking away resources from others).

In summary, in this dissertation, moral consumer behavior will be classified as ‘positive moral consumer behavior’ or ‘negative moral consumer behavior’ in order to highlight the continuum and direction by which these behaviors are viewed that largely avoids connotations of good vs. evil.

Corporate Social Responsibility

The term corporate social responsibility (CSR), like moral behavior, is confusing because it is also called corporate conscience, corporate citizenship, social performance, sustainably responsible business, triple-bottom line, corporate philanthropy, and corporate ethics. Additionally, there seems to be an endless number of definitions for corporate social responsibility that arise from a variety of academic and non-academic sources. For instance, many academics refer to CSR as a company's activities and status related to its perceived societal or stakeholder obligations (Brown and Dacin 1997). Yet, this definition does not address a controversial topic within the CSR literature – what are a company's perceived societal or stakeholder obligations?

The Role of CSR and Business in Society. Part of the confusion of what CSR is may stem from an ongoing debate about its role and the role of business in society that has evolved from a purely economic or shareholder perspective to a more integrative perspective in which social and economic goals align.

Individuals such as Milton Friedman (1970) espouse a more economic or shareholder perspective in which the role of a firm is to make as much money as possible for shareholders. According to this view, any firm that conducts CSR solely to address societal concerns is spending money that belongs to the shareholders that own the firm. Therefore, Friedman places the role of social responsibility on the individual whom can donate their own time or money if they so desire.

The shareholder view of CSR gradually evolved to a stakeholder view of CSR (Freeman 1984). According to stakeholder theory, a firm is beholden to the interests of internal stakeholders (e.g., employees, managers, and owners) and external stakeholders (e.g., society, customers, and government). Accordingly, each party has its own interests and those interests must be negotiated so that every stakeholder is appropriately represented. The difficulty of such an approach is that stakeholders are likely to hold contradictory interests. Therefore, the firm still might have to prioritize stakeholder interests.

Later models of CSR addressed the issue of competing stakeholder interests by creating a hierarchy of roles or responsibilities that a business must uphold. For instance, Carroll (1991) proposed four components of CSR and developed a pyramid to depict them. At the bottom of the CSR pyramid lie economic responsibilities including maximizing earnings per share, committing to profit, maintaining a strong competitive position, and operating efficiently (Carroll 1991). The economic portion is at the base of the pyramid as Carroll maintains that all other roles and responsibilities of a firm become moot if a firm cannot meet its economic responsibilities. In addition, a firm also must meet their legal responsibilities including acting in a manner consistent with the expectations of government and law, complying with various regulations, fulfilling its legal obligations, and providing goods and services that meet minimal legal requirements. A firm also must meet ethical responsibilities including following societal mores and ethical norms, respecting evolving social norms, and preventing these norms from being compromised. Lastly, a firm also has philanthropic responsibilities including volunteering time to local communities, providing educational assistance, and enhancing a community's quality of life. Carroll maintains that a firm must meet economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic responsibilities simultaneously. Yet, the hierarchy and compartmentalization of these functions

still represents a priority by which each responsibility is met and precludes the intermixing of responsibilities.

More modern approaches to CSR suggest that economic and social goals do not have to conflict and they do not have to be pursued independently. For instance, according to Porter and Kramer (2002), CSR efforts can serve as a competitive advantage that benefits firms and society. In contrast to Friedman (1970), Porter and Kramer propose that societal interests and shareholder interests can be aligned. In such cases, CSR is good business. For instance, Porter and Kramer (2002) make the argument that productivity relies on clean environments and an educated, safe, and healthy population. Bill Gates holds a similar strategic CSR view, called creative capitalism, in which firms can make money and help those in need by introducing life-saving products (e.g., pharmaceuticals) to developing markets (Kiviat and Gates 2008).

Defining Corporate Social Responsibility. In this dissertation, I adopt the more strategic and modern view of CSR held by The Corporate Social Responsibility Initiative at the Harvard Kennedy School's Mossavar-Rahmani Center for Business and Government, which defines CSR as:

“Corporate social responsibility encompasses not only what companies do with their profits, but also how they make them. It goes beyond philanthropy and compliance and addresses how companies manage their economic, social, and environmental impacts, as well as their relationships in all key spheres of influence: the workplace, the marketplace, the supply chain, the community, and the public policy realm (Harvard 2008).”

Positive Moral CSR Behavior. CSR, based on the prior definition, does not encompass what the actual behaviors are that a firm conducts. CSR provides a philosophy or guide that brands use to conduct CSR behavior. Accordingly, brands can succeed or falter in their attempts to be socially responsible. Thus, like moral consumer behavior, CSR behavior can be broad and categorized as being moral. In this dissertation, I will refer to behaviors that 1) are more valued by society, 2) increase the welfare of others, and 3) involve giving up some firm resource as ‘positive moral CSR behaviors’ when brands conduct them. Examples of positive moral CSR behavior that fits these criteria include brands that donate proceeds to a cause (Varadarajan and Menon 1988) and brands that adopt environmentally friendly business practices (Cetindamar 2007).

Negative Moral CSR Behavior. CSR behaviors can also be categorized as being less moral. In this dissertation, I will refer to behaviors that 1) are less valued by society, 2) decrease the welfare of others, and 3) do not involve giving up some firm resource as ‘negative moral CSR behaviors’ when brands conduct them. Examples of negative moral CSR behavior that fits these criteria include service failures (Aaker, Fournier, and Brasel 2004) and product-harm crises (Klein and Dawar 2004). For instance, Aaker et al. 2004 exposed participants to a scenario in which a firm made a mistake by losing their online photo albums, which is a behavior that is certainly less valued by society, decreases the welfare of the consumer, and does not involve giving up some firm resource (and may involve taking away a resource from a consumer).

In summary, in this dissertation, CSR behavior will be classified as ‘positive moral CSR behavior’ or ‘negative moral CSR behavior’ in order to highlight the continuum and direction by which these behaviors are viewed that largely avoids connotations of good CSR vs. evil CSR.

The Influence of CSR Behavior on Consumers. The question of whether brands should conduct corporate social responsibility efforts is less controversial than it was in the past. Research has evolved to focus less on justifying the use of corporate social responsibility to how firms can strategically benefit from its use. Yet, despite this evolution, there has been almost no research addressing the influence of CSR efforts on consumer-level outcome measures that are not ultimately tied back to the firm. Most of the CSR research that address consumers does so using firm-centric outcomes of CSR efforts including consumer evaluations toward the firm (e.g., Sen and Bhattacharya 2001), brand attitudes (e.g., Lii and Lee 2012), customer loyalty to the firm (e.g., Maignan et al. 1999), a customer's identification with the firm (e.g., Sen and Bhattacharya 2001), and consumer trust and recommendation intentions toward the firm (Vlachos et al. 2009). This research is clearly important, but it does not fully address the entire relationship between CSR efforts and consumers.

I argue for the importance of conducting consumer-centric CSR research that addresses the positive and potentially negative influence of CSR efforts on consumer behavior. Specifically, in this dissertation, I propose that a brand's CSR efforts may result in unintended and sometimes negative outcomes for the moral behavior of consumers.

Moral Standards and Behavior

According to the theory of self-concept maintenance, individuals are conflicted between accruing gains from dishonest behavior versus maintaining a positive self-concept through honest behavior (Mazar, Amir, and Ariely 2008). In other words, individuals may benefit from conducting negative moral consumer behaviors, but they also risk violating an internalized set of

norms and standards (Campbell 1964) that are used to help judge and benchmark their moral behavior. Mazar et al. (2008) propose that individuals avoid behaviors that deviate too much from their internal standards of moral behavior. Yet, what happens when individuals conduct behavior that either violates or exceeds these standards? Literature on moral balancing, moral licensing, and moral cleansing suggest that moral decision making is a dynamic process in which individuals base their future moral behaviors on their history of 1) positive moral consumer behaviors, which potentially exceeded internal moral standards, and 2) negative moral consumer behaviors, which potentially violated internal moral standards.

Moral Balancing. Moral balancing models propose that individuals keep a mental account of their past moral behaviors (e.g., moral balance model; Nisan 1985; Nisan and Horenczyk 1990; compensatory ethics model; Zhong et al. 2010). These models propose that individuals accrue a type of moral credit by conducting positive moral consumer behaviors, like volunteering or donating money to charity. Individuals can use these moral credits at a later time to perform negative moral consumer behaviors that would typically violate their internal standards of moral behavior. At the same time, individuals accrue a type of moral detriment by conducting negative moral consumer behaviors, like cheating or stealing. Thus, in order to maintain a moral balance and avoid deviating too far from internalized moral standards, these individuals are motivated to conduct positive moral consumer behaviors at a later time.

As an example of moral balancing, Zhong et al. (2010) had participants make a series of moral decisions across four consecutive scenarios in which the participant's self-interest conflicted with other's interests. Half of the participants were told to imagine making a more moral choice on the first scenario while the other half of participants were told to imagine

making a less moral choice on the first scenario. Zhong et al. (2010) found that participants balanced their moral behavior. Specifically, participants who made the initial *more* moral choice made a *less* moral choice on the second scenario while those who made the initial *less* moral choice made a *more* moral choice on the second scenario. These behaviors reflect moral licensing and moral cleansing effects.

Moral Licensing. Researchers use the term moral licensing to describe the scenario in which individuals conduct negative moral consumer behaviors based on past positive moral thoughts and behaviors (Merritt, Effron, and Monin 2010). The moral licensing effect is robust and influences behaviors that are similar to and different than the domain of the original moral behavior. For instance, Effron, Cameron, and Monin (2009) gave participants a hiring scenario in which they indicated if Whites, Blacks, or either race candidates were better suited for a job on the police force. Only participants that voiced support for Barack Obama later indicated that the job was better suited for Whites, indicating a domain-specific moral licensing effect. Khan and Dhar (2006) showed that participants who recalled prior good deeds or even just imagined conducting prior good deeds exhibited an across-domain licensing effect, as indicated by greater preferences for hedonic goods and less donations to charity. The moral licensing effect has also been shown to increase negative moral consumer behaviors. Mazar and Zhong (2010) showed that the purchase of green products licensed participants and increased their cheating and stealing behavior. In summary, the moral licensing effect is robust and influences a variety of positive and negative moral consumer behaviors that are within the same domain as the original moral behavior and across-domain from the original moral behavior.

Moral Cleansing. Researchers use the term moral cleansing to describe the scenario in which individuals conduct positive moral consumer behaviors based on past negative moral thoughts and behaviors (Tetlock et al. 2000; Zhong and Liljenquist 2006). For instance, Jordan et al. (2001) showed that participants who recalled past negative moral behaviors participated in moral cleansing behaviors like cheating less, reporting stronger prosocial intentions, and exaggerating self-reports of their own morality. Zhong and Liljenquist (2006) found that participants who recalled a prior unethical deed significantly increased their choice of an antiseptic wipe, which can act as a physical means to morally cleanse prior unethical behavior, in comparison to a pencil. In summary, the moral cleansing effect is also robust and influences a variety of positive and negative moral consumer behaviors.

Vicarious Moral Balancing. Research on moral balancing typically addresses how an *individuals'* history of moral behaviors influences their future moral behaviors. In fact, research shows that the moral balancing effect only occurs when prior moral behaviors are tied to the self. For instance, Sachdeva et al. (2009) asked participants to write a story about themselves or someone else they know using positive moral trait words (e.g., fair, honest) or negative moral trait words (e.g., selfish). At the end of the study, those who wrote about themselves using positive moral traits words gave significantly less of their compensation to charity (i.e., moral licensing) while those who wrote about themselves using negative moral trait words gave significantly more of their compensation to charity (i.e., moral cleansing). Importantly, the moral licensing or cleansing effect did not occur when participants were asked to write a story about others, suggesting that these effects are exclusive to the moral self.

This finding raises potential doubts of whether vicarious moral balancing effects will occur between brands that participate in CSR efforts and consumers. However, Kouchaki (2011) showed that participants were more likely to conduct vicarious moral licensing behavior by indicating that a job was better suited for Whites vs. African-Americans when their in-group was previously described as being more moral. This finding provides evidence for vicarious moral licensing effects by in-group members, suggesting that the moral self can extend to psychologically close others.

In this dissertation, I propose that only those consumers who have extended their self to a brand sponsoring CSR efforts will conduct vicarious moral licensing and cleansing behaviors. To support this argument, I present research that focuses on how consumers incorporate brands into their self-concept and use brands as relationship partners.

Brands and Consumers

Brands serve many other functions besides distinguishing a company's product offerings. Researchers have long proposed that individuals chose brands that are consistent with their self-image (Levy 1959) and enable individuals to present desired self-images to themselves and others (Aaker 1999; Belk, Bahn, and Mayer 1982). This section will explore how consumers use brands to create, cultivate, and display favorable self-identities, link a brand to the self, and forge relationships with brands.

Brands and Identity. Narrative identity theory proposes that individuals build narrative self-identities to make sense of their lives (Ricoeur 1984). Researchers propose that individuals

can construct their identity by using symbolic resources (e.g., brands) and narrative processing (Escalas 2004; Elliot and Wattanasuwan 1998). One example of this narrative process comes from a series of Apple advertisements. These commercials started with a cool, casually-dressed man who said, “Hello, I’m a Mac” while an awkward, formally-dressed man said “And I’m a PC.” These advertisements became a guideline for Apple consumers to help construct and display their identity by contrasting the stuffy, archaic narrative/identity of a PC user against the modern, cool narrative/identity of a Mac user. In summary, consumers can actively construct, cultivate, and display their self-identity using brands and narrative processing to tell a story of their lives.

Brands and Self. Research has shown that individuals can go beyond using brands to express their own identity and can become so deeply connected to a brand that it becomes linked to the self (Escalas and Bettman 2003; Escalas 2004). Researchers have coined the term self-brand connection to refer to the extent to which individuals incorporate a brand into their self-concept (Escalas 2004). Self-brand connection can occur among limited aspects of the self or they can become highly representative of the self and play a greater role in the construction and expression of one's self-concept (Escalas and Bettman 2003). Cheng, White, and Chaplin (2012) showed that a consequence of such high self-brand connection is that consumers respond to negative brand information as a threat to the self. In summary, some consumers use brands to help construct and express their self-concept.

Brands and Relationships. Research has shown that consumers imbue brands with human-like qualities (e.g., personality; Aaker 1997) and view brands as potential relationship

partners (Fournier 1998). The consequence of such close relationships to brands has been studied using literature on the self-expansion model (Aron et al. 1991). The self-expansion model states that individuals are motivated to expand their self in order to acquire resources, perspectives, and identities that help them accomplish their goals. To self-expand, individuals enter into relationships with others, which can ultimately result in self-other overlap or when the psychological self overlaps with the self of another. More recently, the self-expansion model has been itself expanded to include relationships that occur between brands and consumers (Reimann and Aron 2009; Reimann et al. 2012; Trump and Brucks 2012).

In this dissertation, I use the self-expansion model to theorize when a brand's CSR efforts might influence the moral behavior of consumers. This model is used as opposed to other literature on brand relationships (e.g., Escalas and Bettman 2003) for several reasons. Prior research views brands as symbolic resources that are used by consumers to construct and actively display their self-concept and identity (e.g., Escalas 2004). In other words, brands can be linked to the self and can become highly representative of the self. However, the self-expansion model deepens the relationship between consumers and brands by proposing that brands can become a part of the self, both psychologically and physiologically (Reimann et al. 2012). In addition, the self-expansion model addresses the motivational aspects of why individuals develop relationships with brands (i.e., to acquire resources that help them accomplish their goals).

I propose that consumers are likely to vary in how much they extend their self to brands and enter into relationships with brands that conduct CSR efforts. Hereafter, following the terminology of Trump and Brucks (2012), I will refer to individuals who have extended more of their self to a brand as those with *high self-brand overlap*, and I will refer to individuals who have extended less (or none) of their self to a brand as those with *low self-brand overlap*.

There are several possible positive and negative consequences for consumers that have extended their self to a brand that conducts moral CSR behavior. For instance, I propose that high (vs. low) self-brand overlap consumers will acquire greater moral resources from the positive moral CSR behavior of a brand and lesser moral resources from the negative moral CSR behavior of a brand. According to the self-expansion model, resources can be used to help consumers accomplish goals. Thus, the degree of moral resources obtained from a brand's moral CSR behavior might influence how consumers self-regulate their own moral behavior. In the following section, I will describe the proposed vicarious moral self-regulation process and how it may serve as the potential mechanism for vicarious moral balancing effects between brands and high self-brand overlap consumers.

Moral Self-Regulation

An underlying premise of this dissertation, and the proposed vicarious moral balancing effect between brands and consumers, is that individuals have the goal of being a moral person. The assumption that people have this goal is consistent with prior research showing that most people value honesty (Mazar et al. 2008) and behaviors that signal moral traits (e.g., honest, caring, fair, friendly, and kind; Aquino and Reed 2002). Therefore, if the goal of being a moral person exists, consumers must self-regulate their behavior to reflect movement toward or away from this goal.

Goal Regulation. Theories of goal regulation typically describe a tension or discrepancy that exists between one's current goal state and a desired end state (e.g., Wicklund and Gollwitzer 1982; Moskowitz 2009). Indicators of goal progress reduce this discrepancy and signal that less effort is needed to accomplish the goal (Fishbach, Zhang, and Koo 2009). On the other hand, insufficient progress further highlights underlying goal tension and signals that more effort is needed to accomplish the goal. Fishbach and Dhar (2005) showed this self-regulatory process in a group of female dieters by manipulating their sense of progress toward the goal of losing weight. Participants who felt more progress toward their dieting goal were significantly more likely to choose a chocolate bar as a parting gift in comparison to low progress participants (85% vs. 58%).

This goal regulation strategy is very similar to research on moral balancing. In fact, researchers have suggested that moral licensing effects might be accounted for by changes in goal progress (e.g., Merritt et al. 2010; Miller and Effron 2010). For instance, Sachdeva et al. (2009) asked participants to write a story about themselves using positive moral trait words, which may have signaled sufficient progress toward being a moral person and reduced goal tension. Fishbach et al. (2009) propose that reducing goal tension allows individual to pursue goals that were neglected in order to attend to the original goal. Thus, sufficient moral progress may explain why participants in the Sachdeva et al. (2009) study licensed their moral behavior by donating less of their study compensation to charity. Goal regulation strategies might also explain the moral cleansing side of moral balancing. For instance, Sachdeva et al. (2009) also asked other participants to write a story about themselves using negative moral trait words, which may have signaled insufficient progress toward being a moral person and increased goal

tension. This increased tension may explain why participants chose to cleanse their moral behavior by donating more of their study compensation to charity.

Vicarious Goal Regulation. Extending theories of goal regulation, I propose that consumers can vicariously infer their own progress toward the goal of being a moral person based on the CSR behavior of brands. However, this effect is likely to occur only for those consumers who have extended their self to a brand conducting the CSR efforts. Specifically, for high (vs. low) self-brand overlap consumers, a brand's *positive* moral CSR behavior may signal sufficient progress toward the goal of being a moral person, which reduces goal tension, and licenses negative moral consumer behaviors. At the same time, for high (vs. low) self-brand overlap consumers, a brand's *negative* moral CSR behavior may signal insufficient progress toward the goal of being a moral person, which increases goal tension, and motivates moral cleansing behaviors (i.e., positive moral consumer behaviors). However, for low self-brand overlap consumers, a brand's positive or negative moral CSR behavior should not influence their perceived progress toward the goal of being a moral person and should not affect their moral behavior. This is in line with prior research showing that moral balancing effects did not occur when individuals were asked to write a story about a person they know (i.e., a person not tied to the self) using positive or negative moral traits words (Sachdeva et al. 2009).

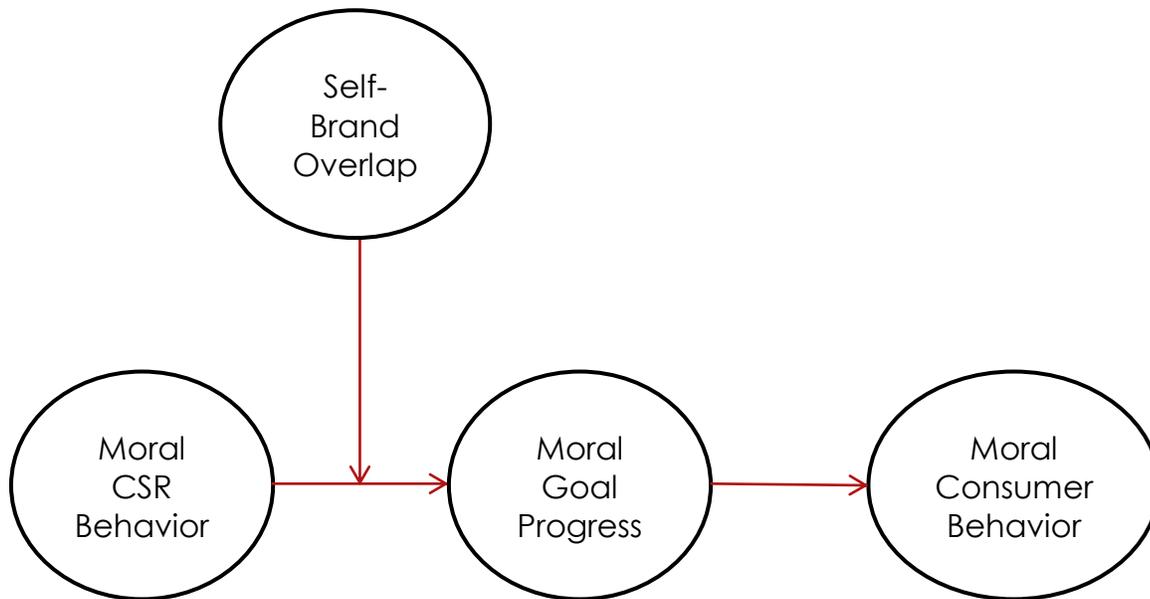
Summary

In summary, research on corporate social responsibility typically focuses on its firm-level benefits (e.g., increased corporate financial performance and increased consumer loyalty).

However, little is known about how CSR efforts influence the well-being of consumers. I address this gap in the CSR literature by testing whether a brand's CSR efforts can vicariously influence the moral behavior of consumers and in what direction.

I offer a conceptual model to illustrate how a brand's CSR efforts can lead to vicarious moral balancing effects in consumers (see figure 1). I propose that negative moral CSR behavior provides a signal of insufficient moral progress toward the goal of being a moral person while positive moral CSR behavior provides a signal of sufficient moral progress, but only for those consumers who have formed a psychologically close relationship with the brand sponsoring the CSR efforts (i.e., high vs. low self-brand overlap consumers). Accordingly, for high self-brand overlap consumers, insufficient moral progress should motivate goal congruent or cleansing behaviors (i.e., positive moral consumer behaviors) while sufficient moral progress should license goal incongruent or licensing behaviors (i.e., negative moral consumer behaviors). These vicarious moral balancing effects should not occur for low self-brand overlap consumers as positive or negative moral CSR behavior does not provide a relevant signal of progress toward the goal of being a moral person. In other words, the vicarious moral balancing process should be motivational in nature, and not based on contrast or assimilation effects caused by consumers' reactance to CSR efforts. This is supported by prior research showing that high self-brand connection individuals are motivated to protect the self when presented with negative brand information (Cheng et al. 2012). If this motivational-based process explanation to explain the vicarious moral balancing effect is true, low self-brand overlap participants should not exhibit vicarious moral licensing or cleansing effects when exposed to positive or negative moral CSR behavior as it provides no relevant information about the self.

FIGURE 1: CONCEPTUAL MODEL



The remaining chapters of this dissertation will test the proposed conceptual model, highlight the boundary conditions of the vicarious moral balancing effect, and formally test the process by which the vicarious moral licensing effect occurs. Chapter 3 will formally test the vicarious moral balancing effect by measuring levels of generosity in participants exposed to the CSR efforts of a brand. Chapter 4 will extend the vicarious moral balancing effect by measuring levels of cheating in participants exposed to the CSR efforts of a brand. Chapter 5 will test boundary conditions of the vicarious moral balancing effect by demonstrating two methods that make participants more mindful of their moral behavior and moral decision making process as a means to eliminate the negative influence of CSR behavior on the moral behavior of consumers. Chapter 6 will formally test the process by which the vicarious moral licensing effect occurs by demonstrating that positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment *increases*

generosity behavior while CSR behavior framed as goal progress *decreases* generosity behavior. Chapter 7 will provide a summary of the results, contributions, implications, and limitations of this research, and suggest future research to further explore the relationship between CSR efforts and the moral behavior of consumers.

CHAPTER 3: THE INFLUENCE OF CORPORATE RESPONSIBILITY EFFORTS ON POSITIVE MORAL CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

The purpose of this chapter is to present study 1, which formally tests whether a brand's CSR behavior influences the moral behavior of consumers. Specifically, study 1 examines the influence of CSR behavior (negative vs. positive vs. neutral) on the amount of generosity behavior performed by participants as moderated by self-brand overlap (high vs. low). Generosity behavior (e.g., donations) is a common measure used in moral licensing and cleansing research (e.g., Sachdeva et al. 2009; Khan and Dhar 2006) as it provides a good measure of positive moral consumer behavior that is valued by society, increases the welfare of others, and involves giving up some resource.

I propose that the positive and negative moral CSR behavior of a brand will influence the generosity behavior of high self-brand overlap consumers, but not low self-brand overlap consumers. I will also examine the possible effect of neutral CSR behavior to determine whether the vicarious moral balance effects are reflective of a significant decrease (i.e., moral licensing) or increase (i.e., moral cleansing) in levels of generosity. In other words, by comparing the positive and negative moral CSR behavior conditions against the neutral condition, I can test whether positive and/or negative moral CSR behavior is driving the vicarious moral balancing effect. In summary, I predict that a brand's moral CSR behavior will significantly influence participants' levels of generosity behavior in comparison to the neutral condition. These effects, however, should only occur for those participants with a high (vs. low) self-brand overlap toward the brand sponsoring the CSR efforts.

Hypotheses

The proposed vicarious moral balancing effect should depend on two factors: the CSR behavior of the brand and self-brand overlap. The CSR behavior in this study contains three levels: positive moral CSR behavior, negative moral CSR behavior, and neutral CSR behavior. Exposure to negative moral CSR behavior should lead participants to conduct moral cleansing behaviors by increasing their levels of generosity while exposure to positive moral CSR behavior should lead participants to conduct moral licensing behaviors by decreasing their levels of generosity. However, these effects should depend on levels of self-brand overlap or whether participants have extended their self to a brand conducting the CSR efforts. This is line with prior research showing that moral balancing effects only occur when moral behavior is tied to the self (Sachdeva et al. 2009). Based on these predictions, I propose a significant interaction effect between self-brand overlap and CSR behavior. The following sections will lay out proposed hypotheses comparing the influence of CSR behavior among high self-brand overlap participants and the influence of CSR behavior between high and low self-brand overlap participants.

Hypotheses among High Self-Brand Overlap Participants

I predict that exposure to positive moral CSR behavior should influence levels of generosity, but only for those with participants high self-brand overlap. Specifically, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior should allow high self-brand overlap participants to conduct vicarious moral licensing behavior by significantly reducing their levels of generosity in

comparison to those exposed to the negative moral CSR behavior condition and the neutral CSR condition. Specific hypotheses based on these predictions are as follows:

H1a: Among high self-brand overlap participants, exposure to **positive** moral CSR behavior will significantly *decrease* levels of generosity in comparison to those exposed to **negative** moral CSR behavior.

H1b: Among high self-brand overlap participants, exposure to **positive** moral CSR behavior will significantly *decrease* levels of generosity in comparison to those exposed to **neutral** CSR behavior.

At the same time, exposure to negative moral CSR behavior should also influence levels of generosity among high self-brand overlap participants. Specifically, exposure to negative moral CSR behavior should motivate high self-brand overlap participants to conduct vicarious moral cleansing behavior by significantly increasing their levels of generosity in comparison to those exposed to the neutral CSR condition. A specific hypothesis based on this prediction is as follows:

H1c: Among high self-brand overlap participants, exposure to **negative** moral CSR behavior will significantly *increase* levels of generosity in comparison to those exposed to **neutral** CSR behavior.

Hypotheses between High and Low Self-Brand Overlap Participants

I predict that exposure to positive moral CSR behavior should influence levels of generosity between high self-brand overlap participants and low self-brand overlap participants. Specifically, among those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants should conduct vicarious moral licensing behavior by significantly decreasing their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants. A specific hypothesis based on this prediction is as follows:

H2a: Among those exposed to **positive** moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants will significantly *decrease* their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants.

At the same time, exposure to negative moral CSR behavior should also influence levels of generosity between high and low self-brand overlap participants. Specifically, among those exposed to negative moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants should conduct vicarious moral cleansing behavior by significantly increasing their levels of generosity in comparison to the low self-brand overlap participants. A specific hypothesis based on this prediction is as follows:

H2b: Among those exposed to **negative** moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants will significantly *increase* their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants.

Null Predictions

Among low self-brand overlap participants, I predict no significant difference in levels of generosity between those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior, negative moral CSR behavior, or neutral CSR behavior. In addition, among those exposed to neutral CSR behavior, I predict no significant difference in levels of generosity between high self-brand overlap participants and low self-brand overlap participants.

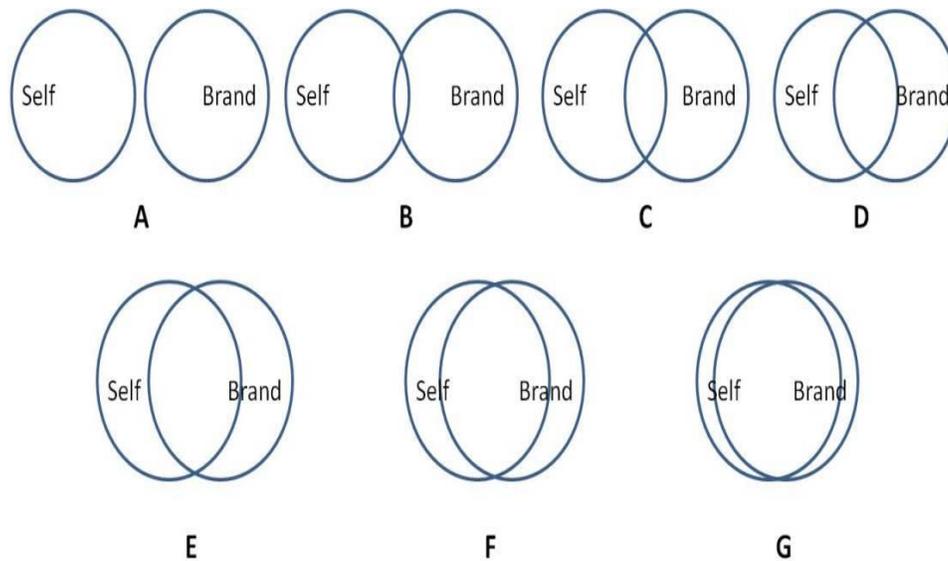
Study 1

Method

Participants and Design. A total of 126 participants at a large southwestern university received course credit for completing the study (58% female, $M_{age} = 21.4$ years ($SD = 2.97$)). The study used a 2 (self-brand overlap: low vs. high) x 3 (moral CSR behavior: negative vs. positive vs. neutral) between-subjects design.

Procedure. Participants completed a modified version of the Inclusion of Other in the Self scale (Aron, Aron, and Smollan 1992) to measure self-brand overlap by selecting between a set of seven circles with varying degrees of overlap containing the word 'Self' or 'Brand' (see figure 2). The original scale contains the words 'Self' and 'Other'. Thus, I modified the original scale by replacing 'Other' with 'Brand' to reflect the degree of self-brand overlap rather than the degree of self-other overlap.

FIGURE 2: SELF-BRAND OVERLAP MEASURE



Low self-brand overlap is indicated by the set of circles that contain no to very little overlap between the words self and brand (e.g., A or B). High self-brand overlap is indicated by the set of circles that contain a greater degree of overlap between self and brand (e.g., F or G). Participants were asked to indicate their relationship with Nike by selecting the set of circles best representing their level of overlap with self and brand (see appendix A for full instructions). To disguise the true purpose of study 1, the self-brand overlap measure was placed in an unrelated study that preceded study 1. To also hide the true nature of the experiment, participants were told that one purpose of the study was to measure what they were thinking at the moment, which included completing the 20-item state self-esteem scale ($\alpha = .90$; Heatherton and Polivy 1991).

Next, to manipulate CSR behavior, participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions: positive moral CSR behavior, negative moral CSR behavior, or neutral CSR behavior. To manipulate positive moral CSR behavior, participants were asked to read a

hypothetical Associated Press news article about Nike's decision to join the Sustainable Apparel Coalition (see appendix B for the full article). The article described how Nike decided to ban the use of a known carcinogen, formaldehyde, which is used in the manufacturing of clothing. To manipulate negative moral CSR behavior, participants read a similar article as before, but the focus was on Nike's decision to not join the Sustainable Apparel Coalition or ban the use of formaldehyde (see appendix C for the full article). To manipulate neutral CSR behavior, participants read an article about the apparel industry's decision to join the Sustainable Apparel Coalition and ban the use of formaldehyde (see appendix D for the full article). This serves as an effective neutral condition as the article contained no mention of specific apparel companies like Nike. In other words, the neutral condition should provide a test of whether positive moral CSR behavior needs to be specifically tied to a focal brand (i.e., Nike) or if positive moral CSR behavior in general will lead to vicarious moral balancing effects in consumers.

Several measures were taken after the CSR behavior manipulations to test for potential process explanations. One measure was the 10-item self-importance of moral identity scale composed of five items to measure internalization ($\alpha = .80$), or the degree to which private views of oneself are centered on moral traits, and five items to measure symbolization ($\alpha = .77$), or the degree to which moral traits are reflected in the individual's actions in the world (Aquino and Reed 2002). An additional measure taken was the four item scale of moral self-assessment ($\alpha = .83$) by Khan and Dhar (2006). These measures were collected as they served as mediators for moral licensing effects in prior research (e.g., Khan and Dhar 2006; Kouchaki 2011). Next, participants completed a shortened positive and negative affect schedule (PANAS) developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988) consisting of 10 questions to measure positive mood

(PANAS-POS; $\alpha = .91$) and 10 questions to measure negative mood (PANAS-NEG; $\alpha = .85$) to test whether mood mediates vicarious moral balancing effects.

To further hide the connection of the moral CSR behavior manipulations and the dependent variable task, participants were told to move on to the next study. In this 'new' study, participants completed a dictator game as a measure of generosity. The dictator game comes from experimental economics and measures self-interested behavior that results from one individual allocating endowments to another individual (Kahneman, Knetsch, and Thaler 1986). In this task, participants were told that they would be paired with one individual also taking part in the study, but in a different room (see appendix E for full task instructions). There are two roles to the dictator game: the sender and the receiver. The sender starts with an endowment of 10 entries into a drawing for a prize. The receiver starts with 0 entries. Participants were made to believe they would play one of these two roles although every participant was assigned to be a sender. The sender was given the decision, after ensuring for anonymity, to send between 0-10 entries to the hypothetical receiver. A self-interested and utility maximizing individual should send 0 entries to the receiver in order to keep all 10 for themselves. Thus, the amount of entries sent served as a dependent measure of generosity.

A second generosity dependent measure was given to participants in order to test whether any effects from the moral CSR behavior manipulations would carry over or be exhausted from the first dependent measure task. I propose that the goal process explanation is more likely if participants *do not* continue to cleanse or license their moral behaviors past the first dependent measure of generosity. Null effects in the second measure of generosity may indicate goal satiation and sufficient balancing of the goal of being a moral person. However, the goal progress process explanation is less likely if participants continue to cleanse or license their

behaviors past the first dependent measure of generosity. Significant effects in the second measure of generosity may indicate that participants do not balance their moral behavior or have the goal of being moral. Instead, these participants may want to continue boosting their moral self (i.e., cleansing) or achieving the most gains from self-interested behavior (i.e., licensing). In the second generosity task, participants were asked to go to a website that donates 10 grains of rice for every vocabulary question answered correctly (see appendix F for a screenshot of the website). Participants were told to answer as many questions as they wanted and to move on with the study when they were ready. Thus, the amount of rice donated served as the second dependent measure of generosity.

Following the dependent measures, participants completed manipulation checks, which are discussed in the next section, a 3-item modified Nike brand knowledge measure ($\alpha = .91$) developed by Algesheimer, Dholakia, and Herrmann (2005), a modified attitude toward CSR measure ($\alpha = .95$) developed by Bagozzi (1982), age, gender, political orientation, ethnicity, and first language. Finally, participants completed a debriefing task in which no participants guessed the true nature of the study.

Manipulation and Confound Checks. Participants answered several questions to check whether the Associated Press articles manipulated the moral CSR behavior conditions as intended, but did not significantly differ in other respects. The CSR behavior manipulations worked as intended and did not introduce any known confounds.

Participants were asked, using 7-point semantic differential scales, whether Nike's decision to join (positive moral CSR behavior condition) or not join (negative moral CSR behavior condition) the Sustainable Apparel Coalition or the apparel industry's decision to join

the Coalition (neutral CSR behavior condition) was 1) immoral vs. moral; 2) not at all important vs. very important; 3) controlled by outside events/sources vs. controlled by Nike; and 4) unethical vs. ethical.

Confirming the effectiveness of the CSR behavior manipulations, the articles significantly differed in terms of perceived morality ($M_{positive} = 6.76, SD = .726$ vs. $M_{neutral} = 6.31, SD = 1.39$ vs. $M_{negative} = 2.55, SD = 1.50$; $F(2, 123) = 143, p < .001$). Planned comparisons revealed a significant difference between the positive moral CSR behavior condition and the negative moral CSR behavior condition ($p < .001, 95\% CI [3.22, 4.30]$) as well as the neutral CSR behavior condition and the negative moral CSR behavior condition ($p < .001, 95\% CI [3.67, 4.76]$) as intended. Importantly, there was no significant difference between the positive moral CSR behavior condition and the neutral CSR behavior condition ($p > .05, 95\% CI [-.089, .993]$). This was expected as the positive moral CSR behavior condition and the neutral CSR behavior condition entail the same CSR behavior: banning the use of formaldehyde in the manufacturing in clothing. However, the positive moral CSR behavior condition mentioned Nike as the decision maker while the neutral CSR behavior condition mentioned the apparel industry as the decision maker. This difference should allow for a test of whether positive moral CSR behavior needs to be specifically tied to the focal brand (i.e., Nike) or if any positive moral CSR behavior will lead to changes in generosity behavior. Similarly, the articles significantly differed in terms of perceived ethicality ($M_{positive} = 6.67, SD = 1.07$ vs. $M_{neutral} = 6.12, SD = 1.70$ vs. $M_{negative} = 2.69, SD = 1.60$; $F(2, 123) = 88.6, p < .001$) while planned contrasts replicated the same findings as the contrasts mentioned for perceived morality.

The three moral CSR behavior conditions significantly differed in terms of perceived control over the decision as intended ($M_{positive} = 5.29, SD = 1.74$ vs. $M_{neutral} = 4.00, SD = 1.65$ vs.

$M_{negative} = 5.00$, $SD = 1.93$; $F(2, 123) = 6.06$, $p < .01$). Specifically, planned contrasts showed that participants did not differ in their view of whether Nike had control over the decision to ban the use of formaldehyde in clothing between the negative moral CSR behavior condition and the positive moral CSR behavior condition ($p > .05$, 95% CI [-.308, 1.02]). However, in the neutral CSR condition, participants should perceive that the apparel industry's decision to ban the use of formaldehyde in clothing is more controlled by outside sources. As expected, planned contrasts revealed that participants viewed the decision made in the neutral CSR behavior condition as significantly more controlled by outside sources in comparison to the negative moral CSR behavior condition ($p < .05$, 95% CI [-1.77, -.232]) and the positive moral CSR behavior condition ($p < .05$, 95% CI [.518, 2.05]).

The three moral CSR behavior conditions significantly differed in terms of perceived importance of the decision ($M_{positive} = 6.38$, $SD = 1.04$ vs. $M_{neutral} = 6.07$, $SD = 1.11$ vs. $M_{negative} = 5.62$, $SD = 1.10$; $F(2, 123) = 5.2$, $p < .01$), which was not expected. Contrasts revealed a significant difference in perceived importance between the positive moral CSR condition and the negative moral CSR condition ($p < .01$, 95% CI [.94, 1.23]). However, perceived importance of the decision to join or not join the Sustainable Apparel Coalition was an insignificant covariate in later analyses and had no impact on the results.

Three additional questions, using 7-point semantic differential scales, were used as confound checks to ensure that participants did not significantly rate the CSR behavior articles differently on the following dimensions: 1) not at all believable vs. very believable; 2) not at all interesting vs. very interesting; and 3) very poorly written vs. very well-written. As intended, there was no significant difference across any of the three CSR behavior conditions in terms of the believability, interestingness, or writing quality of the three articles. Another three questions,

using 7-point semantic differential scales, were used as confound checks to ensure that participants did not significantly rate the issue of using formaldehyde in the manufacturing of clothing differently based on the following dimensions: 1) not at all important vs. very important; 2) not at all interesting vs. very interesting; and 3) does not affect me at all vs. completely affects me. As intended, there was no significant difference across any of the three CSR behavior conditions in terms of the perceived importance, interestingness, or personal level of impact of the formaldehyde issue. In summary, these data indicate that the manipulations worked as expected (or did not have a significant impact on later results) and did not introduce any known confounds.

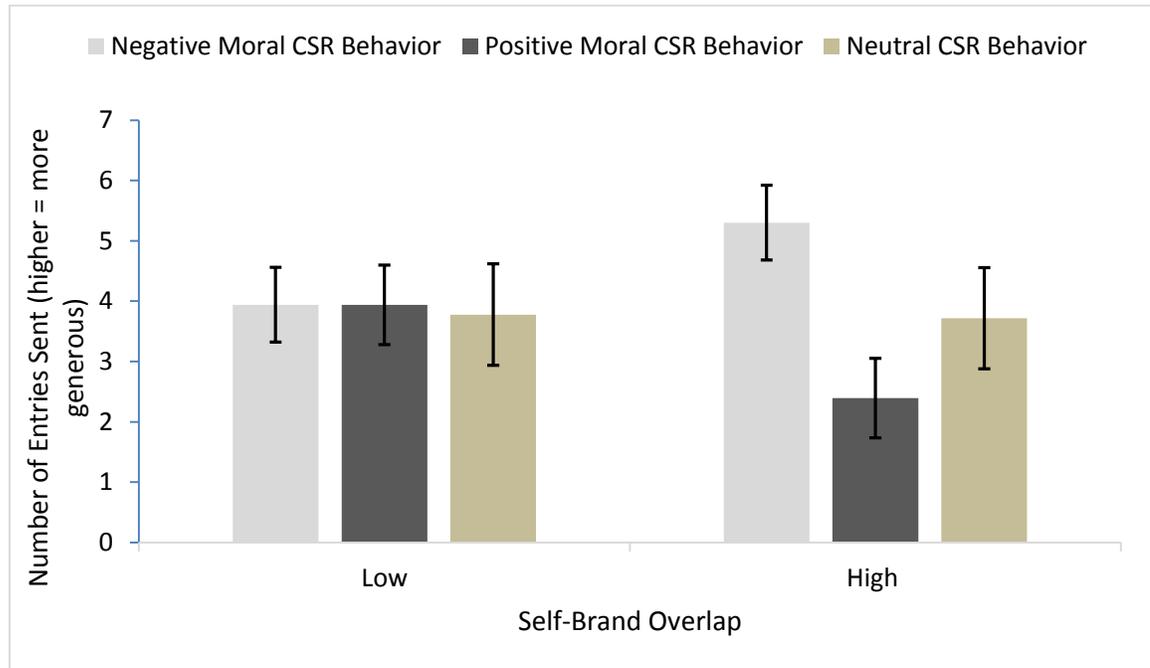
Results

There are two dependent variables in this study: 1) the number of entries sent during the dictator game as a measure of generosity and 2) the amount of rice donated as a measure of generosity. The following variables did not impact the results and were excluded from all analyses: 1) importance placed over the decision to join the Sustainable Apparel Coalition; 2) self-esteem; 3) the symbolization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale; 4) the moral self-assessment scale; 5) Nike brand knowledge; 6) PANAS-POS; 7) PANAS-NEG; 8) age; 9) gender; 10) political orientation; 11) ethnicity; and 12) first language. CSR attitudes and the internalization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale were significant predictors in the model and were included as covariates. However, CSR attitudes and the internalization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale did not significantly

interact with the main independent variables. In addition, results did not change if these covariates were excluded from the model.

Dictator Game. I ran a general linear model analysis with self-brand overlap (mean-centered) and moral CSR behavior (contrast-coded) as the main independent variables, the interaction term of self-brand overlap and moral CSR behavior, and CSR attitudes and the internalization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale as covariates on the number of entries sent in the dictator game. Moral CSR behavior was a significant predictor in the model ($M_{positive} = 3.21, SD = 2.29$ vs. $M_{neutral} = 3.83, SD = 2.37$ vs. $M_{negative} = 4.64, SD = 2.52$; $F(2, 118) = 4.56, p < .01, \eta^2 = .072$). Contrasts revealed a marginally significant difference between the negative moral CSR behavior condition and the neutral CSR behavior condition ($p = .074, 95\% CI [-1.83, .087]$) and a significant difference between the negative moral CSR behavior condition and the positive moral CSR behavior condition ($p < .01, 95\% CI [-2.42, -.494]$). The CSR attitudes measure was also a significant predictor ($F(1, 118) = 4.37, p < .05, \eta^2 = .036$) as was the internalization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale ($F(1, 118) = 4.76, p < .05, \eta^2 = .039$). As predicted, the interaction term was a significant predictor in the model ($F(2, 118) = 5.17, p < .01, \eta^2 = .081$). To explore the nature of the interaction, planned comparisons were made between moral CSR behaviors (negative vs. positive vs. neutral) and self-brand overlap (low vs. high), which is illustrated in figure 3. As self-brand overlap is a continuous measure, a spotlight analysis was performed at plus and minus one standard deviation from the mean of self-brand overlap (Aiken and West 1991). These planned comparisons test the proposed hypotheses.

FIGURE 3: PARTICIPANTS' GENEROSITY BEHAVIOR BY SELF-BRAND OVERLAP (LOW $-1SD$ VS. HIGH $+1SD$) AND CSR BEHAVIOR (STUDY 1)



As predicted, among high self-brand overlap participants, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior significantly decreased levels of generosity in comparison to those exposed to negative moral CSR behavior ($\beta = -2.91$, $t(118) = -4.44$, $p < .001$; 95% CI [-4.21, -1.61]) and marginally decreased levels of generosity in comparison to those exposed to neutral CSR behavior ($\beta = -1.33$, $t(118) = -1.77$, $p = .079$; 95% CI [-2.81, .157]). Therefore, hypothesis 1a is supported while hypothesis 1b is marginally supported. In addition, among high self-brand overlap participants, exposure to negative moral CSR behavior significantly increased levels of generosity in comparison to those exposed to neutral CSR behavior ($\beta = -1.59$, $t(118) = -2.24$, $p < .05$; 95% CI [-2.99, -.183]). Therefore, hypothesis 1c is supported.

At the same time, among those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants significantly decreased their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants ($\beta = -.595, t(118) = -2.35, p < .05; 95\% \text{ CI } [-1.10, -.094]$). Therefore, hypothesis 2a is supported. Also, among those exposed to negative moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants significantly increased their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants ($\beta = .524, t(118) = 2.18, p < .05; 95\% \text{ CI } [.049, .998]$). Therefore, hypothesis 2b is supported. For a summary of the results, see table 1 below.

Table 1

DICTATOR GAME SUMMARY OF RESULTS (STUDY 1)

Hypothesis	CSR Behavior/SBO	Consumer Behavior (in comparison to)	CSR Behavior/SBO
H1a*	Positive/High	Decrease in generosity	Negative/High
H1b#	Positive/High	Decrease in generosity	Neutral/High
H1c*	Negative/High	Increase in generosity	Neutral/High
H2a*	Positive/High	Decrease in generosity	Positive/Low
H2b*	Negative/High	Increase in generosity	Negative/Low

Note: Self-Brand Overlap (SBO), * indicates hypothesis was supported ($p < .05$), and # indicates hypothesis was marginally supported ($p < .10$).

As predicted, among low self-brand overlap participants, there was no significant difference in levels of generosity between those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior, negative moral CSR behavior, or neutral CSR behavior. In addition, among those exposed to

neutral CSR behavior, there was no significant difference in levels of generosity between high self-brand overlap participants and low self-brand overlap participants.

Rice Game. I ran a general linear model analysis with self-brand overlap (mean-centered) and moral CSR behavior (contrast-coded) as the main independent variables, and the interaction term of self-brand overlap and moral CSR behavior on the amount of rice donated. There were no significant main effects or a significant interaction to report. Implications of this null finding will be addressed in the discussion section.

Process Explanations. Five measures were examined as potential mediators of the relationship between CSR behavior and generosity as moderated by self-brand overlap. These measures include: 1) the internalization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale; 2) the symbolization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale; 3) the moral self-assessment scale; 4) positive mood; and 5) negative mood. The first three variables were used to measure moral self-concept as prior research (e.g., Miller and Effron 2010) suggests that positive moral behavior may boost an individual's moral self-concept, leading to moral licensing effects, while negative moral behavior may threatens an individual's moral self-concept, leading to moral cleansing effects. Prior research has not found mood to be a significant mediator of moral licensing or cleansing effects, but it was tested in order to rule out the possibility. All moderated mediation analyses were conducted using the PROCESS SPSS macro developed by Hayes (2013). None of the analyses revealed full or partial moderated mediation for any of the five measures. Thus, there is no evidence to support that changes in moral self-concept or mood account for the vicarious moral balancing effects found in this study. Implications of these findings will be discussed in the discussion section.

Discussion

Study 1 provides preliminary evidence that CSR behavior can drive vicarious moral licensing and cleansing effects, but only for those with a high self-brand overlap to the brand sponsoring the CSR efforts. Specifically, among high self-brand overlap participants in study 1, those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior exhibited vicarious moral licensing effects by significantly decreasing their levels of generosity in comparison to those exposed to the negative moral CSR behavior condition and by marginally decreasing their levels of generosity in comparison to those exposed to the neutral CSR behavior condition. In addition, among high self-brand overlap participants, those exposed to negative moral CSR behavior exhibited vicarious moral cleansing effects by significantly decreasing their levels of generosity in comparison to those exposed to the neutral CSR behavior condition. Also, among those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants exhibited vicarious moral licensing effects by significantly decreasing their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants. At the same time, among those exposed to negative moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants exhibited vicarious moral cleansing effects by significantly increasing their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants.

Findings from study 1 replicate prior research showing that moral balancing effects occur only when moral behaviors are tied to the self (Sachdeva et al. 2009). Low self-brand overlap participants did not significantly differ in their levels of generosity after exposure to positive moral CSR behavior, negative moral CSR behavior, or neutral CSR behavior. In addition, among those exposed to neutral CSR behavior, there was no significant difference in levels of

generosity between high self-brand overlap participants and low self-brand overlap participants. Thus, positive moral CSR behavior performed by the apparel industry did not influence the moral behavior of participants. As a reminder, the neutral CSR condition was similar to the positive moral CSR behavior condition in terms of the CSR behavior performed. Thus, if the vicarious moral licensing effect was about positive moral behavior in general, high self-brand overlap participants in the neutral CSR condition should have behaved similarly to high self-brand overlap participants in the positive moral CSR behavior condition. Instead, low self-brand overlap participants and those exposed to neutral CSR behavior act similarly, indicating that moral CSR behavior must be tied to a psychologically close brand.

Based on findings from study 1, I suggest that changes in moral goal progress might be driving vicarious moral licensing and cleansing behaviors. Specifically, I propose that exposure to moral CSR behavior signals sufficient progress toward the goal of being a moral person for high self-brand overlap participants, which reduces goal tension, and leads to vicarious moral licensing behaviors (i.e., negative moral consumer behaviors). At the same time, I propose that exposure to negative moral CSR behavior signals insufficient progress toward the goal of being a moral person for high self-brand overlap participants, which increases goal tension, and leads to vicarious moral cleansing behaviors (i.e., positive moral consumer behaviors). Low self-brand overlap participants and those exposed to neutral CSR behavior should not receive a relevant signal of progress toward the goal of being a moral person. Evidence to support these claims comes from the fact that all of the potential process measures (e.g., positive mood, negative mood, and moral self-concept scales) in study 1 failed to fully or partially mediate the vicarious moral balancing effects. In addition, one potential explanation for why the rice donation task did not affect levels of generosity in high self-brand overlap participants is that the dictator game

(i.e., first dependent measure) satiated the goal of being a moral person. This finding is similar to research by Zhong et al. (2010) who showed that repeated moral decisions do not significantly differ in terms of morality after the initial moral licensing and moral cleansing act. In other words, participants in the Zhong et al. (2010) study did not trade off the moral licensing effect with the moral cleansing effect after repeated moral decisions. None of this evidence provides sufficient proof of the proposed goal progress explanation, which is more formally tested in chapter 6, but instead highlights the possibility of its role in the vicarious moral licensing and cleansing effects found in study 1. The next chapter focuses on extending and replicating the vicarious moral balancing effect by measuring the influence of CSR behavior on levels of cheating in consumers.

CHAPTER 4: THE INFLUENCE OF CORPORATE RESPONSIBILITY EFFORTS ON NEGATIVE MORAL CONSUMER BEHAVIOR

The purpose of this chapter is to present study 2, which replicates the vicarious moral balancing effect in the context of negative moral consumer behavior. Recall that study 1 examined the influence of moral CSR behavior on levels of positive moral consumer behavior (i.e., generosity) performed by participants as moderated by self-brand overlap (high vs. low). Study 2 examines the same conceptual model, but in the context of negative moral consumer behavior in the form of cheating. Cheating behavior is a common measure used in moral licensing and cleansing research (e.g., Jordan et al. 2011; Mazar and Zhong 2010) as it provides a good measure of negative moral behavior that is not valued by society, decreases the welfare of others, and does not involve giving up some resource.

I propose that the positive and negative moral CSR behavior of a brand will influence the cheating behavior of participants. Specifically, I predict that participants exposed to a brand's positive moral CSR behavior will increase their levels of cheating in comparison to those exposed to negative moral CSR behavior. These effects, however, should only occur for those participants with a high (vs. low) self-brand overlap toward the brand sponsoring the CSR efforts.

Hypotheses

Study 2 is a conceptual replication of study 1, but with a new dependent measure that focuses on cheating. Thus, the proposed vicarious moral balancing effects should depend on the same two factors as in study 1: the CSR behavior of the brand and self-brand overlap. Exposure

to negative moral CSR behavior should lead participants to conduct moral cleansing behaviors by *decreasing* their levels of cheating while exposure to positive moral CSR behavior should lead participants to conduct moral licensing behaviors by *increasing* their levels of cheating. However, these effects should depend on levels of self-brand overlap or whether participants have extended their self to a brand conducting the CSR efforts. Based on these predictions, I propose a significant interaction effect between self-brand overlap and CSR behavior.

Note that the following predictions and hypothesis are similar to study 1 except for the cheating dependent variable and the absence of a neutral CSR behavior condition. The neutral condition was removed in study 2 as findings from study 1 showed that the vicarious moral licensing or cleansing effects found in high self-brand overlap participants were not driven by any one CSR behavior condition. In other words, since the vicarious moral licensing and moral cleansing effects were observed relative to the neutral condition, the neutral condition was removed from all subsequent studies to conserve experimental resources. The following sections will lay out proposed hypotheses comparing the influence of CSR behavior among high self-brand overlap participants and the influence of CSR behavior between high and low self-brand overlap participants.

Hypothesis among High Self-Brand Overlap Participants

I predict that exposure to positive moral CSR behavior should influence levels of cheating, but only for those participants with high self-brand overlap. Specifically, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior should allow high self-brand overlap participants to conduct vicarious moral licensing behavior by significantly increasing their levels of cheating in

comparison to those exposed to the negative moral CSR behavior condition. A specific hypothesis based on this prediction is as follows:

H3: Among high self-brand overlap participants, exposure to **positive** moral CSR behavior will significantly *increase* levels of cheating in comparison to those exposed to **negative** moral CSR behavior.

Hypotheses between High and Low Self-Brand Overlap Participants

I predict that exposure to positive moral CSR behavior should influence levels of cheating between high self-brand overlap participants and low self-brand overlap participants. Specifically, among those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants should conduct vicarious moral licensing behavior by significantly increasing their levels of cheating in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants. A specific hypothesis based on this prediction is as follows:

H4a: Among those exposed to **positive** moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants will significantly *increase* their levels of cheating in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants.

At the same time, exposure to negative moral CSR behavior should also influence levels of cheating between high and low self-brand overlap participants. Specifically, among those exposed to negative moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants should conduct

vicarious moral cleansing behavior by significantly decreasing their levels of cheating in comparison to the low self-brand overlap participants. A specific hypothesis based on this prediction is as follows:

H4b: Among those exposed to **negative** moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants will significantly *decrease* their levels of cheating in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants.

Null Prediction

Among low self-brand overlap participants, I predict no significant difference in levels of cheating between those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior or negative moral CSR behavior.

Study 2

Method

Study 2 followed a similar research design and procedure as in study 1. The research design in study 2 was the same as before except the removal of the neutral CSR behavior condition. Participants also followed a similar procedure as in study 1 including the same self-brand overlap measure and the same CSR behavior manipulations. The key difference in study 2 was the use of a math and vocabulary task to incentivize and measure levels of cheating.

Participants and Design. A total of 60 participants at a large southwestern university received course credit for completing the study. The data from seven participants were removed for recognizing the true nature of the study. This left a final sample of 53 participants (60.4% female, $M_{age} = 21.7$ years, $SD = 4.33$). The study used a 2 (self-brand overlap: low vs. high) x 2 (moral CSR behavior: negative vs. positive) between-subjects design.

Procedure. Participants completed a modified version of the Inclusion of Other in the Self scale (Aron et. al. 1992) to measure self-brand overlap toward Nike by selecting between a set of seven overlapping circles containing the word ‘Self’ or ‘Brand’. Participants received the same set of instructions as in study 1 and were asked to indicate their relationship with Nike by selecting the set of circles best representing their level of overlap with self and brand (see appendix A). To disguise the true purpose of study 2, the self-brand overlap measure was placed in an unrelated study that preceded study 2. To also hide the true nature of the experiment, participants were told that one purpose of the study was to measure what they were thinking at the moment, which included completing the 20-item state self-esteem scale ($\alpha = .89$; Heatherton and Polivy 1991).

Next, to manipulate CSR behavior, participants were randomly assigned to one of two conditions: positive moral CSR behavior or negative moral CSR behavior. To manipulate positive moral CSR behavior, participants were asked to read the same hypothetical Associated Press news article about Nike’s decision to join the Sustainable Apparel Coalition from study 1 (see appendix B for the full article). To manipulate negative moral CSR behavior, participants read the same hypothetical Associated Press news article about Nike’s decision to not join the Sustainable Apparel Coalition from study 1 (see appendix C for the full article). As in study 1,

participants also completed several potential process measures including the 10-item self-importance of moral identity scale (Aquino and Reed 2002) composed of five items to measure internalization ($\alpha = .80$) and five items to measure symbolization ($\alpha = .89$) as well as the four item scale of moral self-assessment ($\alpha = .87$) by Khan and Dhar (2006).

To further hide the connection of the moral CSR behavior manipulations and the dependent variable task, participants were told to move on to the next study. In this 'new' study, participants were given instructions (see appendix G for the full task instructions) to complete a series of math and vocabulary questions in order to supposedly measure their enjoyment of tasks when rewards for performance are offered. Participants were assigned to individual rooms during the study and told that they would have 10 minutes to solve 10 questions (see appendix H for a list of the questions). To incentivize cheating behavior, participants were told that they would be compensated based on how quickly they answered the 10 questions and how many questions they got right. Two packets were placed near the survey computer. One packet contained the set of questions and the other packet contained answers for the questions. They were told that the research assistant could not grade their performance and that they would have to do it themselves, which gave them the opportunity to cheat if they so desired. They were told to start an online stopwatch and to either stop the clock after 10 minutes had passed or when they completed all 10 questions. The first dependent measure of cheating was the time participants indicated that they spent answering the questions in comparison to the actual time spent answering the questions. A greater difference indicates more cheating.

Similar to before, a second dependent measure of cheating was given to participants in order to test whether any effects from the moral CSR behavior manipulations would carry over or be exhausted from the first dependent measure task. As before, I propose that the goal process

explanation is more likely if participants *do not* continue to cleanse or license their moral behaviors past the first dependent measure of cheating. Null effects in the second measure of cheating may indicate goal satiation and sufficient balancing of the goal of being a moral person. The second dependent measure of cheating was how many questions participants indicated that they answered correctly.

Following the dependent measures, participants completed manipulation checks, which are discussed in the next section, the same 3-item modified Nike brand knowledge measure ($\alpha = .89$) from study 1, the same 6-item attitude toward CSR measure ($\alpha = .97$) from study 1, age, gender, political orientation, ethnicity, and first language. Finally, participants completed a debriefing task in which seven participants correctly hypothesized that the study was testing levels of honesty or morality.

Manipulation and Confound Checks. Participants answered the same questions from study 1 to check whether the Associated Press articles manipulated the moral CSR behavior conditions as intended, but did not significantly differ in other respects. The CSR behavior manipulations worked as intended and did not introduce any known confounds.

Participants were asked, using 7-point semantic differential scales, whether Nike's decision to join (positive moral CSR behavior condition) or not join (negative moral CSR behavior condition) the Sustainable Apparel Coalition was 1) immoral vs. moral; 2) not at all important vs. very important; 3) controlled by outside events/sources vs. controlled by Nike; and 4) unethical vs. ethical. Confirming the effectiveness of the CSR behavior manipulations, the articles significantly differed in terms of perceived morality ($M_{positive} = 6.45, SD = 1.09$ vs. $M_{negative} = 2.46, SD = 1.62; F(1, 51) = 114, p < .001$) and perceived ethicality ($M_{positive} = 6.28, SD$

= 1.10 vs. $M_{negative} = 2.46$, $SD = 1.47$; $F(1, 51) = 117$, $p < .001$). As expected, confound checks of the articles revealed no significant differences in terms of the perceived importance of the decision or the perceived control over the decision to ban (or not ban) the use of formaldehyde in the manufacturing of clothing between the positive moral CSR behavior condition and the negative moral CSR behavior condition.

Replicating earlier findings, confound checks from six additional questions found no significant differences between the positive moral CSR behavior condition and the negative moral CSR behavior condition in terms of the believability, interestingness, or writing quality of the Nike articles and the importance, interestingness, or personal level of impact of the formaldehyde issue used in the Nike articles. In summary, these data indicate that the manipulations worked as expected and did not introduce any known confounds.

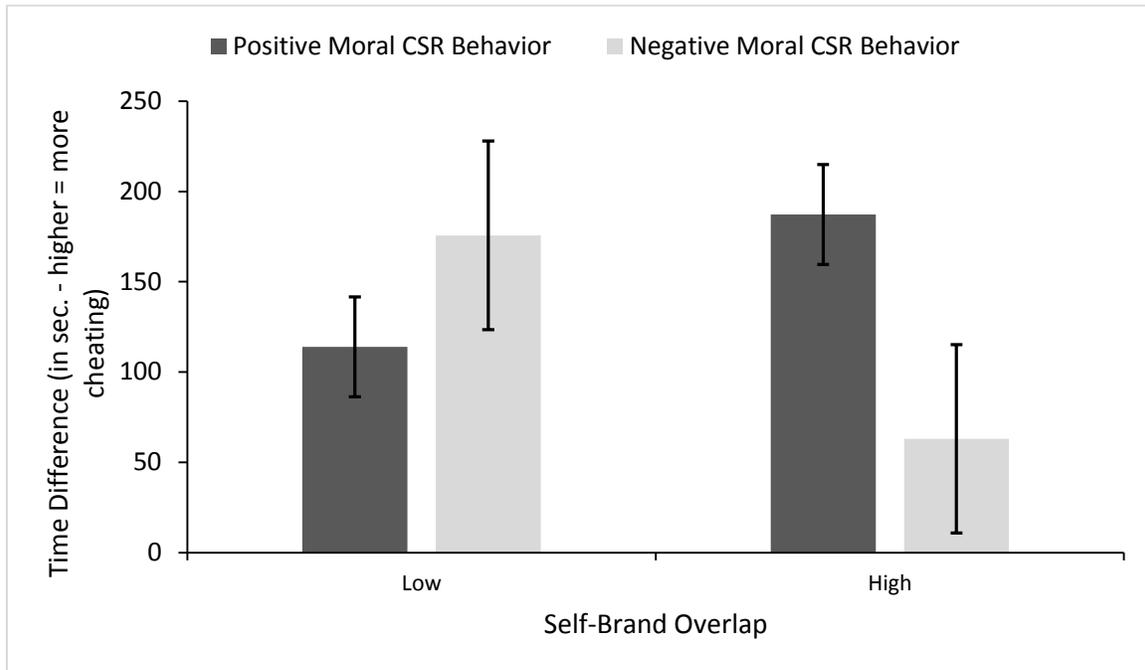
Results

There are two dependent variables in this study. The first dependent measure is the difference between the time participants stated that they spent on the series of 10 questions and the time participants actually spent on the task. Actual time spent on the task was measured covertly through a timer on the survey software page in which participants inadvertently started by indicating that they understood the instructions for the task. A greater discrepancy between the participant's stated time and actual time indicates more cheating. The second dependent measure is the number of questions correctly answered on the task. Unfortunately, there was no way to tell if participants actually cheated on this task, as it was deemed more important to ensure anonymity than to get an actual recording of the number of questions they answered

correctly. However, participants may still inflate the number of questions they answered correctly, especially those participants exposed to the positive moral CSR behavior condition. The following variables did not impact the results and were excluded from all analyses: 1) self-esteem; 2) the symbolization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale; 3) the internalization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale; 4) the moral self-assessment scale; 5) Nike brand knowledge; 6) CSR attitudes; 7) age; 8) gender; 9) political orientation; 10) ethnicity; and 11) first language.

Time Difference. I ran a hierarchical regression analysis with self-brand overlap (contrast-coded) and moral CSR behavior (contrast-coded) entered in the first step, and the interaction term of self-brand overlap and moral CSR behavior entered in the second step on the time difference dependent measure. Self-brand overlap was a significant predictor in the second model ($\beta = 27.6$, $t(49) = 2.65$, $p < .05$; 95% CI [6.70, 48.5]) as was the interaction term ($\beta = -70.0$, $t(49) = -3.15$, $p < .01$; 95% CI [-115, -25.3]). The addition of the interaction term in the second model significantly increased the amount of variance explained by 15.8% ($f^2 = .202$). To explore the nature of the interaction, planned comparisons were made between moral CSR behaviors (negative vs. positive) and self-brand overlap (low vs. high), which is illustrated in figure 4. As self-brand overlap is a continuous measure, a spotlight analysis was performed at plus and minus one standard deviation from the mean of self-brand overlap (Aiken and West 1991). These planned comparisons test the proposed hypotheses.

FIGURE 4: PARTICIPANTS' CHEATING BEHAVIOR BY SELF-BRAND OVERLAP (LOW -1SD VS. HIGH +1SD) AND CSR BEHAVIOR (STUDY 2)



As predicted, among high self-brand overlap participants, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior significantly increased levels of cheating in comparison to those exposed to negative moral CSR behavior ($\beta = -124$, $t(49) = -3.37$, $p = .001$; 95% CI [-198, -50.0]). Therefore, hypothesis 3 is supported. In addition, among those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants significantly increased their levels of cheating in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants ($\beta = -42.4$, $t(49) = -2.16$, $p < .05$; 95% CI [-81.8, -2.89]). Therefore, hypothesis 4a is supported. Also, among those exposed to negative moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants significantly decreased their levels of cheating in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants ($\beta = 27.6$, $t(49) = 2.65$, $p < .05$;

95% CI [6.70, 48.5]). Therefore, hypothesis 4b is supported. For a summary of the results, see table 2 below.

Table 2

CHEATING TASK SUMMARY OF RESULTS (STUDY 2)

Hypothesis	CSR Behavior/SBO	Consumer Behavior (in comparison to)	CSR Behavior/SBO
H3*	Positive/High	Increase in cheating	Negative/High
H4a*	Positive/High	Increase in cheating	Positive/Low
H4b*	Negative/High	Decrease in cheating	Negative/Low

Note: Self-Brand Overlap (SBO) and * indicates hypothesis was supported ($p < .05$).

As predicted, among low self-brand overlap participants, there was no significant difference in levels of cheating between those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior or negative moral CSR behavior ($\beta = 61.7$, $t(49) = 1.56$, $p > .1$; 95% CI [-17.9, 141]).

Questions Answered Correctly. I ran a hierarchical regression analysis with self-brand overlap (contrast-coded) and moral CSR behavior (contrast-coded) entered in the first step and the interaction of self-brand overlap and moral CSR behavior entered in the second step. There were no significant main effects or a significant interaction to report. Implications of this null finding will be addressed in the discussion section.

Process Explanations. Three measures of moral self-concept were examined as potential mediators of the relationship between CSR behavior and cheating as moderated by self-brand overlap. These measures include: 1) the internalization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale; 2) the symbolization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale; and 3) the moral self-assessment scale. All moderated mediation analyses were conducted using the PROCESS SPSS macro developed by Hayes (2013). None of the analyses revealed full or partial moderated mediation for any of the three measures. Thus, there is no evidence to support that changes in moral self-concept account for the vicarious moral balancing effects found in this study. Implications of these findings will be discussed in the discussion section.

Discussion

Study 2 replicates and extends the results of study 1. As in study 1, results indicate that CSR behavior can drive vicarious moral licensing and cleansing effects for high self-brand overlap participants. Study 2, however, extends the vicarious moral balancing effect to negative moral consumer behavior (i.e., cheating). Specifically, among high self-brand overlap participants in study 2, those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior exhibited vicarious moral licensing effects by increasing their levels of cheating in comparison to those exposed to negative moral CSR behavior. In addition, among those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants exhibited vicarious moral licensing effects by significantly increasing their levels of cheating in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants. Also, among those exposed to negative moral CSR behavior, high self-brand

overlap participants exhibited vicarious moral cleansing effects by significantly decreasing their levels of cheating in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants.

Findings from study 2 replicate earlier findings that vicarious moral balancing effects are only obtained when CSR behavior is tied to the self. Low self-brand overlap participants did not significantly differ in their levels of cheating after being exposed to positive moral CSR behavior or negative moral CSR behavior.

Study 2 provides further support to my argument that changes in moral goal progress might be driving the vicarious moral licensing and cleansing effects. Evidence to support this argument is similar to what was found in study 1. In study 2, the three potential process measures of moral self-concept failed to fully or partially mediate the vicarious moral balancing effects. In addition, only the first dependent measure task used in study 2 (i.e., time difference on the math and vocabulary task) revealed the predicted vicarious balancing effects. Levels of cheating as measured by the number of questions answered correctly on the math and vocabulary task was not significantly different between moral CSR behavior conditions. However, based on goal regulation theory, the first measure of cheating may have satiated the goal of being a moral person.

In summary, studies 1 and 2 have found evidence for vicarious moral licensing effects. The next chapter focuses on testing two methods to address the potentially negative influence of CSR efforts on the moral behavior of consumers.

CHAPTER 5: MAKING CONSUMERS MORE MINDFUL: ALLEVIATING VICARIOUS MORAL LICENSING BEHAVIOR

Literature addressing the unintended negative consequences of CSR efforts on firms is growing (e.g., Yoon, Gurhna-Canli, and Schwarz 2006; Torelli, Monga, and Kaikati 2012; Luchs et al. 2010). However, this dissertation provides the first evidence that CSR efforts can negatively influence the moral behavior of consumers (i.e., vicarious moral licensing behaviors). Thus, while the vicarious moral licensing effect is an interesting phenomenon from an academic perspective, it raises negative managerial implications that need to be addressed. Specifically, managers considering the use of CSR efforts may be dissuaded if they discover that it leads to negative consequences for consumers. This is unacceptable given that many firms and causes benefit from the use of CSR efforts. Therefore, methods to eliminate the vicarious moral licensing effect are needed.

The purpose of this chapter is to present study 3 and study 4, which tests two methods that make participants more mindful of their moral behavior and their moral decision making process as a means to eliminate the negative influence of CSR behavior on the moral behavior of consumers. I propose that participants who exhibited vicarious moral balancing effects in prior studies may have used a more internalized, inaccessible, and automatic process similar to what has been proposed by researchers like Haidt (2001). If this is true, it might be possible to eliminate the vicarious moral licensing effect by making participants more mindful of their moral behavior and their moral decision making process. Specifically, study 3 examines whether making high self-brand overlap participants more mindful of their moral decision making process after being exposed to positive moral CSR behavior will eliminate the vicarious moral

licensing effect. Study 4 examines whether inducing dissonance in high self-brand overlap participants by making them more mindful of a discrepancy between their prior moral behavior and the behavior advocated by a brand's CSR efforts will also eliminate the vicarious moral licensing effect.

Study 3 Hypotheses

Based on earlier studies, the vicarious moral licensing effect depends on two factors: the CSR behavior of the brand and self-brand overlap. Study 1 and study 2 showed that positive moral CSR behavior led to vicarious moral licensing effects in high (vs. low) self-brand overlap participants. Thus, the CSR behavior in study 3 contains only one level: positive moral CSR behavior. I propose that vicarious moral licensing effects are less likely to occur if consumers are made more mindful of their moral decision making process after being exposed to positive moral CSR behavior, but only for those with a high self-brand overlap. To make this process more mindful, participants will be asked to consider and then state their own behavioral intentions based on the positive moral CSR behavior of a brand. Study 3 contains three types of consumer behavior intentions: positive moral intentions, negative moral intentions, and neutral intentions. The purpose of adding the neutral intentions measure was to confirm that the underlying vicarious effects between brands and consumer are moral in nature.

In summary, I propose that making the moral decision process more mindful should eliminate vicarious moral licensing effects in high self-brand overlap participants. The following section will lay out proposed hypotheses comparing the influence of positive moral CSR behavior between high self-brand overlap participants and low self-brand overlap participants.

Hypotheses between High and Low Self-Brand Overlap Participants

I predict that exposure to positive moral CSR behavior should influence the stated moral behavioral intentions of those participants with high (vs. low) self-brand overlap when their moral decision making process is made more mindful and relevant to the individual.

Specifically, high self-brand overlap participants should increase their positive moral behavioral intentions and decrease their negative moral behavioral intentions in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants. Specific hypotheses based on these predictions are as follows:

H5a: High self-brand overlap participants will state significantly *greater* positive moral behavioral intentions after being exposed to positive moral CSR behavior in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants.

H5b: High self-brand overlap participants will state significantly *lower* negative moral behavioral intentions after being exposed to positive moral CSR behavior in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants.

Null Prediction

Making the moral decision process more mindful after exposure to positive moral CSR behavior should have no influence on the neutral behavioral intentions of low or high self-brand overlap participants as neutral behaviors are not moral in nature.

Study 3

Method

Participants and Design. A total of 60 Mturk participants received a small monetary compensation for completing the study. The data from 12 participants were removed for not following directions as they did not indicate a verifiable brand as a sponsor of CSR behavior. This left a final sample of 48 participants (41.7% female, $M_{age} = 31.3$ years, $SD = 9.74$). The study used a 2 cell design of self-brand overlap: low vs. high.

Procedure. Participants completed a task using a modified version of the Inclusion of Other in the Self scale (Aron et al. 1992) to manipulate self-brand overlap. To manipulate low self-brand overlap, participants were asked to choose a brand that they do not have a close relationship with as indicated by a set of circles with lesser overlap between ‘Self’ and ‘Brand’ (see appendix I for full instructions). To manipulate high self-brand overlap, participants were asked to choose a brand they do have a have a close relationship with as indicated by a set of circles with greater overlap between ‘Self’ and ‘Brand’ (see appendix J for full instructions). Thus, the self-brand overlap conditions were determined by participants choosing their own brand rather than experimentally assigning a brand to them. There are several advantages to this approach. Having participants chose their own brand increases external validity to a wide range of brands and industries (see appendix K for the full list of brands, which confirms the diversity of brands and industries chosen by participants). In addition, there may be something about the use of Nike in earlier studies that specifically influences moral balancing effects. The potential

disadvantage of this method is reduced internal validity that arises from underlying differences between the brands and industries chosen. I propose that the advantages outweigh the disadvantage of manipulating self-brand overlap.

Next, participants were asked to imagine that the brand they chose earlier performed a series of positive moral CSR behaviors and to list what those behaviors might be (see appendix L for full instructions). The positive moral CSR behavior condition was determined by participants choosing which behaviors they personally considered to be moral rather than experimentally assigning a specific CSR behavior to them. There are several advantages to this approach. Having participants choose their own positive moral CSR behaviors increases external validity to a wide range of CSR behaviors (see appendix M for a sample of positive moral CSR behaviors, which confirms the diversity of behaviors listed by participants). In addition, there may be something about the use of the formaldehyde issue in earlier studies that specifically influences moral balancing effects. The potential disadvantage of this approach is reduced internal validity that arises from underlying differences between the positive moral CSR behaviors chosen. I propose that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages of using this method to induce positive moral CSR behavior.

Next, participants completed a dependent measure task consisting of their behavioral intentions toward positive moral behaviors, negative moral behaviors, and neutral behaviors. To make the moral decision making process more mindful, participants were asked to imagine how their own behavior might change if they found out the brand they chose actually conducted the positive moral CSR behaviors they listed earlier. Next, using 5-point scales (1 – Much Less than Before to 5 – Much More than Before), participants rated how their behavioral intentions would change toward three negative moral behaviors (e.g., “I would lie about something important”),

three positive moral behaviors (e.g., “I would volunteer”), and four neutral behaviors (e.g., “I would watch television”) (see appendix N for the complete list of behaviors and instructions). This task was followed by the following question, “Do you have a goal of being a moral/ethical person?”.

Following the dependent measures, participants completed several control measures including the attitude toward CSR measure ($\alpha = .95$), age, gender, political orientation, ethnicity, and first language. At the end of the survey, participants completed a debriefing task.

Pretest

A separate sample of 61 Mturk participants received a small monetary compensation for completing a pretest (56% female, $M_{age} = 34.0$ years, $SD = 12.8$) to confirm the underlying moral nature of the three dependent measures used in study 3. Participants were asked to indicate how moral they thought the 10 behaviors (see appendix N) were using a 7-point scale (1 – Very Immoral Behavior, 4 – Neutral Behavior, and 7 – Very Moral Behavior). As expected, a repeated measures ANOVA showed a significant difference among the three groups of behaviors ($M_{negative} = 1.82$, $SD = .749$ vs. $M_{neutral} = 4.17$, $SD = .703$ vs. $M_{positive} = 6.49$, $SD = .696$; $F(2, 120) = 621$, $p < .001$) while planned pairwise comparisons revealed significant differences between each group and in the anticipated direction ($ps < .001$).

Results

There are three dependent variables in this study including the average behavioral intentions for 1) the three positive moral consumer behaviors ($\alpha = .84$); 2) the three negative moral consumer behaviors ($\alpha = .94$); and 3) the four neutral consumer behaviors ($\alpha = .67$). The following variables did not impact the results and were excluded from all analyses: 1) whether participants have the goal of being a moral/ethical person; 2) CSR attitudes; 3) age; 4) gender; 5) political orientation; 6) ethnicity; and 7) first language.

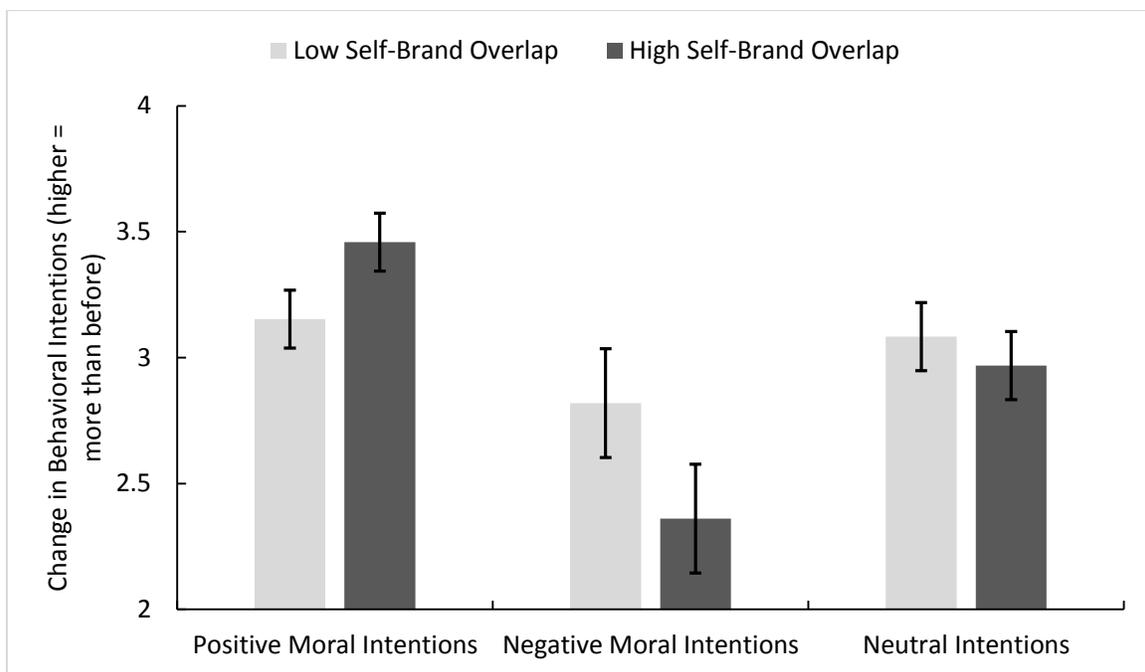
Positive Moral Consumer Behaviors. I ran a linear regression analysis with self-brand overlap (contrast-coded) on the average behavioral intentions toward positive moral consumer behavior. Self-brand overlap was a significant predictor in the model ($\beta = .306$, $t(46) = 2.66$, $p < .05$; 95% CI [.074, .537]) indicating a positive relationship between self-brand overlap and intentions to conduct positive moral consumer behavior ($M_{\text{low}} = 3.15$, $SD = .295$ vs. $M_{\text{high}} = 3.46$, $SD = .480$; see figure 5). In other words, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior increased positive moral consumer behavior intentions for high vs. low self-brand overlap participants. Therefore, hypothesis 5a is supported.

Negative Moral Consumer Behaviors. I ran a linear regression analysis with self-brand overlap (contrast-coded) on the average behavioral intentions toward negative moral consumer behavior. Self-brand overlap was a significant predictor in the model ($\beta = -.458$, $t(46) = -2.12$, $p < .05$; 95% CI [-.893, -.024]) indicating a negative relationship between self-brand overlap and intentions to conduct negative moral consumer behavior ($M_{\text{low}} = 2.82$, $SD = .629$ vs. $M_{\text{high}} = 2.36$,

$SD = .851$; see figure 5). In other words, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior decreased negative moral consumer behavior intentions for high vs. low self-brand overlap participants.

Therefore, hypothesis 5b is supported.

FIGURE 5: PARTICIPANTS' BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS BY SELF-BRAND OVERLAP (STUDY 3)



Neutral Consumer Behaviors. I ran a linear regression analysis with self-brand overlap (contrast-coded) on the average behavioral intentions toward neutral consumer behavior. As predicted, self-brand overlap was not a significant predictor in the model ($\beta = -.115$, $t(46) = -.846$, $p > .05$; 95% CI [-.387, .158]) indicating a lack of relationship between self-brand overlap and intentions to conduct neutral consumer behavior ($M_{low} = 3.08$, $SD = .373$ vs. $M_{high} = 2.97$, $SD = .548$; see figure 5). In other words, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior had no

significant influence on neutral consumer behavior intentions for high or low self-brand overlap participants.

Discussion

Findings from study 3 provides evidence that making the moral decision process more mindful can eliminate vicarious moral licensing effects. Specifically, for high self-brand overlap participants, more mindful moral decision making led to a significant increase in their intentions to conduct positive moral consumer behaviors in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants. This method reversed vicarious moral licensing findings obtained in study 1 showing that exposure to positive moral CSR behavior decreased positive moral consumer behavior (i.e., generosity) in high self-brand overlap participants. Findings from study 3 also show that for high self-brand overlap participants, more mindful moral decision making led to a significant decrease in their intentions to conduct negative moral consumer behaviors in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants. This method reversed findings obtained in study 2 showing that exposure to positive moral CSR behavior increased negative moral consumer behavior (i.e., cheating) in high self-brand overlap participants.

Results from study 3 also show that for low self-brand overlap participants, more mindful moral decision making had no significant influence on their positive or negative moral behavioral intentions. This is important as response bias is one alternative explanation for the reversal of the moral licensing effect found in high self-brand overlap participants. However, if this is true, low self-brand overlap participants should have also inflated their intentions to conduct greater amounts of positive moral consumer behaviors and lesser amounts of negative

moral consumer behaviors. Instead, it is more likely that for low self-brand overlap participants, more mindful moral decision making in relation to the positive moral CSR behavior of a brand that they do not have a psychologically close relationship had no influence on their moral behavioral intentions. In addition, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior had no significant influence on neutral consumer behavior intentions regardless of self-brand overlap, which points to the underlying moral nature of the effects obtained in study 3.

In summary, findings from study 3 reveal that making the moral decision process more mindful is one potential method to address the negative implications of positive moral CSR behavior on the vicarious moral licensing behaviors of high self-brand overlap participants. However, behavioral intentions are different than actual behavior. Thus, study 4 tests an additional method to alleviate the vicarious moral licensing effect using actual generosity behavior by making participants mindful of a discrepancy between their prior moral behavior and the behavior advocated by a brand's CSR efforts.

Study 4 Hypotheses

An additional method to eliminate vicarious licensing effects and to make moral behavior more mindful comes from research that highlights the importance individuals place on consistency (Festinger 1962). According to cognitive dissonance theory, inconsistency creates dissonance or psychological discomfort, which is motivational in nature. For instance, prior research has shown that failure to conduct an advocated behavior is hypocritical (i.e., inconsistent), which induces dissonance, and motivates individuals to act consistently by pursuing more of the advocated behavior (Stone et al. 1994). Dissonance can also occur by

viewing inconsistencies in others who share an important identity. For instance, Focella et al. (2014) showed that exposure to a highly identified in-group member who is being hypocritical about an advocated behavior motivates other in-group members to participate in that behavior as a means to reduce dissonance (i.e., vicarious hypocrisy). Similarly, brands advocate and actively support particular behaviors and causes by participating in CSR efforts. For instance, Nike's Reuse-A-Shoe initiative is a CSR effort that encourages consumers to recycle their old shoes so that the materials can be used for creating new athletic surfaces and clothing (Nike 2014).

I propose that high (vs. low) self-brand overlap participants may feel dissonance if they are more mindful of their personal failure to conduct behaviors that are advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand. This dissonance should create the motivation to pursue activities that are in line with the advocated behavior. Thus, inducing dissonance and a sense of hypocrisy in participants may be an additional method to potentially eliminating vicarious moral licensing effects in high self-brand overlap consumers.

Based on earlier studies, the vicarious moral licensing effect depends on two factors: the CSR behavior of the brand and self-brand overlap. Study 1 and study 2 showed that positive moral CSR behavior led to vicarious moral licensing effects in high (vs. low) self-brand overlap participants. Thus, the CSR behavior in study 4 contains only one level: positive moral CSR behavior. I propose that vicarious moral licensing effects are less likely to occur if participants are made mindful of a discrepancy between their prior moral behavior and the behavior advocated by a brand's CSR efforts. In other words, past failure to conduct a behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand should induce dissonance, and specifically, a feeling of vicarious hypocrisy (Focella et al. 2014). The presence of dissonance should motivate consumers to act consistently by pursuing more of the advocated CSR behavior, which should eliminate vicarious

moral licensing effects. However, vicarious hypocrisy is likely to occur only for those individuals that have a close relationship with the brand conducting the CSR efforts. This prediction is supported by research showing that the vicarious hypocrisy effect occurs for in-group members (Focella et al. 2014), but this study expands the effect to those with high self-brand overlap.

Based on these predictions, I propose a significant interaction effect between prior success or failure to conduct the advocated CSR behavior and self-brand overlap. The following sections will lay out proposed hypotheses comparing the influence of positive moral CSR behavior and prior success or failure to conduct the advocated CSR behavior among high self-brand overlap participants and the influence of positive moral CSR behavior and prior success or failure to conduct the advocated CSR behavior between high and low self-brand overlap participants.

Hypothesis among High Self-Brand Overlap Participants

I predict that prior failure to conduct the advocated CSR behavior should influence levels of generosity, but only for those with high self-brand overlap. Specifically, among high self-brand overlap participants, failure to personally conduct a brand's advocated CSR behavior should induce dissonance and lead to vicarious moral cleansing behavior or a significant increase in levels of generosity in comparison to those who have succeeded in conducting a brand's advocated CSR behavior. It is possible that low self-brand overlap participants would feel dissonance from prior failure to conduct the behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand. However, I propose that dissonance will not be present or at least lower for low self-brand

overlap participants who have not advocated for the particular CSR behavior, which prior research shows is an important component to induce hypocrisy (e.g., Stone and Fernandez 2008).

A specific hypothesis based on these predictions is as follows:

H6: Among high self-brand overlap participants, those who have personally **failed** to conduct the behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand will significantly *increase* their levels of generosity in comparison to those who have **succeeded** in conducting the behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand.

Hypotheses between High and Low Self-Brand Overlap Participants

I predict that prior failure to conduct the advocated CSR behavior should also influence levels of generosity between high self-brand overlap participants and low self-brand overlap participants. Specifically, among those participants who have failed to personally conduct a brand's advocated CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants should feel dissonance and conduct vicarious moral cleansing behavior by significantly increasing their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants. A specific hypothesis based on this prediction is as follows:

H7a: High self-brand overlap participants who have **failed** to personally conduct the behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand will significantly *increase* their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants who have **failed** to personally conduct the advocated CSR behavior.

At the same time, among those who have succeeded in personally conducting a brand's advocated CSR behavior, high self-brand overlap participants should feel no dissonance and conduct vicarious moral licensing behavior by significantly decreasing their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants. Thus, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior and prior success in personally conducting the advocated CSR behavior should replicate the vicarious moral licensing effect found in prior studies for high (vs. low) self-brand overlap participants. A specific hypothesis based on this prediction is as follows:

H7b: High self-brand overlap participants who have **succeeded** in personally conducting the behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand will significantly *decrease* their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants who have **succeeded** in personally conducting the advocated CSR behavior.

Null Prediction

Among low self-brand overlap participants, I predict no significant difference in levels of generosity between those who have failed or succeeded in personally conducting the behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand. In other words, for low self-brand overlap participants, taking part or not taking part in behaviors advocated by a brand they hold no psychologically close relationship with should not be personally relevant or significantly affect their levels of generosity.

Study 4

Method

Participants and Design. A total of 83 participants at a large southwestern university received course credit for completing the study. The data from six participants were removed for recognizing the true nature of the study. This left a final sample of 77 participants (36.4% female, $M_{age} = 21.5$ years, $SD = 2.88$). The study used a 2 (self-brand overlap: low vs. high) x 2 (prior donation behavior: succeeded vs. failed) between-subjects design.

CSR Behavior and Brand. Studies 1 and 2 have shown that positive moral CSR behavior led some participants to be less generous and cheat more (i.e., vicarious moral licensing effect). Therefore, only positive moral CSR behavior will be used in this study. However, the CSR behavior performed by Nike in prior studies is not particularly relevant for study 4. Specifically, most consumers are not in the position to decide corporate policy in regards to the use of formaldehyde in the manufacturing of clothing. Therefore, inducing dissonance is unlikely if the prior Nike scenario was used in this study.

A new brand (i.e., Apple) and CSR scenario (i.e., charitable donations) was used in study 4, which holds several benefits. One, using a new brand and CSR scenario will increase the generalizability of the vicarious balancing effect as well as solutions to address the negative externalities associated with CSR efforts. Two, it is likely that individuals vary in their past donation behavior. Therefore, inducing dissonance is more likely to occur when using charitable donations as the advocated CSR behavior.

Procedure. Participants completed a modified version of the Inclusion of Other in the Self scale (Aron et. al. 1992) to measure self-brand overlap toward Apple by selecting between a set of seven overlapping circles containing the word ‘Self’ or ‘Brand’. Participants received the same set of instructions as in studies 1 and 2 and were asked to indicate their relationship with Apple by selecting the set of circles best representing their level of overlap with self and brand (see appendix A). To disguise the true purpose of study 4, the self-brand overlap measure was placed in an unrelated study that preceded study 4.

Next, to manipulate positive moral CSR behavior, all participants read a fictional Associated Press article about Apple (see appendix O for the full article) and their decision to introduce a new program that donates older generation Apple devices to educators in low-income school districts. The article described recent cuts to education, how the program would benefit educators, and how Apple was encouraging its loyal customer-base to participate in the program. After reading the article, participants completed the following true/false manipulation check, “Apple is offering a donation program to benefit low-income school districts?”. No one failed the manipulation check. Next, participants were asked to fill in the blank for the following question, “Apple hopes that loyal (fill in the blank) will join the effort by donating their used personal devices.” All participants correctly identified ‘customers’ as the answer.

To measure past donation behavior, participants were asked the following question: “In general, customers do not often donate to low-income school districts. Is this true for your household?”. A total of 28 participants selected ‘Yes’ indicating prior failure to conduct the donation behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand while a total of 49 participants selected ‘No’ indicating prior success in conducting the CSR behavior.

As in prior studies, participants completed several potential process measures including the 10-item self-importance of moral identity scale composed of five items to measure internalization ($\alpha = .67$) and five items to measure symbolization ($\alpha = .83$). This was followed by the PANAS to measure positive mood (PANAS-POS; $\alpha = .91$) and negative mood (PANAS-NEG; $\alpha = .82$).

To further hide the connection of the positive moral CSR behavior condition and the past donation behavior question from the dependent variable task, participants were told to move on to the next study. In this ‘new’ study, participants completed the same dictator game described in study 1 to measure generosity behavior (see appendix E for the dictator game task). As a reminder, everyone plays the role of a sender that starts with an endowment of 10 entries into a drawing for a prize. The sender was given the decision, after ensuring for anonymity, to send between 0-10 entries to the hypothetical receiver. A self-interested and utility maximizing individual should send 0 entries to the receiver in order to keep all 10 for themselves. Thus, the amount of entries sent serves as a dependent measure of generosity.

This was followed by confound checks, which are discussed below, a 3-item modified Apple brand knowledge measure ($\alpha = .92$), the attitude toward CSR measure. ($\alpha = .88$), the number of Apple and non-Apple devices participants own, age, gender, political orientation, ethnicity, and first language. Finally, participants completed a debriefing task in which six participants correctly hypothesized that the study was testing levels of generosity or ethicality in relation to CSR efforts or Apple.

Confound Checks. Only one CSR article was used in study 4 to represent positive moral CSR behavior by Apple. Therefore, all confound checks were tested using one-sample t-tests

against the neutral value (4) or midpoint of a series of 7-point semantic differential scales.

Participants were asked, using 7-point semantic differential scales, whether Apple's decision to donate Apple products to low-income school districts was 1) immoral vs. moral; 2) not at all important vs. very important; 3) controlled by outside events/sources vs. controlled by Apple; and 4) unethical vs. ethical. As expected, participants rated Apple's decision to donate Apple products to low-income school districts as moral ($M = 6.61, SD = .672, t(76) = 34.1, p < .001$), important ($M = 6.38, SD = .987, t(76) = 21.1, p < .001$), controlled by Apple ($M = 4.64, SD = 1.66, t(76) = 3.36, p = .001$), and ethical ($M = 6.42, SD = .991, t(76) = 21.4, p < .001$).

In addition, participants rated the issue of donating to low-income school districts as important ($M = 6.52, SD = .736, t(76) = 30.0, p < .001$) and interesting ($M = 5.79, SD = 1.14, t(76) = 13.8, p < .001$). However, participants did not significantly differ from the neutral value in terms of whether the issue of donating to low-income school districts affects them personally, which provides a slightly more conservative case for the predicted effects ($M = 3.86, SD = 1.84, t(76) = -.681, p > .05$).

As expected, participants rated the Apple article as believable ($M = 5.86, SD = 1.01, t(76) = 16.1, p < .001$), interesting ($M = 5.19, SD = 1.29, t(76) = 8.14, p < .001$), and well-written ($M = 5.00, SD = 1.14, t(76) = 7.73, p < .001$). Additionally, participants believed that Apple's donation program would personally motivate them to donate their own used Apple devices ($M = 4.57, SD = 1.58, t(76) = 3.18, p < .01$). In summary, these data indicate that the positive moral CSR behavior article worked as intended and did not introduce any known confounds.

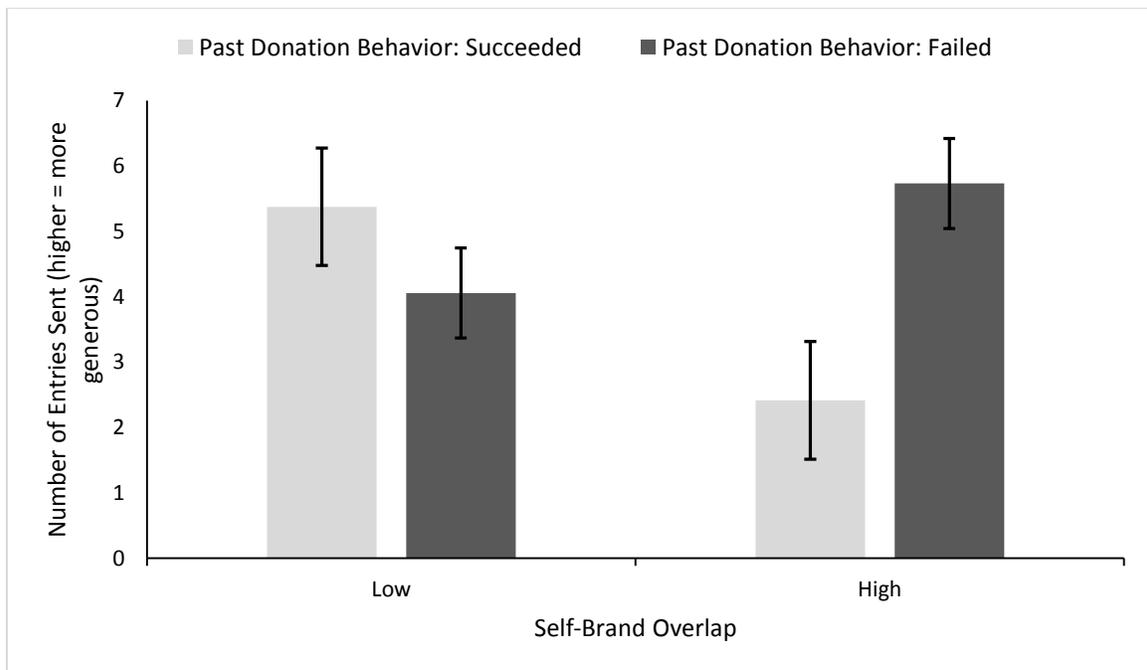
Results

The number of entries given during the dictator game served as the sole dependent measure of generosity. More entries given indicated greater amounts of generosity. The following variables did not impact the results and were excluded from all analyses: 1) the symbolization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale; 2) the number of Apple devices owned; 3) the number of non-Apple devices owned; 4) CSR attitudes; 5) Apple brand knowledge; 6) positive mood; 7) negative mood; 8) age; 9) gender; 10) political orientation; 11) ethnicity; and 12) first language. The internalization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale was a significant predictor in the model and was included as a covariate. However, the internalization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale did not significantly interact with the main independent variables. In addition, results did not change if this covariate was excluded from the model.

Dictator Game. I ran a hierarchical regression analysis with the internalization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale entered in the first step as a covariate, self-brand overlap (mean-centered) and the past donation behavior (contrast-coded) entered in the second step, and the interaction term of self-brand overlap and past donation behavior entered in the third step on the number of entries sent in the dictator game. The internalization subscale was a significant predictor in third model ($\beta = -1.02$, $t(72) = -2.48$, $p < .05$; 95% CI [-1.84, -.201]) as was self-brand overlap ($\beta = -1.19$, $t(72) = -3.91$, $p < .001$; 95% CI [-1.79, -.581]). As predicted, the interaction term was also a significant predictor in the model ($\beta = 1.86$, $t(72) = 4.53$, $p < .001$; 95% CI [1.04, 2.68]). The addition of the interaction term in the third model significantly

increased the amount of variance explained by 20.1% ($f^2 = .284$). To explore the nature of the interaction, planned comparisons were made between past donation behavior (succeeded vs. failed) and self-brand overlap (low vs. high), which is illustrated in figure 6. As self-brand overlap is a continuous measure, a spotlight analysis was performed at plus and minus one standard deviation from the mean of self-brand overlap (Aiken and West 1991). These planned comparisons test the proposed hypotheses.

FIGURE 6: PARTICIPANTS' GENEROSITY BEHAVIOR BY SELF-BRAND OVERLAP (LOW $-1SD$ VS. HIGH $+1SD$) AND PAST DONATION BEHAVIOR (STUDY 4)



As predicted, among high self-brand overlap participants, those who failed to conduct the behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand significantly increased their levels of

generosity in comparison to those who succeeded in conducting the advocated CSR behavior ($\beta = 3.32, t(72) = 4.53, p < .001; 95\% \text{ CI } [1.86, 4.78]$). Therefore, hypothesis 6 is supported. In addition, high self-brand overlap participants who failed to conduct the behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand significantly increased their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants who failed to personally conduct the advocated CSR behavior ($\beta = .672, t(72) = 2.43, p < .05; 95\% \text{ CI } [.121, 1.22]$). Therefore, hypothesis 7a is supported. Also, high self-brand overlap participants who succeeded in personally conducting the behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand significantly decreased their levels of generosity (i.e., vicarious moral licensing) in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants who succeeded in conducting the advocated CSR behavior ($\beta = -1.19, t(72) = -3.91, p < .001; 95\% \text{ CI } [-1.79, -.581]$). Therefore, hypothesis 7b is supported. For a summary of the results, see table 3 below.

Table 3

DICTATOR GAME SUMMARY OF RESULTS (STUDY 4)

Hypothesis	Prior Donation/SBO	Consumer Behavior (in comparison to)	Prior Donation/SBO
H6*	Failed/High	Increase in generosity	Succeeded/High
H7a*	Failed/High	Increase in generosity	Failed/Low
H7b*	Succeeded/High	Decrease in generosity	Succeeded/Low

Note: Self-Brand Overlap (SBO), * indicates hypothesis was supported ($p < .05$).

As expected, among low self-brand overlap participants, there was no significant difference in levels of generosity between those who have failed or succeeded in personally conducting the behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand ($\beta = -1.32$, $t(72) = -1.79$, $p > .05$; 95% CI [-2.79, 1.49]).

Process Explanations. Four measures were examined as potential mediators of the relationship between prior donation behavior and generosity as moderated by self-brand overlap. These measures include: 1) the internalization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale; 2) the symbolization subscale of the self-importance of moral identity scale; and 3) PANAS-POS to measure positive mood; and 4) PANAS-NEG to measure negative mood. All moderated mediation analyses were conducted using the PROCESS SPSS macro developed by Hayes (2013). None of the analyses revealed full or partial moderated mediation for any of the five measures. Thus, no evidence was found to support that changes in moral self-concept or mood account for the vicarious moral balancing effects. Implications of these findings will be discussed in the discussion section.

Discussion

Studies 1 and 2 provide evidence that vicarious moral licensing effects can occur between high self-brand overlap consumers and brands. The purpose of study 4 was to test a method to reverse these vicarious moral licensing effects by making participants mindful of a discrepancy between their prior moral behavior and the behavior advocated by a brand's CSR efforts. This

discrepancy should induce dissonance and motivate behaviors that are line with the advocated CSR behavior.

As hypothesized, the negative spillover effects from positive moral CSR behavior can be mitigated and even reversed by inducing dissonance in high (vs. low) self-brand overlap participants. Specifically, the failure of some high self-brand overlap participants to donate to low-income school districts may have created a sense of hypocrisy and dissonance. To reduce this dissonance, high self-brand overlap participants significantly increased their levels of generosity in comparison to other high self-brand overlap participants who succeeded in conducting the advocated CSR behavior and low self-brand overlap participants who failed to conduct the advocated CSR behavior. The hypocrisy method not only mitigated vicarious moral licensing effects, but effectively reversed earlier findings obtained in study 1 showing that exposure to positive moral CSR behavior decreased positive moral consumer behavior (i.e., generosity) in high self-brand overlap participants. This makes the hypocrisy method particularly useful as reversing vicarious moral licensing behavior is preferred to merely eliminating these effects.

The presence of hypocrisy is a necessary factor in this study as the vicarious moral licensing effect was not reversed when high self-brand overlap participants succeeded in conducting behaviors advocated by a brand's CSR efforts. In fact, findings from study 4 show that exposure to positive moral CSR behavior and prior success in personally conducting the advocated CSR behavior (i.e., donating to low-income school districts) replicated the vicarious moral licensing effect found in earlier studies for high (vs. low) self-brand overlap participants.

Similar to prior findings, results from study 4 show that among low self-brand overlap participants, there was no significant difference in levels of generosity between those who failed

or succeeded in personally conducting the behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand. Thus, for low self-brand overlap participants, taking part or not taking part in behaviors advocated by a brand they hold no psychologically close relationship with was not personally relevant and did not affect levels of generosity.

Study 4 provides further support to my argument that changes in moral goal progress might be driving the vicarious moral balancing effects. Evidence to support this argument is similar to what was found in earlier studies. Specifically, study 4 shows that several possible process measures (e.g., moral self-concept scales, positive mood, and negative mood) failed to fully or partially mediate the vicarious moral balancing effects. In addition, the presence of hypocrisy may have reversed the vicarious moral licensing effect by reactivating the goal of being a moral person by signaling insufficient progress toward the goal of being a moral person. In other words, a sense of hypocrisy may have reduced the possibility that the goal of being a moral person could be satiated and reactivated tension for not making sufficient goal progress toward being a moral person. This is similar to prior research, which shows that hypocrisy motivates individuals to pursue behaviors that restore one's integrity and reduce dissonance or underlying tension (e.g., Stone and Fernandez 2008). Thus, hypocrisy may motivate the need to make progress toward an advocated behavior as indicated by the reversal of the vicarious moral licensing effect found in this study.

In summary, studies 1, 2, and 4 have found evidence for vicarious moral licensing effects between brands and high self-brand overlap consumers. Study 3 reveals that making the moral decision making process more mindful is one potential method to address the negative influence of positive moral CSR behavior on the vicarious moral licensing behaviors of high self-brand overlap participants. Study 4 shows another method to reverse the vicarious moral licensing

effect by making participants mindful of a potential discrepancy between their prior moral behavior and the behavior advocated by a brand's CSR efforts. The purpose of the next chapter is formally test the proposed goal based process explanation for vicarious moral licensing effects, which will also reveal an additional method to address the negative influence of CSR efforts on the moral behavior of consumers.

CHAPTER 6: A PROCESS EXPLANATION FOR VICARIOUS MORAL LICENSING EFFECTS

The purpose of this chapter is to present study 5, which tests the process by which vicarious moral licensing effects occur as these effects pose the most negative managerial implications. Specifically, study 5 examines the influence of positive moral CSR behavior framed as achieving goal commitment or goal progress on the amount of generosity behavior performed by high vs. low self-brand overlap participants. I propose that positive CSR behavior framed as achieving goal progress will allow consumers to conduct moral licensing behaviors (i.e., negative moral consumer behaviors) while CSR behavior framed as goal commitment will motivate consumers to conduct moral cleansing behaviors (i.e., positive moral consumer behaviors). Therefore, emphasizing goal commitment should provide an additional method to eliminate vicarious moral licensing effects, but only for those with high self-brand overlap.

Hypotheses

Individuals often hold multiple goals that can conflict. For instance, individuals may have the goal of saving money while also wanting to go on a nice vacation. Others may have the goal of losing weight while also desiring to eat indulgent foods. In the case of this dissertation, individuals may hold the goal of being a moral person while also seeking to benefit from self-interested behavior, like cheating for personal gain, which has been associated with self-satisfaction or a cheater's high (Ruedy et al. 2013). Therefore, individuals must balance these conflicting and contradictory goals.

Theories of goal regulation typically describe a tension or discrepancy that exists between one's current goal state and a desired end state (e.g., Wicklund and Gollwitzer 1982; Moskowitz 2009). Therefore, if an individual holds the goal of being a moral person, goal congruent behaviors are more likely to occur when the tension to being a moral person is present while goal incongruent behaviors are more likely to occur when this tension is reduced. Prior research has shown that balancing multiple goals or switching to an alternative goal is easier when an individual feels they have made sufficient progress or accomplishment toward the original goal (Fishbach and Dhar 2005). Thus, individuals who have achieved sufficient progress toward being a moral person may feel less goal tension, which allows them to pursue moral licensing behaviors (i.e., negative moral consumer behavior).

Prior research has also shown that balancing multiple goals or switching to an alternative goal is harder when an individual focuses on their level of commitment toward the original goal (Fishbach and Dhar 2005). For instance, Fishbach and Dhar (2005) asked participants to evaluate their level of commitment toward the goals of studying, saving, and health maintenance. An emphasis on commitment provided participants with an inference toward the strength of their goals (i.e., more effort was needed in order to reach sufficient goal progress) as indicated by a significantly negative relationship with their desire to pursue goal incongruent activities. Thus, individuals who have greater commitment toward being a moral person may feel more goal tension, which motivates them to pursue moral cleansing behaviors (i.e., positive moral consumer behavior).

In terms of this dissertation, I propose that high (vs. low) self-brand overlap participants can vicariously infer their own progress or commitment toward the goal of being a moral person

based on the CSR behavior of brands. However, this effect is likely to occur only for those consumers who have extended their self to a brand conducting the CSR efforts.

I predict that high self-brand overlap participants exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal progress will conduct vicarious moral licensing behaviors (i.e., negative moral consumer behaviors). This prediction is similar to prior research showing that vicarious goal satiation occurs when individuals reduce their own goal pursuit after observing others make sufficient progress toward the same goal (McCulloch et al. 2011). At the same time, I predict that high self-brand overlap participants exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment will conduct vicarious moral cleansing behaviors (i.e., positive moral consumer behaviors). If this is true, emphasizing CSR behavior using goal commitment may be an additional method to eliminate vicarious moral licensing effects in high self-brand overlap participants.

In either goal frame, I predict that for high (vs. low) self-brand overlap consumers, the moral CSR behavior of a psychologically close brand will provide a greater signal of progress or commitment toward their goal of being a moral person. Therefore, I predict a significant interaction effect between goal frame and self-brand overlap.

Positive moral CSR behavior was only used in study 5 in order to address its negative implications on the moral behavior of consumers (i.e., vicarious moral licensing effect). Therefore, the following sections will lay out proposed hypotheses comparing the influence of positive moral CSR behavior and goal frame among high self-brand overlap participants and the influence of positive moral CSR behavior and goal frame between high and low self-brand overlap participants.

Hypotheses among High Self-Brand Overlap Participants

I predict that exposure to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal progress or goal commitment should influence levels of generosity, but only for those with high self-brand overlap. Specifically, among high self-brand overlap participants, exposure to positive CSR behavior framed as goal commitment should motivate moral cleansing behaviors or an increase in levels of generosity. Therefore, emphasizing CSR behavior using goal commitment may be an additional method to eliminate vicarious moral licensing effects in high self-brand overlap participants. A specific hypothesis based on this prediction is as follows:

H8: Among high self-brand overlap participants, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal **commitment** will significantly *increase* their levels of generosity in comparison those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal **progress**.

Hypotheses between High and Low Self-Brand Overlap Participants

I predict that exposure to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment or progress should also influence levels of generosity between high and low self-brand overlap participants. Specifically, among those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment, high self-brand overlap participants should conduct vicarious moral cleansing behavior by significantly increasing their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants. A specific hypothesis based on this prediction is as follows:

H9a: High self-brand overlap participants exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment will significantly *increase* their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment.

At the same time, among those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal progress, high self-brand overlap participants should conduct vicarious moral licensing behavior by significantly decreasing their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants. A specific hypothesis based on this prediction is as follows:

H9b: High self-brand overlap participants exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal progress will significantly *decrease* their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal progress.

Null Prediction

Among low self-brand overlap participants, I predict no significant difference in levels of generosity between those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment or goal progress.

Study 5

Method

Participants and Design. A total of 130 Mturk participants received a small monetary compensation for completing the study. The data from five participants were removed for not following instructions and another three participants raised concerns about the true nature of the study. This left a final sample of 122 participants (49.2% female, $M_{age} = 33.9$ years, $SD = 12.2$). The study used a 2 (self-brand overlap: low vs. high) x 2 (goal frame: progress vs. commitment) between-subjects design.

Procedure. Participants completed a modified version of the Inclusion of Other in the Self scale (Aron et. al. 1992) to measure self-brand overlap toward Nike by selecting between a set of seven overlapping circles containing the word ‘Self’ or ‘Brand’. Participants received the same set of instructions as in earlier studies and were asked to indicate their relationship with Nike by selecting the set of circles best representing their level of overlap with self and brand (see appendix A).

Only positive moral CSR behavior was used in study 5 in order to address the vicarious moral licensing effect. To induce positive moral CSR behavior, all participants read the same hypothetical Associated Press article from earlier studies about Nike’s decision to join the Sustainable Apparel Coalition, which had the goal of banning formaldehyde used in the manufacturing of clothing (see appendix B for the full article).

Next, to test for the proposed goal-based process explanation, participants were randomly assigned to the goal progress or goal commitment frame condition. To manipulate the goal progress frame, participants answered the following question: “Indicate your level of agreement with the following statement: Nike has shown significant progress or movement toward being moral/ethical?” on a 7-item scale (1 – strongly disagree to 7 – strongly agree). To manipulate the goal commitment frame, participants answered the following question: “Indicate your level of agreement with the following statement: Nike has shown significant commitment or obligation toward being moral/ethical?” on a 7-item scale (1 – strongly disagree to 7 – strongly agree). This manipulation was chosen rather than providing information about the amount of progress and commitment Nike has made as it was deemed important for participants to be more mindful of their perceived opinion on Nike’s goal progress vs. commitment. This should make the manipulation stronger by eliminating any potential counterarguments made by participants if they were given information about Nike’s goal progress vs. commitment.

To further hide the connection of the positive moral CSR behavior article and the goal frame manipulation from the dependent variable task, participants were told to move on to the next study. In this ‘new’ study, participants completed the same dictator game described in earlier studies to measure generosity behavior. However, participants received slightly different instructions from prior studies as the dictator game was modified to be completed by Mturk participants (see appendix P for the modified task instructions). In addition, I added a question to ensure that participants understood how the game was supposed to be played. Specifically, participants were asked the following question: “Please answer the following question to ensure that you understand the game. If the sender sends 3 entries, how many entries will the sender keep?” They were given two options to select: seven or three. The correct answer was seven.

Five people failed this question and their data was removed from all future analyses. Following the previous question, the sender was given the decision, after ensuring for anonymity, to send between 0-10 entries to the hypothetical receiver. A self-interested and utility maximizing individual should send 0 entries to the receiver in order to keep all 10 for themselves. Thus, the amount of entries sent serves as a dependent measure of generosity.

After the dictator game task, participants completed the 3-item modified Nike brand knowledge measure ($\alpha = .88$) from earlier studies, the 6-item attitude toward CSR measure from earlier studies ($\alpha = .97$), age, gender, political orientation, ethnicity, and first language. Finally, participants completed a debriefing task in which three participants correctly hypothesized that the study was testing for levels of generosity or ethicality.

Goal Frame Confound Checks. Two one-sample t-tests were run to ensure that participants rated Nike as achieving significant goal progress or goal commitment toward being moral/ethical based on their positive moral CSR behavior. As expected, in the goal progress frame condition, participants significantly rated Nike as achieving progress toward being moral/ethical against the neutral value ($M = 5.53$, $SD = 1.17$; $t(61) = 10.3$, $p < .001$). Also as expected, in the goal commitment frame condition, participants significantly rated Nike as achieving commitment toward being moral/ethical against the neutral value ($M = 5.65$, $SD = 1.18$; $t(59) = 10.9$, $p < .001$). A one-way ANOVA was run in order to ensure that participants viewed Nike as achieving similar amounts of goal progress or commitment. As expected, there was no significant difference between the two goal frame conditions, indicating that participants did not view Nike's positive moral CSR behavior as being more representative of goal progress

or goal commitment ($M_{progress} = 5.53, SD = 1.17$ vs. $M_{commitment} = 5.65, SD = 1.18; F(1, 120) = .307, p > .05$).

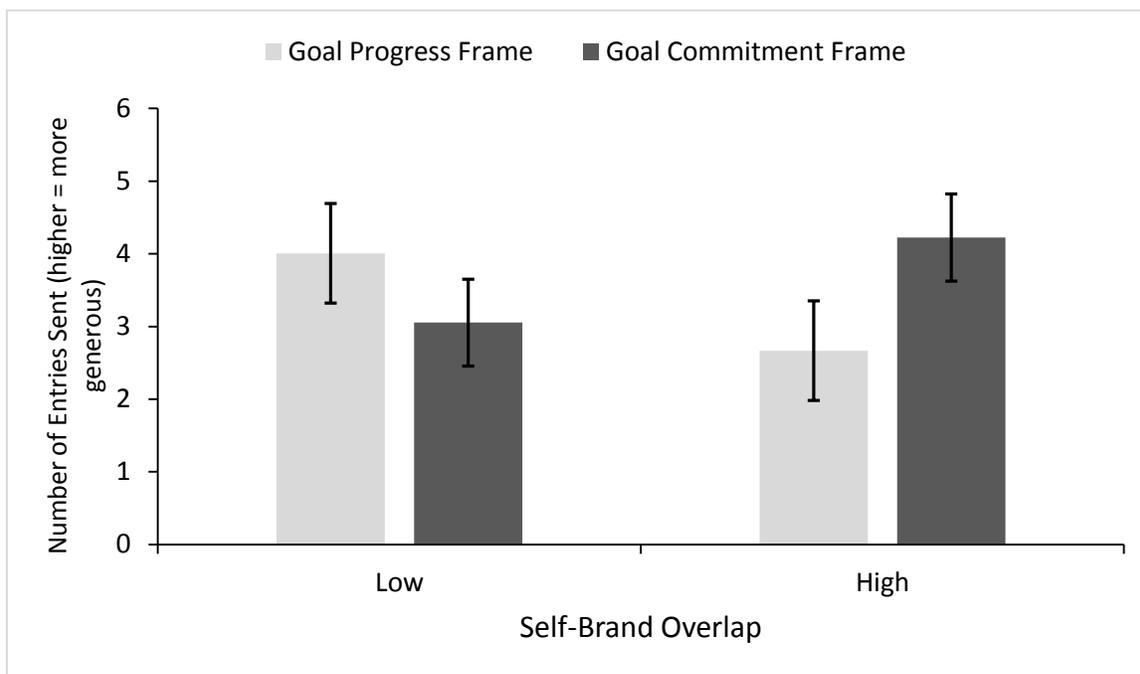
Results

The number of entries given during the dictator game served as the sole dependent measure of generosity. More entries given indicated greater amounts of generosity. The following variables did not impact the results and were excluded from all analyses: 1) Nike brand knowledge; 2) age; 3) gender; 4) political orientation; 5) ethnicity; and 6) first language. The CSR attitudes scale was a significant predictor in the model and was included as a covariate. However, CSR attitudes did not significantly interact with the main independent variables. In addition, results did not change if the covariate was excluded from the model.

Dictator Game. I ran a hierarchical regression analysis with the CSR attitudes scale entered in the first step as a covariate, self-brand overlap (mean-centered) and goal frame (contrast-coded) entered in the second step, and the interaction term of self-brand overlap and goal frame entered in the third step on the number of entries sent in the dictator game. The CSR attitudes scale was a significant predictor in third model ($\beta = .267, t(117) = 2.05, p < .05; 95\% \text{ CI } [.01, .524]$) and self-brand overlap was a marginally significant predictor ($\beta = -.440, t(117) = -1.96, p = .053; 95\% \text{ CI } [-.885, .005]$). As predicted, the interaction term was also a significant predictor in the model ($\beta = .824, t(117) = 2.76, p < .01; 95\% \text{ CI } [.233, 1.42]$). The addition of the interaction term in the third model significantly increased the amount of variance explained by 5.9% ($f^2 = .065$). To explore the nature of the interaction, planned comparisons were made

between goal frame (progress vs. commitment) and self-brand overlap (low vs. high), which is illustrated in figure 7. As self-brand overlap is a continuous measure, a spotlight analysis was performed at plus and minus one standard deviation from the mean of self-brand overlap (Aiken and West 1991). These planned comparisons test the proposed hypotheses.

FIGURE 7: PARTICIPANTS' GENEROSITY BEHAVIOR BY SELF-BRAND OVERLAP (LOW -1SD VS. HIGH +1SD) AND GOAL FRAME (STUDY 5)



As expected, among high self-brand overlap participants, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment significantly increased their levels of generosity in comparison to those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal progress ($\beta = 1.56$, $t(117) = 2.43$, $p < .05$; 95% CI [.287, 2.83]). Therefore, hypothesis 8 is supported. In addition, among those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment, high self-

brand overlap participants showed a marginally significant increase in their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants ($\beta = .384, t(117) = 1.95, p = .053; 95\% \text{ CI} [-.005, .773]$). Therefore, hypothesis 9a is marginally supported. Also, among those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal progress, high self-brand overlap participants showed a marginally significant decrease in their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants ($\beta = -.440, t(117) = -1.96, p = .053; 95\% \text{ CI} [-.885, .005]$). Therefore, hypothesis 9b is marginally supported. For a summary of the results, see table 4 below.

Table 4

DICTATOR GAME SUMMARY OF RESULTS (STUDY 5)

Hypothesis	Goal Frame/SBO	Consumer Behavior (in comparison to)	Goal Frame/SBO
H8*	Commitment/High	Increase in generosity	Progress/High
H9a#	Commitment/High	Increase in generosity	Commitment/Low
H9b#	Progress/High	Decrease in generosity	Progress/Low

Note: Self-Brand Overlap (SBO), * indicates hypothesis was supported ($p < .05$), and # indicates hypothesis was marginally supported ($p < .10$).

As predicted, among low self-brand overlap participants, there was no significant difference in levels of generosity between those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment or goal progress.

Discussion

Earlier studies provided preliminary evidence for the goal-based process explanation between moral CSR behavior and moral consumer behavior as moderated by self-brand overlap. However, study 5 formally tested the proposed goal-based process explanation specifically for vicarious moral licensing effects due to its negative influence on the moral behavior of consumers. I proposed that vicarious moral licensing effects occur as positive moral CSR behavior signals sufficient progress toward the goal of being a moral person for high (vs.) low self-brand overlap participants.

Findings from study 5 provide support for the goal-based process explanation. For instance, vicarious moral licensing effects occurred when high (vs.) self-brand overlap participants were exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal progress. These findings suggest that consumers vicariously self-regulate their moral behavior based on the moral CSR behavior of a brand. Specifically, positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal progress perhaps signaled sufficient progress toward the goal of being a moral person for those with high self-brand overlap. Therefore, sufficient progress toward the goal of being a moral person perhaps allowed high (vs. low) self-brand overlap participants in study 5 to license their moral behavior by decreasing their levels of generosity.

Findings from study 5 also support my argument that using a goal commitment frame is a third method to eliminate the negative spillover effects from positive moral CSR behavior. Specifically, among high self-brand overlap participants, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment significantly increased their levels of generosity in comparison to those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal progress. In addition, among those exposed to positive moral CSR high behavior framed as goal

commitment, high self-brand overlap participants showed a marginally significant increase in their levels of generosity in comparison to low self-brand overlap participants. These findings also suggest that consumers vicariously self-regulate their moral behavior based on the moral CSR behavior of a brand. Specifically, positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment perhaps reactivated the goal of being a person or signaled insufficient progress toward the goal of being a moral person for those with high self-brand overlap. Therefore, insufficient progress toward the goal of being a moral person perhaps motivated high (vs. low) self-brand overlap participants in study 5 to cleanse their moral behavior by increasing their levels of generosity.

Similar to prior findings, results from study 5 show that among low self-brand overlap participants, there was no significant difference in levels of generosity between those exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment or goal progress. These findings suggest that low self-brand overlap consumers do not vicariously self-regulate their moral behavior based on the moral CSR behavior of a brand. In other words, positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment or goal progress provided no relevant signal of progress toward the goal of being a moral person for low self-brand overlap participants.

In summary, study 5 provides evidence that positive moral CSR behavior framed as achieving goal progress explains the process by which vicarious moral licensing effects occur. Specifically, in study 5, high (vs. low) self-brand overlap consumers vicariously self-regulated their goal of being a moral person by decreasing their levels of generosity after being exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal progress. At the same time, study 5 provides evidence that an additional method to eliminate vicarious moral licensing effects is to expose participants to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment. Specifically, in study

5, high (vs. low) self-brand overlap consumers vicariously self-regulated their goal of being a moral person by increasing their levels of generosity after being exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment.

The purpose of the next chapter is provide a general discussion section, which includes a summary of the findings, contributions, implications, and limitations of this research, and directions for future areas of research that further explore the relationship between CSR efforts and the moral behavior of consumers.

CHAPTER 7: GENERAL DISCUSSION

The primary aim of this dissertation was to test whether the CSR behavior of a brand could influence the moral behavior of consumers. I proposed that some participants would vicariously balance their moral behavior based on the CSR behavior of a brand. Specifically, consumers exposed to positive moral CSR behavior would balance their moral behavior by conducting vicarious moral licensing behaviors (i.e., negative moral consumer behaviors). At the same time, consumers exposed to negative moral CSR behavior would balance their moral behavior by conducting vicarious moral cleansing behaviors (i.e., positive moral consumer behaviors). I proposed that these vicarious moral balancing effects should only apply to high (vs. low) self-brand overlap consumers or to those who have formed a psychologically close relationship with a brand sponsoring CSR efforts. In terms of a potential process explanation, I proposed that consumers vicariously self-regulate their goal of being a moral person based on the CSR efforts of a brand.

The secondary aim of this dissertation was to test several methods that eliminated the negative externalities associated with positive moral CSR behavior (i.e., vicarious moral licensing consumer behaviors). I proposed that making consumer more mindful of their moral behavior and decision making and framing CSR behavior as goal commitment would eliminate the vicarious moral licensing effect.

A series of five studies consistently supported the proposed vicarious moral balancing effect, demonstrated three methods to eliminate the negative influence of positive moral CSR behavior on the moral behavior of consumers, and supported the goal-based process explanation for the vicarious moral licensing effect between CSR behavior and high self-brand overlap participants.

The following sections will provide a more detailed summary of the findings from this dissertation, highlight contributions, implications, and limitations of this research, and suggest potential areas of future research that continue exploring the relationship between CSR and the moral behavior of consumers.

Summary of Findings

This dissertation presents five studies that demonstrate the vicarious moral balancing effect and its consequences for the moral behavior of consumers. The first two studies tested how the vicarious moral balancing effect influenced positive moral consumer behaviors (i.e., generosity) and negative moral consumer behaviors (i.e., cheating). Studies 3 and 4 show two methods to alleviate the potential negative influence of CSR behavior on the moral behavior of consumers. Study 5 shows one potential process explanation for the vicarious moral licensing effect and also provides an additional method to alleviate the negative influence of positive moral CSR behavior on the moral behavior of high (vs. low) self-brand overlap participants.

Specifically, study 1 tested how positive moral CSR behavior, negative moral CSR behavior, and neutral CSR behavior influenced participants' level of generosity. Findings from study 1 provided evidence to support the vicarious moral balancing effect between brands and high self-brand overlap consumers. Specifically, for high self-brand overlap participants, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior significantly decreased levels of generosity in a donation task. This provided evidence for vicarious moral licensing effects. In addition, for high self-brand overlap participants, exposure to negative moral CSR behavior significantly increased levels of generosity in a donation task. This provided evidence for vicarious moral cleansing

effects. Findings that tested the influence of neutral CSR behavior suggested that positive moral CSR behaviors in general do not influence the moral behavior of consumers. Instead, the CSR behavior must be tied to a psychologically close brand. In addition, for low self-brand overlap participants, exposure to positive or negative moral CSR behavior had no effect on their moral behavior. This suggests that CSR behavior must be tied to the self in order for vicarious moral balancing effects to occur.

Study 2 was a conceptual replication of study 1 except for the use of a new dependent measure to understand the effects of CSR behavior on participants' levels of negative moral consumer behavior (i.e., cheating). Findings from study 2 show that for high self-brand overlap participants, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior significantly increased levels of cheating (i.e., vicarious moral licensing) while exposure to negative moral CSR behavior significantly decreased levels of cheating (i.e., vicarious moral cleansing). As before, vicarious moral balancing effects did not occur when the moral CSR behavior was not tied to the self, which was the case for low self-brand overlap participants. Together, studies 1 and 2 provided evidence that vicarious moral licensing and moral cleansing effects can affect levels of positive moral consumers behaviors (i.e., generosity) and levels of negative moral consumer behaviors (i.e., cheating). In addition, these two studies show that moral CSR behavior must be tied to a psychologically close brand and to those individuals with high self-brand overlap in order for vicarious moral balancing effects to occur.

The first two studies find that positive moral CSR behavior can negatively influence the moral behavior of consumers. These vicarious moral licensing effects pose many negative implications that may dissuade brands from participating in CSR efforts. Thus, the purpose of studies 3 and 4 was to demonstrate two methods to eliminate the vicarious moral licensing effect.

I proposed that making consumers more mindful of their moral behavior and the moral decision making process would eliminate the vicarious moral licensing effects obtained in earlier studies. Study 3 asked participants to consider how their own positive, negative, or neutral moral behavior would be influenced after being exposed to the positive moral CSR behavior of a brand. Findings from study 3 showed that making the moral decision making process more mindful led high self-brand overlap participants to state more positive moral behavioral intentions and less negative moral behavioral intentions. These findings contrasted the vicarious moral licensing effects obtained in study 1 for positive moral consumer behavior and in study 2 for negative moral consumer behavior. In addition, regardless of self-brand overlap, positive moral CSR behavior had no influence on neutral behavioral intentions, indicating the moral nature of the vicarious moral effects between brands and consumers.

Study 4 tested an additional method to eliminate the vicarious moral licensing effect by inducing dissonance by way of vicarious hypocrisy. I proposed that high self-brand overlap participants who failed to personally conduct the behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand would feel dissonance, which would motivate moral cleansing behaviors (i.e., positive moral consumer behaviors). As proposed, findings from study 4 showed that high (vs. low) self-brand overlap participants increased their levels of generosity when their prior failure to conduct the advocated CSR behavior was made more mindful. However, findings from study 4 also showed that high self-brand overlap participants decreased their levels of generosity when their prior success in conducting the advocated CSR behavior was made more mindful. Together, studies 3 and 4 provided evidence that vicarious moral licensing effects can be eliminated and even reversed when moral behavior and the moral decision making process are made more mindful to consumers.

The purpose of study 5 was two-fold: one, to test the process by which vicarious moral licensing effects occur and two, to test an additional method to eliminate the negative influence of positive moral CSR behavior on the moral behavior of consumers. I proposed that consumers vicariously self-regulate their moral behavior based on a brand's CSR behavior. In other words, for high self-brand overlap participants, positive moral CSR behavior can signal progress toward the goal of being a person. Sufficient goal progress should reduce goal tension and allow consumers to license their moral behaviors. Findings from study 5 support this goal-based explanation by showing that high self-brand overlap participants exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal progress vicariously licensed their moral behavior by reducing their levels of generosity. On the other hand, positive moral CSR behavior can also be framed in terms of goal commitment, which may increase goal tension and the pursuit of goal congruent behaviors. Findings from study 5 showed that high self-brand overlap participants exposed to positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal commitment vicariously cleansed their moral behavior by increasing their levels of generosity. Thus, framing positive moral CSR behavior as goal commitment serves as an additional method to eliminate vicarious moral licensing effects.

In summary, findings from this dissertation support the proposed conceptual model, which states that consumer vicariously balance their moral behaviors against a brand's CSR behavior. Studies 1 and 2 provide support for the vicarious moral balancing effect and its influence on positive moral consumer behavior (i.e., generosity) and negative moral consumer behavior (i.e., cheating). Studies 3 and 4 demonstrate two methods to eliminate and even reverse the negative effects of positive moral CSR behavior on the moral behavior of consumers by making moral behavior and the moral decision making process more mindful to high self-brand overlap participants. Study 5 demonstrates that consumers vicariously self-regulate their moral

licensing behavior by focusing on the amount of progress achieved in the goal of being a moral person as indicated by a brand's CSR efforts. Study 5 also demonstrates that framing positive moral CSR behavior as goal commitment serves as an additional method to eliminate vicarious moral licensing effects.

Contributions and Marketing Implications

The Negative Influence of CSR Efforts on the Moral Behavior of Consumers

To my knowledge, this dissertation is the first to discover that CSR efforts can affect the moral behavior of consumers. Prior research finds that there are many firm-level benefits associated with the use of CSR efforts, which underscores why 50% of companies believe corporate citizenship is critical to corporate reputation and success (Kinnicutt 2010). However, little is known about the positive or negative influence of CSR efforts on consumer-level outcomes that are not tied back to the firm. This dissertation formally tests the proposition made by Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) that CSR efforts might positively influence consumer well-being.

Findings from this dissertation demonstrate the potential risks associated with the use of positive moral CSR behavior, which raises doubts about its ability to increase consumer well-being. Specifically, the central finding that positive moral CSR behavior can negatively influence the moral behavior of consumers is troubling. These findings are especially problematic if it dissuades brands from using CSR efforts. However, while these findings are

troubling, they may help to explain why there is an attitude-behavior gap between prosocial attitudes and prosocial behavior.

Researchers have proposed that increasing prosocial attitudes is crucial to encouraging prosocial behavior. For instance, in the Model of Responsible Environmental Behavior, Hines and colleagues propose that one method to increase environmental behavior is to strengthen pro-environmental attitudes (Hines, Hungerford, and Tomera 1987). Unfortunately, many studies show that pro-environmental attitudes have a very small influence on pro-environmental behavior, indicating an attitude-behavior gap (Kollmuss and Agyeman 2002). Many researchers have struggled to provide an explanation for findings like these. In fact, despite countless number of studies on the attitude-behavior gap, there is no definitive explanation for why individuals hold positive attitudes toward prosocial behavior, yet do not consistently conduct those behavior in their own lives. However, the vicarious moral balancing effects found in this dissertation may help to explain why the attitude-behavior gap exists.

This dissertation supports the existence of the attitude-behavior gap by showing that some individuals participate in negative moral consumer behaviors despite having the goal of being a moral person and having positive attitudes toward CSR. Specifically, in study 3, I asked individuals if they hold the goal of being a moral person. Over 93% of participants indicated that they hold such a goal. In addition, across most studies, I measured the attitudes that participants hold toward corporate social responsibility efforts. Specifically, using 7-point semantic differential scales, participants were asked which word best describes their attitude toward CSR including: 1) bad vs. good; 2) foolish vs. wise; 3) harmful vs. beneficial; 4) negative vs. positive; 5) useless vs. useful; and 7) undesirable vs. desirable. In all cases, the average score on these seven items were well above 6 and the coefficient alpha of the scale was well above .9. This

indicates that most participants held a strong, positive attitude toward CSR and they were highly consistent in their attitudes.

Yet, despite strong CSR attitudes and having the goal of being a moral person, high self-brand overlap participants exposed to positive moral CSR behavior exhibited vicarious moral licensing effects. Findings from this dissertation provide one potential explanation for the attitude-behavior gap. Specifically, findings from study 5 indicate that high (vs. low) self-brand overlap participants vicariously self-regulate their moral behavior based on the CSR behavior of a brand. In other words, the positive moral CSR behavior of a brand provides a signal of moral progress that allows individuals to pursue goal incongruent behaviors (i.e., negative moral consumer behaviors). Thus, in some sense, high self-brand overlap participants are not always inconsistent in their attitudes and behavior. They vicariously conducted positive moral consumer behaviors through the CSR efforts of a brand, which ultimately allowed them to balance their moral behavior by conducting moral licensing behaviors. Thus, vicariously balancing prior moral behavior performed by psychologically close others is one potential explanation for the attitude-behavior gap.

If this is true, the attitude-behavior gap may also be influenced by many other parties besides psychologically close brands. Thus, consumers may vicariously self-regulate their moral behavior based on the moral actions of their spouse, best friend, or employer. For instance, a person may believe that if their spouse donates to a good cause, then they have achieved sufficient progress toward being a moral person, which allows them to conduct negative moral consumer behaviors indicative of an attitude-behavior gap.

This dissertation provides one potential explanation for the attitude-behavior gap. However, this dissertation also demonstrated three methods to alleviate and even reverse

behaviors that are indicative of an attitude-behavior gap (i.e., vicarious moral licensing effect) by showing how to encourage consumers to conduct more positive moral consumer behaviors and less negative moral consumer behaviors.

Methods to Alleviate the Vicarious Moral Licensing Effect

This dissertation also contributes to the marketing literature by addressing the negative implications associated with the use of CSR. I demonstrated three methods to alleviate and even reverse the vicarious moral licensing effect or that positive moral CSR behavior negatively influences the moral behavior of consumers. All three methods are consistent in making consumers more mindful of their moral behavior and moral decision making process. In addition, several of these methods may have also raised participants' mindfulness of their internal standards or norms of moral behavior, which may have also led to more positive moral consumer behaviors.

Conscious vs. Unconscious Moral Behavior. There are two conflicting views to how people form moral judgments. A more traditional view is that moral judgments are based on reason and conscious deliberation (Haidt 2001). According to theorists like Kohlberg, individuals mature through various stages of moral development, which leads them to make more complex and reasoned moral judgments (Kohlberg 1969). Rest's four-stage model also relies on conscious deliberation to 1) recognize a moral issue; 2) make a moral judgment; 3) establish moral intent; and 4) make a moral decision (Rest 1986). However, more recently, the more conscious and deliberative approach to forming moral judgments has been questioned by

scholars who believe that judgments can occur quickly and “without any conscious awareness of having gone through steps of search, weighing evidence, or inferring a conclusion” (Haidt 2001, p. 818). Haidt proposes that this internalized, inaccessible, and automatic process leads to the formation of more context dependent and less deliberative moral judgments.

Findings from studies 1 and 2 showed vicarious moral licensing effects that may be indicative of the less conscious, deliberative approach proposed by Haidt (2001). For instance, based on the debriefing process in these studies, no participants drew the direct connection that CSR efforts influenced their own positive moral consumer behavior (i.e., generosity) or negative moral consumer behavior (i.e., cheating). If this is true, it is possible that vicarious moral balancing effects occur when participants use a less conscious, less deliberative approach to moral decision making, while the vicarious moral balancing effect is reversed when participants use a more conscious approach. Studies 3, 4, and 5 provide potential evidence to support this belief by showing that making participants more mindful of their moral behavior and moral decision making process may have brought about a more conscious, deliberative approach that alleviated the vicarious moral licensing effect. Future research is needed to demonstrate what parts of the vicarious moral balancing process is performed in a less vs. more conscious manner.

Internal Standards of Moral Behavior. Prior research shows that individuals are uncomfortable deviating too far from internal standards of moral behavior (Mazar et al. 2008). In fact, Mazar and colleagues exposed participants to external reminders of morality, such as the Ten Commandments or an Honor Code, and found that they were more honest than participants who did not receive these reminders. Thus, reminders of internal standards of moral behavior induce individuals to act consistently with those standards. This may explain why individuals

conducted more positive moral consumer behaviors when they were made more mindful of their moral behavior and decision making process.

Specifically, it is possible that studies 3 and 4 made internal standards or norms of moral behavior more mindful. For instance, study 3 asked participants to consider their own moral behavior based on the CSR efforts of a brand, which perhaps served as an external reminder of internal standards of moral behavior. In addition, study 4 likely brought to mind internal standards of moral behavior by asking participants about their prior moral behavior. Thus, for some high self-brand overlap participants, violating internal standards of moral behavior by not participating in the behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand perhaps motivated more positive moral consumer behavior.

In summary, studies 3, 4, and 5 perhaps reversed the vicarious moral licensing effect by making moral behavior, internal standards or norms of moral behavior, and/or the moral decision making process more mindful. These findings raise many implications for marketing practitioners that may want to conduct CSR efforts while alleviating any potential negative consequences from doing so.

Marketing Recommendations. Based on these findings, marketing practitioners may be able to encourage positive moral consumer behavior by making consumers more mindful of their moral behavior or their internal standards of moral behavior. In fact, several firms are already using this method. As an example, the Save the Children Foundation makes moral behaviors more mindful by asking consumers in an advertisement, “We Save the Children Will You” (see appendix Q for ad). In addition, Starbucks uses a similar method to encourage its consumers to

participate in a Global Month of Service by stating in advertisement “Join your neighbors and volunteer with us” (see appendix R for ad).

Marketing practitioners may also be able to reverse vicarious moral licensing effects by emphasizing their commitment toward an advocated CSR behavior rather than highlighting how much progress they have made. This is somewhat counterintuitive as many brands may want to communicate how much they have done through their CSR efforts. However, this may have the unintended consequence of alleviating goal tension and causing some consumers to free ride the moral behavior of a brand. Instead, brands may want to indicate that they remain committed toward advocated CSR behaviors regardless of the amount of progress they have made.

In summary, marketing practitioners may want to encourage consumers to participate with them in their CSR efforts and ultimately encourage them to think about their own moral behavior or internal standards of moral behavior. This raises the importance of studying and possibly encouraging a different type of CSR – consumer social responsibility.

Close Relationships with Brands

Self-Expansion Model. This dissertation adds to a small, but growing literature that uses the self-expansion model to highlight the close relationships that consumers form with brands. Specifically, I demonstrate that some consumers extend their self to a brand (i.e., high self-brand overlap), which moderates the relationship between moral CSR behavior and moral consumer behavior. In this dissertation, the vicarious moral balancing effect only occurs for those consumers who have developed a psychologically close relationship with a brand sponsoring the CSR efforts. This finding contributes to the brand-relationship literature and supports the use of

the self-expansion model to study consumer-brand relationships. However, these same findings raise many negative implications of close brand relationships that are understudied within the brand relationship and CSR literature.

The self-expansion model states that individuals can better accomplish their goals by obtaining resources from psychologically close others. Thus, if this theory is expanded to self-brand relationships, individuals may use brand resources to help them accomplish goals. In many cases, this can be a very positive activity. For instance, individuals may bolster their athletic identity by incorporating the resources of Nike. However, this dissertation also shows that high self-brand overlap consumers may obtain moral resources from Nike's CSR efforts that leads them to conduct less positive moral consumer behavior (i.e., generosity) and more negative moral consumer behaviors (i.e., cheating). This raises the possibility that close brand relationships are not always good for consumers, which is a topic that deserves more exploration in the brand-relationship literature.

The negative influence of close brand relationships also raises many concerns for research within the CSR literature. Prior research has shown that the positive firm benefits associated with the use of CSR efforts (i.e., favorable company evaluations) is mediated by the presence of high CC-congruence or the degree of overlap between a company's character, as revealed by its CSR efforts, and an individual's character (Sen and Bhattacharya 2001). CC-congruence is very similar to the self-brand overlap construct. Thus, brands may be stuck in a catch-22. Brands may want to encourage self-brand overlap or CC-congruence in order to increase the effectiveness of benefits associated with the use of CSR efforts. At the same time, encouraging close brand relationships may also allow consumers to free ride the positive moral CSR behavior exhibited by a brand, which may subsequently increase vicarious moral licensing

behaviors. This further underscores the need to develop methods to effectively communicate CSR efforts without negatively influencing the behavior of consumers who are most likely to be aware of a brand's CSR efforts (i.e., high self-brand overlap consumers). This also encourages future research to discover whether there are any other negative effects of CSR efforts on consumers.

Vicarious Hypocrisy. This dissertation adds to a growing literature studying the hypocrisy effect. To my knowledge, there is only one paper that has previously shown the vicarious hypocrisy effect. Specifically, Focella et al. (2014) showed that exposure to a highly identified in-group member who is being hypocritical about an advocated behavior motivates other in-group members to participate in that behavior as a means to reduce dissonance (i.e., vicarious hypocrisy). In other words, an individual makes up for the hypocritical behavior of an in-group member. This dissertation demonstrates a similar effect, but extends the hypocrisy effect to psychologically close relationships between consumers and brands. Specifically, findings from this dissertation show that high self-brand overlap consumers are motivated to participate in vicarious moral cleansing behaviors after they are hypocritical toward some behavior advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand.

Vicarious Self-Regulation of Moral Behavior

Moral balancing is typically studied by understanding how an individual's history of moral behaviors influences their future moral behaviors. This dissertation reveals vicarious moral balancing effects and demonstrates that consumers can regulate their moral behavior using

a brand's CSR efforts. Prior research suggest that changes to moral self-concept might mediate the vicarious moral balancing effects found in this dissertation (Sachdeva et al. 2009; Khan and Dhar 2006). Specifically, positive moral CSR behavior may boost an individual's moral self-concept, which allows them to pursue moral licensing behaviors. At the same time, negative moral CSR behavior may threaten an individual's moral self-concept, which motivates them to pursue moral cleansing behaviors. This dissertation failed to replicate prior research showing that changes in moral self-concept mediate the moral balancing effects. This may have occurred for several related reasons. One, due to limited student resources, there may have not been sufficient statistical power to pick up the moderated mediation effect of changes to moral self-concept. Two, it is possible that the self-concept measures used in this dissertation were not sensitive to vicarious changes in moral self-concept.

This dissertation suggests an alternative, but not contradictory process explanation for vicarious moral balancing effects. Specifically, perceived goal progress as indicated by CSR behavior, may help explain why individuals conduct moral balancing behaviors. In other words, positive moral CSR behavior framed as achieving goal progress may signal progress toward the goal of being a moral person for high (vs. low) self-brand overlap participants. Accordingly, sufficient progress toward the goal of being a moral person should allow consumers to pursue goal incongruent activities like negative moral consumer behaviors. This finding may appear to be an alternative process explanation that is in conflict with prior research. However, changes to moral self-concept may be a different measurement for changes to the progress individuals have made toward the goal of being a moral person. For instance, a boost to one's moral self-concept may indicate sufficient goal progress while a threat to one's moral self-concept may indicate

insufficient goal progress. Thus, future research may use the goal-based explanation as a framework that incorporates and explains research on the moral balancing process.

Summary

This dissertation makes several contributions to the marketing literature while raising many implications that influence marketing practitioners and researchers studying a variety of literature streams. One, to my knowledge, this research is the first to discover that CSR efforts affect the moral behavior of consumers. The central finding that CSR efforts can have a negative influence on consumers is surprising, but may also help to explain prior research that addresses the attitude-behavior gap. Two, this dissertation demonstrates three potential methods or recommendations for marketing practitioners to address the negative externalities associated with CSR efforts by making moral behavior, moral decision making, and standards of moral behavior more mindful. Three, this research adds to the literature on brand relationships to highlight how consumers can incorporate a brand's CSR behavior by extending their self to a brand. Findings from this dissertation showing the potential negative consequences of close brand relationships influences many researchers studying brand relationships and CSR. Four, this research shows that consumers can vicariously self-regulate their moral behavior based on the CSR efforts of a brand. This raises many implications for researchers who study moral balancing effects and potentially provides a framework to incorporate research on the vicarious moral balancing process.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this dissertation despite its many contributions. One, there are many questions as to the generalizability or external validity of these findings. All studies were run using online software and apart from consumer settings. To address this concern, I asked participants to complete behavioral dependent measures (e.g., dictator game and cheating task) in order to make moral decisions as real and impactful as possible. However, consumers may still act differently depending on the context in which they are exposed to the CSR efforts of a brand. Two, self-brand overlap was measured or consumers chose brands based on their existing self-brand overlap in this dissertation. Future research might test whether self-brand overlap can be manipulated and lead to the same vicarious moral balancing effects. Three, a majority of participants scored on the low-end of the self-brand overlap measure, which raises the possibility that the vicarious moral balancing effect may differ for the minority of consumers who hold extremely close relationships with brands sponsoring CSR efforts. Four, this dissertation does not explore the entire process by which vicarious moral balancing effects occur. In other words, there may be several reasons as to why vicarious moral cleansing behaviors occur that were not addressed in this dissertation. Five, while this research raises three methods to eliminate negative externalities associated with the use of positive moral, the list is far from complete. In addition, there is a question of whether these methods to eliminate vicarious moral licensing effects would work outside of the experimental context. These limitations are important and should be addressed in future research, which is discussed in the next section.

Future Research

Field Studies

There are several limitations that can be addressed by using field studies to test for the vicarious moral balancing effect. Specifically, it may be possible to study the vicarious moral balancing effect in a retail setting. For instance, the field study may entail asking customers to read information that exposed them to positive or negative CSR behavior. Consumer would be asked to shop and later their purchases would be measured. Thus, exposure to positive moral CSR behavior may lead consumers to purchase more hedonic goods, indicating a vicarious moral licensing effect. At the same time, exposure to negative moral CSR behavior may lead consumers to purchase less hedonic goods, indicating a vicarious moral cleansing effect. In addition, I can expose some consumers to CSR behavior framed using goal commitment or induce dissonance in consumers using a vicarious hypocrisy paradigm in order to test methods that eliminate the vicariously moral licensing effect.

The vicarious moral balancing effect may also apply to other contexts that do not involve consumers. For instance, it is possible that employees may vicariously moral balance the CSR behavior conducted by their employer. In addition, firms may vicariously balance the moral CSR behavior of their suppliers or business partners. This raises many important boundary conditions of the vicarious moral balancing effect, especially whether it will even occur in B2B contexts. This dissertation shows that self-brand overlap is the key moderator that determines the presence of the vicarious moral balancing effect. For this effect to occur in B2B contexts or even employee/employer contexts, self-other overlap of some kind should be present. This

raises an interesting future research question of whether it is possible for firms to hold such close relationships to other firms in order for the vicarious moral balancing effect to occur.

Regardless of the setting, using field studies will serve to generalize and extend the vicarious moral balancing effect outside of the experimental context. In addition, using field studies might demonstrate if methods developed in this dissertation to address the vicarious moral licensing effect are effective outside of the lab.

Vicarious Moral Cleansing Process

Future work needs to be done in order to fully test the conceptual model presented in this paper. Study 5 demonstrated that positive moral CSR behavior framed as goal progress lead to vicarious moral licensing effects. In other words, positive moral CSR behavior provided a signal of sufficient progress toward the goal of being a moral person for high self-brand overlap participants. This dissertation, however, did not formally test the process explanation by which vicarious moral cleansing effects occur.

There are several possible process explanations. One, it is possible that negative moral CSR behavior provides a signal of insufficient progress toward the goal of being a moral person for high self-brand overlap participants, which motivates moral cleansing behaviors as a means to reduce goal tension. Two, it is possible that exposure to negative moral CSR behavior lowers an individual's moral self-concept, which motivates moral cleansing behaviors as a means to repair the self. Three, it is possible that negative moral CSR behavior increases negative mood, which also motivates moral cleansing behavior as a means to repair bad mood. Each of these

possibilities should be tested in order to understand the process by which vicarious moral balancing effects occur.

Manipulating Social Norms

Studies 3 and 4 provide two methods to eliminate the negative effects of positive moral CSR behavior on high self-brand overlap consumers. Both methods make consumers more mindful of their internal standards of moral behavior, which leads them to conduct positive moral consumer behaviors. Internal standards of moral behavior are synonymous with an internalized set of norms that guide moral behavior. For instance, vicarious hypocrisy effects most likely occur as consumers do not want to violate a norm of consistency, which produces cognitive dissonance. Thus, using social norms may be an effective method to address vicarious moral licensing behaviors. However, following prior research, manipulating social norms may be a more effective method to induce behavior change.

Prior research has manipulated two types of norms to induce behavior change: descriptive norms, defined as actions a social group exhibits, and injunctive norms, defined as actions a social group ought to exhibit (Cialdini, Reno, and Kallgren 1990). As an example, researchers increased rates of towel re-usage in a hotel setting by manipulating a descriptive norm by stating that a majority of guests re-used their towels (Goldstein, Cialdini, and Griskevicius 2008). Other studies showed that manipulating injunctive norms is also a successful technique to motivate electricity conservation behaviors for those who exceed average neighborhood energy usage (Schultz et al. 2007). Thus, it may be possible to manipulate the descriptive or injunctive norm behind positive moral CSR behavior. As an example, brands might use injunctive norms, such

as awards or honors that reflect social approval for exceeding external standards of moral behavior. This, in turn, might signal the commitment a brand holds toward being a moral company, which motivates high self-brand overlap consumers to conduct positive moral behaviors similar to study 5. In summary, high self-brand overlap participants may be less likely to conduct vicarious moral licensing behaviors if they violate descriptive or injunctive social norms. This method may prove to be another successful method to reduce the negative influence of positive moral CSR behavior on the moral behavior of consumers.

Communicating CSR Behavior

Prior research has studied how firms are influenced by their CSR communication strategy or how they share their CSR efforts to external stakeholders. For instance, a firm's CSR activities are evaluated more negatively when they are communicated by the firm in comparison to a neutral source (Yoon et al. 2006). However, research has not addressed whether communication strategies influence consumer-level outcomes not tied to the brand. I propose that strategies to communicate positive moral CSR behavior may influence the moral behavior of consumers.

Firms have a potential choice of communicating their CSR efforts using two different regulatory focus orientations: a promotion focus orientation or a prevention focus orientation. Promotion focus messages would be framed in terms of hopes, aspiration, and ideals while prevention focus messages would be framed in terms of duties, responsibilities, and safety (Higgins 1998). Higgins proposed that regulatory fit occurs when individuals pursue goals that suit their regulatory orientation. This regulatory fit feels 'right' while non-fit feels 'wrong'.

Camacho et al. (2003) showed that the value from regulatory fit can transfer to moral evaluations. Thus, a CSR communication strategy that fits with an underlying regulatory focus orientation should feel more moral to a consumer. Accordingly, positive moral CSR behavior communications strategies under regulatory fit may feel ‘right’ and further exacerbate the vicarious moral licensing effect. On the other hand, communication strategies under regulatory non-fit may feel ‘wrong’ and eliminate the vicarious moral licensing effect. Inducing regulatory non-fit while communicating positive moral CSR behavior may prove to be an additional method to reduce the negative influence of CSR efforts on the moral behavior of consumers. It is also possible that communicating negative moral CSR behaviors will also influence the moral behavior of consumers. Specifically, communicating negative moral CSR behavior under fit may feel ‘right’ and lead to negative moral consumer behaviors while communicating negative moral CSR behavior under non-fit may feel ‘wrong’ and further exacerbate the vicarious moral cleansing effect. These predictions should be tested in future research.

Extending the Vicarious Hypocrisy Effect

More research can be done in order to extend the vicarious hypocrisy effects found in study 4. Specifically, study 4 found that consumers are motivated to participate in positive moral consumer behavior after being reminded of their own hypocrisy for failing to participate in behaviors advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand. The hypocrisy method eliminated vicarious moral licensing effects as participants were motivated to reduce dissonance and perform goal congruent behaviors. However, I propose that this very same effect can be understood from the firm perspective in two different ways.

One potential study might test whether firms would conduct more CSR efforts if they were hypocritical about their own failure to participate in behaviors advocated by brand loyal consumers. For instance, a future study could ask participants to take part in a role-playing scenario in which they are a manager of a firm who must decide how much money to allocate toward CSR efforts after being reminded of a brand's hypocrisy based on behaviors advocated and performed by brand loyal consumers. Another potential study would be similar to prior research on vicarious hypocrisy showing that exposure to a highly identified in-group member who is being hypocritical about an advocated behavior motivates other in-group members to participate in that behavior as a means to reduce dissonance (Focella et al. 2014). In other words, it is possible that firms might alter their CSR behavior based on the hypocritical behavior of brand loyal consumers. If this is the case, firms may conduct more CSR efforts in order to reduce the dissonance created by consumer behaviors that are inconsistent to those advocated by the brand. Similar to before, a future study could ask participants to take part in a role-playing scenario in which they are a manager of a firm who is exposed to consumer hypocrisy and then must decide how much money to allocate toward CSR efforts. In both studies, the vicarious hypocrisy effect could be studied from a firm perspective, which would extend this dissertation and research on vicarious hypocrisy.

Exploring Moderators and Boundary Conditions

There are many potential moderators and boundary conditions to the vicarious moral balancing effect found in this dissertation. This section will highlight a few potential areas of

future research to further explore the influence of CSR efforts on the moral behavior of consumers.

A potential future research project could explore the presence of the vicarious moral balancing effect in consumers that are connected to brands, which sell products containing 1) an extremely moral brand image (e.g., Tom's Shoes) or 2) an extremely immoral brand image (e.g., cigarettes). In the former case, it is likely that consumers will exhibit the vicarious moral licensing effect given that the underlying product contains such a strong moral brand image. The vicarious moral licensing effect may also be stronger for such brands. At the same time, there is a possibility that consumers will not exhibit the vicarious moral cleansing effect if consumers can justify or write off socially irresponsible brand actions given that the underlying product contains such a strong moral brand image. In the latter case, the opposite may be true. In other words, for consumers who are connected to brands that sell immoral products, they may not exhibit the vicarious moral licensing effect, but show a possibly stronger moral cleansing effect.

Future research could also look to a consumer's identification with the cause as a potential boundary condition. In other words, the vicarious moral balancing effect may differ based on a consumer's support for the cause advocated by the CSR efforts of a brand. It is possible that lower support for a particular cause may weaken the vicarious moral balancing effect while stronger support for a particular cause may exacerbate the vicarious moral balancing effect. Future research can look into testing these two possibilities.

Additional research might also look in to the extremity of the CSR behavior performed by brands. In other words, how moral does positive moral CSR behavior have to be in order to lead vicarious moral licensing effects while how immoral does negative moral CSR behavior have to be in order to lead to vicarious moral cleansing effects? It is possible that minor CSR

behaviors may not provide a sufficient signal of goal progress to drive the vicarious moral balancing effect. On the other hand, extremely positive or negative moral CSR behaviors may drive more extreme vicarious moral balancing responses. Future research can look at testing these possibilities.

Conclusion

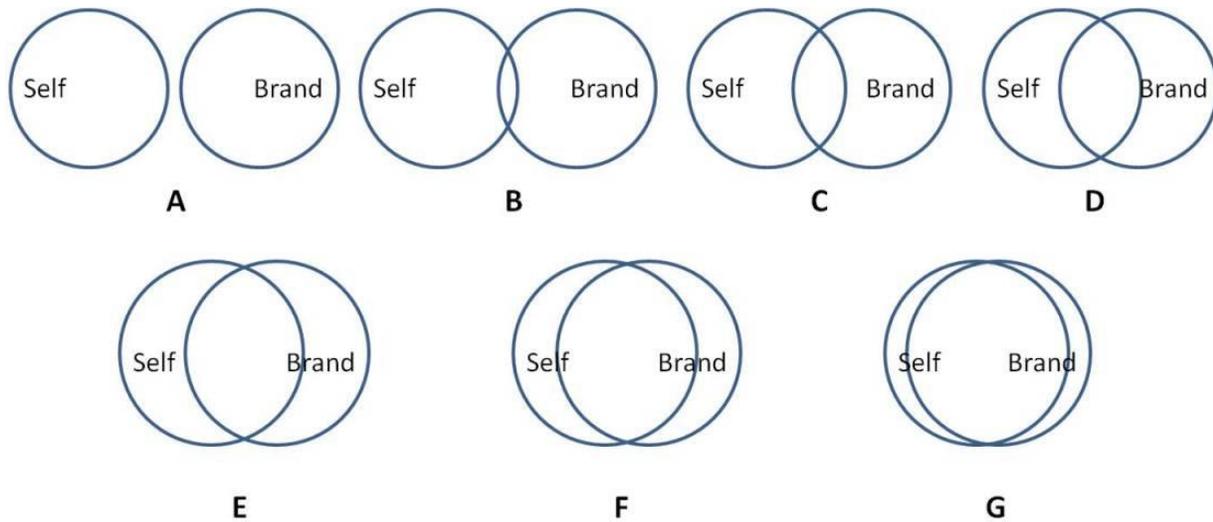
This dissertation provides the first evidence to show that a brand's CSR behavior can influence the moral behavior of consumers. A series of five studies demonstrated vicarious moral licensing and cleansing effects, three methods to eliminate the negative externalities of positive moral CSR behavior, and the process by which vicarious moral licensing effects occur. This is an exciting line of research, which challenges assumptions about the positive influence of CSR efforts on consumer well-being. This dissertation makes several contributions and raises many future research questions that impact multiple stakeholders including academics, consumers, employees, and marketing practitioners.

APPENDIX A: SELF-BRAND OVERLAP MEASURE (STUDIES 1, 2, 4, AND 5)

People hold different types of relationships with companies and brands.

Some people have close relationships with certain brands and may think, "I consider brand X to be "me" (it reflects who I consider myself to be or the way that I want to present myself to others). This type of relationship would be indicated by the letter 'G' in the picture below.

Others hold no relationship or even a negative relationship with a brand. This type of relationship would be indicated by the letter 'A' in the picture below.



Studies 1, 2, and 5:

Using the image above, please select the letter that best describes your relationship with Nike.

Study 4:

Using the image above, please select the letter that best describes your relationship with Apple.

APPENDIX B: NIKE POSITIVE MORAL CSR BEHAVIOR MANIPULATION (STUDIES 1,
2, AND 5)

Nike joins pact to ban the use of formaldehyde
Portland, September 3, 2012, 02:05pm ET

Consumers are likely to be excited to find that Nike is the first major apparel manufacturer to join the Sustainable Apparel Coalition in banning the use of formaldehyde in their products despite calls from other leading manufacturers to not sign the pact.

The coalition's overall mission is to reduce the social impacts of clothing and footwear manufacturing, and to that end it also promotes innovations and spotlight practices at any point in the supply chain – including looking at the impact of the chemicals used in manufacturing.

One such chemical, formaldehyde, most commonly associated with preserving corpses, is also used to give clothing a fresh, unwrinkled appearance and prevent mildew during shipping.

The manufacturers of clothes sold in the US are not required to disclose the use of the chemical on labels. And despite tests in New Zealand that discovered formaldehyde levels in some Chinese clothes exports up to 900 times higher than the prescribed safety limit, no testing has been done on similar clothes sold in the United States.

Yet formaldehyde, a highly toxic, colorless gas, has been linked to skin irritation and allergic reactions. Even more worryingly, the chemical is classified as a human carcinogen by the International Agency for Research on Cancer.

Alex Lancy, a public-relations expert at McKinsey, calls the decision controlled by Nike to join the pact to ban the use of formaldehyde praiseworthy and good business considering Nike's moral obligation to manufacturer products that do not harm or injure or consumers. Lancy continues by saying "I think that issues of product safety are of the utmost importance – a healthy person is a healthy consumer - it's a two-way street".

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For more information, contact: Jamie Keplen, jkeplen@ap.com

APPENDIX C: NIKE NEGATIVE MORAL CSR BEHAVIOR MANIPULATION (STUDIES

1-2)

Nike refuses to join pact to ban the use of formaldehyde
Portland, September 3, 2012, 02:05pm ET

Consumers are likely to be shocked to find that Nike is one of the last major apparel manufacturers to join the Sustainable Apparel Coalition in banning the use of formaldehyde in their products despite calls from other leading manufacturers to sign the pact.

The coalition's overall mission is to reduce the social impacts of clothing and footwear manufacturing, and to that end it also promotes innovations and spotlight practices at any point in the supply chain – including looking at the impact of the chemicals used in manufacturing.

One such chemical, formaldehyde, most commonly associated with preserving corpses, is also used to give clothing a fresh, unwrinkled appearance and prevent mildew during shipping.

The manufacturers of clothes sold in the US are not required to disclose the use of the chemical on labels. And despite tests in New Zealand that discovered formaldehyde levels in some Chinese clothes exports up to 900 times higher than the prescribed safety limit, no testing has been done on similar clothes sold in the United States.

Yet formaldehyde, a highly toxic, colorless gas, has been linked to skin irritation and allergic reactions. Even more worryingly, the chemical is classified as a human carcinogen by the International Agency for Research on Cancer.

Alex Lancy, a public-relations expert at McKinsey, calls the decision controlled by Nike to not join the pact to ban the use of formaldehyde alarming and bad business considering Nike's moral obligation to manufacturer products that do not harm or injure or consumers. Lancy continues by saying "I think that issues of product safety are of the utmost importance – a healthy person is a healthy consumer - it's a two-way street".

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For more information, contact: Jamie Keplen, jkeplen@ap.com

APPENDIX D: NEUTRAL CSR BEHAVIOR MANIPULATION (STUDY 1)

The apparel industry forms pact to ban the use of formaldehyde
Portland, September 3, 2012, 02:05pm ET

Consumers are likely to be interested to find that a number of apparel manufacturers are forming the Sustainable Apparel Coalition in banning the use of formaldehyde in their products.

The coalition's overall mission is to reduce the social impacts of clothing and footwear manufacturing, and to that end it also promotes innovations and spotlight practices at any point in the supply chain – including looking at the impact of the chemicals used in manufacturing.

One such chemical, formaldehyde, most commonly associated with preserving corpses, is also used to give clothing a fresh, unwrinkled appearance and prevent mildew during shipping.

The manufacturers of clothes sold in the US are not required to disclose the use of the chemical on labels. And despite tests in New Zealand that discovered formaldehyde levels in some Chinese clothes exports up to 900 times higher than the prescribed safety limit, no testing has been done on similar clothes sold in the United States.

Yet formaldehyde, a highly toxic, colorless gas, has been linked to skin irritation and allergic reactions. Even more worryingly, the chemical is classified as a human carcinogen by the International Agency for Research on Cancer.

Alex Lancy, a public-relations expert at McKinsey, calls the decision controlled by the apparel industry to form the pact to ban the use of formaldehyde important and part of business today considering the apparel industry's moral obligation to manufacturer products that do not harm or injure or consumers. Lancy continues by saying “I think that issues of product safety are of the utmost importance – a healthy person is a healthy consumer - it’s a two-way street”.

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For more information, contact: Jamie Keplen, jkeplen@ap.com

APPENDIX E: DICTATOR GAME (STUDIES 1 AND 4)

The purpose of this study is to test the enjoyment of tasks when rewards are offered.

You will be randomly paired with one individual in a different room from this session.

There are two roles for this task:

- 1 - The sender
- 2 - The receiver

Please continue to see which role you will be assigned to.

You have been randomly assigned as the role of **'sender'**.

For participating in this study, you as the 'sender' have received ten (10) entries into a drawing for one of four \$25 Amazon gift cards. The receiver has received zero (0) entries.

This is real.

As a 'sender', you will decide how many of the ten (10) entries you will keep and how many you will send to the 'receiver'.

The 'receiver' only receives as many as entries as you send them.

However, this task is completely anonymous - no one will know who they were paired with.

You can send from 0-10 entries to the 'receiver' and you as the 'sender' will get the rest.

Please continue once you understand your role and are ready to make your decision.

How many entries would you like to send?

APPENDIX F: RICE GENEROSITY TASK (STUDY 1)

HOME SUBJECTS GROUPS RICE! SIGN UP LOGIN ABOUT SPREAD THE WORD ENGLISH

FREE Rice 2.0

For each answer you get right, we donate 10 grains of rice through the World Food Programme to help end hunger

login | sign up (track your totals, join and create groups and more)

English Vocabulary Change Subjects

mix means:

close
hurry
blend
yell

1 right = 10 grains
5 right = 50 grains

Play and feed hungry people

7697470 grains of rice donated yesterday.
Over 99 billion grains donated to date (see [totals](#)).

How to Play

- Click on the right answer in the middle of this page.
- If you get it right, you get a harder question. If you get it wrong, you get an easier question.
- For each answer you get right, we donate 10 grains of rice to the [United Nations World Food Program](#).

WARNING: This game may make you smarter. It may improve your speaking, writing, thinking, grades, job performance... ([more](#))

Give More Rice
Watch Free Rice

WFP **SYRIA EMERGENCY**
Hungry families urgently [Donate Now >>](#)

Follow us on: [twitter](#)

APPENDIX G: CHEATING TASK INSTRUCTIONS (STUDY 2)

The purpose of this study is to test the enjoyment of tasks when rewards for performance are offered.

You will have 10 minutes to solve 10 GRE questions.

For every 1 question that you get right, you will gain one (1) entry into a drawing for one of four \$25 Amazon gift cards. If you are in the top 10% of participants in terms of the amount of time it takes you to complete the questions and the number you get right, you will gain an extra twenty (20) entries on top of the one (1) entry you get for answering each question correctly.

This is real.

The research assistant is not supposed to be aware of your performance, so you will be timing yourself, and grading your performance.

There are two packets on your desk.

- 1) The first packet contains the questions and spare sheets of paper to work on.
- 2) The second packet contains the answers to the questions. When you have finished with the questions, please grade your performance.

The research assistant does not have permission to keep your sheets, so once 10 minutes has passed, please put all of the test materials in your bag or safely with you.

Do you understand these instructions? Type YES below if you do and continue to the next screen. If not, please re-read the instructions until you understand them.

At this time, please go to the 'Online Stopwatch' located in the other Internet window and push start.

Please stop the clock after 10 minutes has passed or when you have finished with all 10 questions.

Once finished, grade your performance and enter the information below.

Please enter below exactly how much time you spent answering the questions.

Please enter below how many questions you answered correctly.

APPENDIX H: CHEATING TASK QUESTIONS (STUDY 2)

1. Of the following, which is greater than $\frac{1}{2}$?

Indicate ALL such fractions.

- A. $\frac{2}{5}$
- B. $\frac{4}{7}$
- C. $\frac{4}{9}$
- D. $\frac{5}{11}$
- E. $\frac{6}{13}$
- F. $\frac{8}{15}$
- G. $\frac{9}{17}$

2. If an object travels at five feet per second, how many feet does it travel in one hour?

- A. 30
- B. 300
- C. 720
- D. 1800
- E. 18000

3. In a class of 78 students 41 are taking French, 22 are taking German. Of the students taking French or German, 9 are taking both courses. How many students are not enrolled in either course?

- A. 6
- B. 15
- C. 24
- D. 33
- E. 54

APPENDIX H: CHEATING TASK QUESTIONS (STUDY 2) – *continued*

Select two answer choices each of which can be used to complete the sentence in a logical manner, and both of which produce sentences with closely similar meanings.

4. The prize competition was _____ as a showcase for new technology, but instead the competition was marred by disqualifications and disputes.

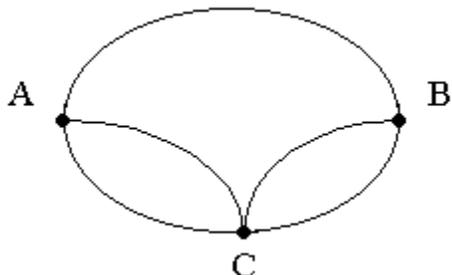
- A. disappointing
- B. conceived
- C. touted
- D. heralded
- E. promising
- F. required

5. The increasing interactivity emerging in the latest computer systems means that the traditional view of the computer as a _____ of information now unduly limiting.

- A. gleaner
- B. transformer
- C. processor
- D. producer
- E. repository
- F. cache

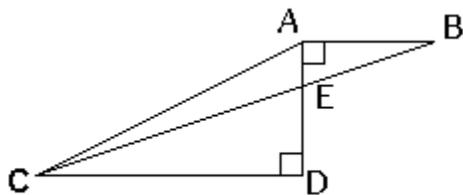
6. Those with a reputation for _____ behavior seldom inspire respect: unwavering adherence to a viewpoint is more admired than flexibility.

- A. capricious
- B. bombastic
- C. dogmatic
- D. fickle
- E. honorable
- F. stalwart

APPENDIX H: CHEATING TASK QUESTIONS (STUDY 2) – *continued*

7. Amy has to visit towns B and C in any order. The roads connecting these towns with her home are shown on the diagram. How many different routes can she take starting from A and returning to A, going through both B and C (but not more than once through each) and not travelling any road twice on the same trip?

- A. 10
- B. 8
- C. 6
- D. 4
- E. 2



8. In the figure above $AD = 4$, $AB = 3$ and $CD = 9$. What is the area of triangle AEC?

- A. 18
- B. 13.5
- C. 9
- D. 4.5
- E. 3

APPENDIX H: CHEATING TASK QUESTIONS (STUDY 2) – *continued*

9. A highly intelligent person often thinks (i)____; a few snippets of information can trigger a (ii)____ conclusion that might not stand up to closer, and (iii)____, scrutiny.

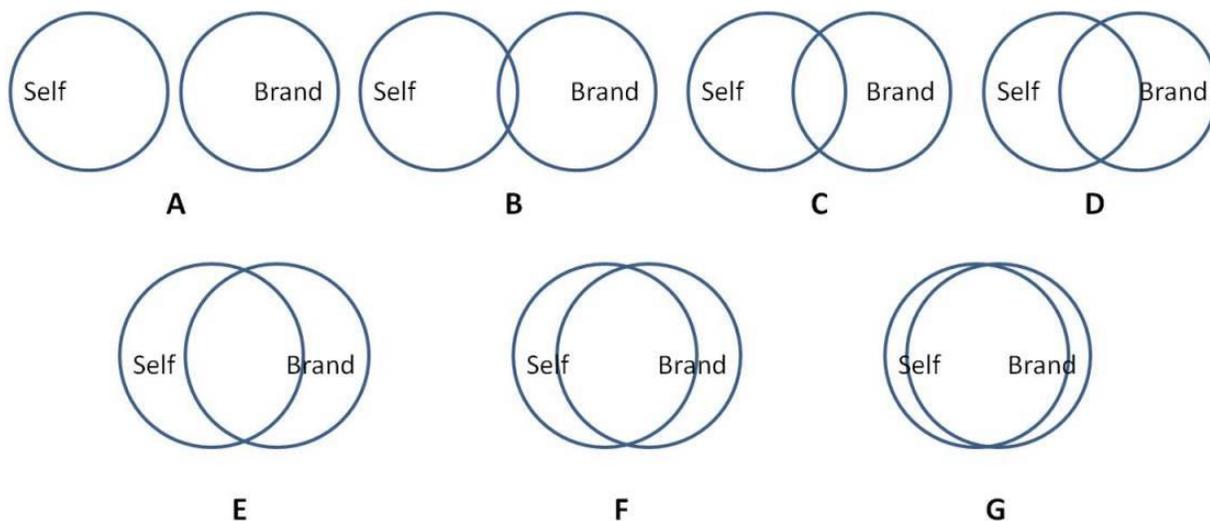
- | Blank (i) | Blank (ii) | Blank (iii) |
|----------------|------------|----------------|
| A. too deeply | D. firm | G. slower |
| B. too warily | E. labored | H. precipitous |
| C. too quickly | F. hasty | I. overt |

10. Major philosophical (i)____ about morality, identity and rationality, for example, can often be (ii)____ by thought experiments: short and simple expositions that pose an abstract and complex problem in a concrete manner with all the (iii)____ factors removed.

- | Blank (i) | Blank (ii) | Blank (iii) |
|---------------|----------------|---------------|
| A. certitudes | D. mimicked | G. extraneous |
| B. dilemmas | E. illuminated | H. inherent |
| C. dogmas | F. evoked | I. pivotal |

APPENDIX I: LOW SELF-BRAND OVERLAP MANIPULATION (STUDY 3)

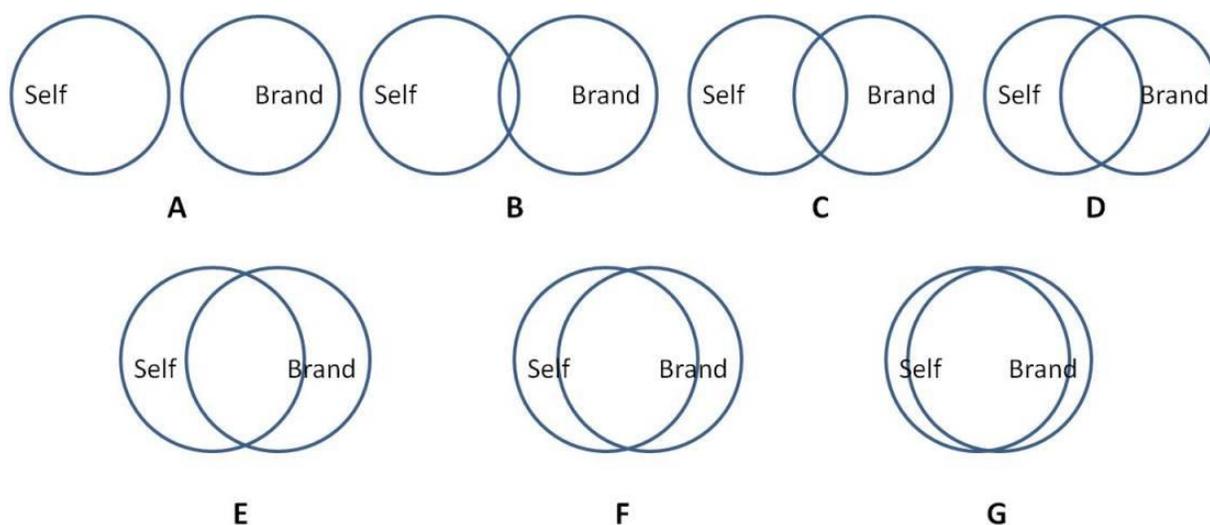
People hold different types of relationships with companies and brands. Some people do not have very close relationships with certain brands and may think, "I do not consider brand X to be "me" (it does not reflect who I consider myself to be or the way that I want to present myself to others). This type of relationship would be indicated by the letters 'A' or 'B' in the picture below.



Below, please put down a brand that you do not have a close relationship with as indicated by the letters 'A' or 'B' above. This is NOT a brand you hate or dislike, but a brand that you have no relationship with or very little relationship with.

APPENDIX J: HIGH SELF-BRAND OVERLAP MANIPULATION (STUDY 3)

People hold different types of relationships with companies and brands. Some people have very close relationships with certain brands and may think, "I consider brand X to be "me" (it reflects who I consider myself to be or the way that I want to present myself to others). This type of relationship would be indicated by the letters 'E', 'F', or 'G' in the picture below.



Below, please put down a brand that you have a close relationship with as indicated by the letters 'E', 'F', or 'G' above.

APPENDIX K: BRANDS CHOSEN (STUDY 3)

Low Self-Brand Overlap Brands Chosen	High Self-Brand Overlap Brands Chosen
American Eagle	Amazon
Apple	Apple (2)
Avon	Arizona Iced Tea
Coach	Avon
Coca-Cola (3)	Bath and Body Works
Craftsman	Burger King
Crisco	Coca-Cola
General Mills	Express Clothing
Hollister	Google (2)
Ikea	HGTV
Kraft (2)	JFG Coffee
Levis	Lenovo
Lucky	Levis
Mary K	Microsoft
Nokia	Mountain Dew
Pepsi (2)	New York and Company
Reebok	Nike
Samsung	Old Navy
Toyota	Rue 21
Wendy's	Samsung
	Sony
	Toms Shoes
	Weihenstephaner

APPENDIX L: POSITIVE MORAL CSR BEHAVIOR LISTING TASK (STUDY 3)

Instructions:

Now, imagine that (insert brand participant chose earlier) performs a series of good behaviors that does support the belief that (insert brand participant chose earlier) is a moral/ethical company.

List a few good behaviors below that (insert brand participant chose earlier) could do that you would personally consider to be more ethical/moral.

APPENDIX M: POSITIVE MORAL CSR BEHAVIORS CHOSEN (STUDY 3)

Examples of Positive Moral CSR Behaviors Chosen:

- Paying fair wages
- Donating money, equipment, and software to a charity or cause
- Decreasing pollution
- Reducing carbon footprint
- Instituting recycling and green manufacturing programs
- Using no animal byproducts or animal testing
- Supporting LBGT rights
- Using eco-friendly and organic product ingredients
- Volunteering time
- Providing scholarships and supporting education
- Supporting low-income families
- Making ethical investments
- Giving back to local communities

APPENDIX N: BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS TASK (STUDY 3)

Participants are presented with the following instructions and responses are based on a five-point scale from (Much Less than Before to Much More than Before).

Next, we are going to present you with different behaviors that you might take part in.

Please think about how your behavior would be affected if you found out that (insert brand participant chose earlier) actually performed the good (vs. bad) behaviors you listed earlier including: (insert list of behaviors participants entered earlier).

For each of these behaviors, choose a response that indicates how you think your behavior would change if you found out that (insert brand participants chose earlier) actually performed the behaviors you listed earlier.

1. I would donate to charity. (Positive Moral Consumer Behavior)
2. I would go to a movie. (Neutral Consumer Behavior)
3. I would help out others in need. (Positive Moral Consumer Behavior)
4. I would volunteer. (Positive Moral Consumer Behavior)
5. I would visit the mall. (Neutral Consumer Behavior)
6. I would steal from work. (Negative Moral Consumer Behavior)
7. I would go out to eat. (Neutral Consumer Behavior)
8. I would cheat. (Negative Moral Consumer Behavior)
9. I would lie about something important. (Negative Moral Consumer Behavior)
10. I would watch television. (Neutral Consumer Behavior)

APPENDIX O: APPLE POSITIVE MORAL CSR BEHAVIOR MANIPULATION (STUDY 4)

Apple offers donation program to low-income school districts
By JAMIE KEPLEN, AP Technology Writer – Feb 3, 2013

CUPERTINO (AP) - Consumers are likely to be excited to find that Apple is introducing a new program to donate older generation Apple devices to people who really need it -- educators in low-income school districts. Apple is also calling on its customers to join the effort by donating their used Apple devices to local Apple Stores. Apple is further encouraging its customer base to donate their personal devices by promising to donate one Apple device for every donation made by a consumer.

An Apple spokesman stated, “We would like to do our part to improve educational services and alleviate the financial troubles facing many school districts across the nation. We have many loyal customers and together we can make a big difference over the long term.”

According to statistics from the National Center for Education (NCE), states have made deep cuts to their education budgets since the Great Recession. Overall, 26 states will spend less per student in 2013 than they spent in 2012, while 35 states will spend less than they did before the recession. According to the NCE, cutting budgets has damaging effects on America’s education system as a whole and often forces school districts to scale back or even cut services and programs that often disproportionately affect students at low-income school districts.

Donating Apple products goes a long way to improving the learning conditions for these students according to Todd Sitkins, a principal of a low-income school district that received over 30 iPads as an early participant in the program. “I believe that the most successful students we are educating today will be those who can quickly find relevant information and know what to do with it. I am simply blown away at the impact this initiative has had on the way our teachers teach and the way our students learn,” said Todd.

Apple hopes that encouraging its customers to participate in the donation program will lead to further success stories and a larger impact on educational programs. Apple’s efforts, along with those of its customers, are likely to benefit many cash-strapped school districts across the United States. An initial survey found that over 70% of Apple customers plan to donate at least one Apple device through the program. Educators, like Mr. Sitkins, are banking on Apple customers to follow through on their good intentions.

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APPENDIX P: DICTATOR GAME (STUDY 5)

For this next task, you will play a game with another Mturk worker. The purpose of this game is to test the enjoyment of tasks when rewards are offered.

For this game, you have been randomly paired with another Mturk worker.

There are two roles for this task:

- 1 - The sender
- 2 - The receiver

Please continue to see which role you will be assigned to.

You have been randomly assigned as the role of 'sender'.

For participating in this study, you as the 'sender' have received ten (10) entries into a drawing for one \$20 Amazon gift card.

The receiver has received zero (0) entries.

This is real.

As a 'sender', you will decide how many of the ten (10) entries you will keep and how many you will send to the 'receiver'.

The 'receiver' only receives as many as entries as you send them.

However, this task is completely anonymous - no one will know who they were paired with.

You can send from 0-10 entries to the 'receiver' and you as the 'sender' will get the rest.

Here are some examples of the game.

Example 1: If the sender sends 8 entries, the sender will keep 2 entries, and the receiver will receive 8 entries.

Example 2: If the sender sends 10 entries, the sender will keep 0 entries, and the receiver will receive 10 entries.

Remember, you have been assigned as the role of 'sender'. You have been allocated 10 entries.

Please decide below how many entries you would like to send.

APPENDIX Q: SAVE THE CHILDREN ADVERTISEMENT



APPENDIX R: STARBUCK'S ADVERTISEMENT



[Register Card](#) [Your Account](#) [Shop Online](#) [Our Coffee](#)

Join your neighbors and volunteer with us.

April is our Global Month of Service. All month long there are great projects around your community. See how you can get involved.

[Join A Project](#)

Share your story on Twitter
[#extrashotofgood](#)

The illustration at the bottom of the advertisement depicts a stylized community scene. On the left, there are three trees of varying shades of green. In the center, a white path winds through a green field where two dark-colored figures are walking together. In the background, there is a cluster of buildings in various shades of green and grey, representing a town or city. The sky is white with a few grey clouds.

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