

**The Cause Matters! How Cause Marketing Campaigns Can Increase the Demand for  
Conventional over Green Products**

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*ABSTRACT*

Customers are increasingly attentive to the social and ethical ramifications of their consumption, which threatens the demand particularly for conventional over green products as it may increase guilt and thus dull the hedonistic feelings experienced with those products. In an attempt to counteract this threat, some companies utilize cause-related marketing (CM) campaigns, in which they offer to offset some of their products' negative side effects. However, as such campaigns may emphasize the product's harmfulness, it is not clear if they are beneficial. One field and one laboratory experiment, both incentive compatible involving real purchases, show that customers are more likely to buy a conventional over a green product when the former is bundled with a campaign that is offsetting an unrelated problem rather than a problem caused by the product – unless the donation offsets the specific damage caused by the customers' own consumption. These effects are mediated by guilt.

*Keywords:* consumer choice; moral regulation; organic; donation

As witnessed by the remarkable growth in the global market for organic and green products, consumers are becoming increasingly attentive to social and ethical considerations (see Anderson and Cunningham 1972; Hunt and Dorfman 2009), and thus, more aware of products' negative externalities, (i.e. the unaccounted side effects that stem from products' production or consumption and affect people not directly involved in the purchase transaction; e.g., pollution or exploitation of natural resources; Kaul, Grunberg, and Stern 1999). As a consequence, the purchase and consumption of conventional (as opposed to organic or green) products may create feelings of guilt (Dahl, Honea, and Manchanda 2003); tainting the pleasure derived from them and possibly leading consumers to refrain from their consumption altogether. This might be particularly harmful for products like coffee – known to be consumed for its hedonic value all around the world – rather than for utilitarian products (e.g., kitchen paper).

To help alleviate the potential guilt stemming from products' negative externalities and their potentially detrimental effect on hedonistic feelings so that consumers continue liking and buying them, some companies use cause-related marketing (CM) campaigns in which they promise a donation to a cause every time a consumer purchases their products. The idea behind this approach is related to moral regulation (Mazar and Zhong 2010): If customers' moral self-concept is threatened through guilt experienced with the purchase or consumption of a product that goes against their sense of social responsibility and morality, customers will be motivated to engage in a morally good act such as a donation to compensate for the “bad” act (see Renetzky, 2015).

What is less understood, however, is what kind of CM campaign works best in such circumstances and why. In particular, when designing CM campaigns it seems only rational that

companies donate towards mitigating the guilt-inducing externalities caused or intensified by their products (*same domain-donation*): such as a donation towards the fight against deforestation when purchasing coffee (see Dallmayr, 2016). However, some companies' CM campaigns donate towards causes that are unrelated to their products' negative externalities (*other domain-donation*). For example, Tchibo coffee (2014) ran a CM campaign that donated to children in need.

The offer to donate to a cause from the same domain seems most intuitive as it should make the product itself and thus its consumption appear as less harmful; and less harm should translate into less consumption guilt and likewise in greater hedonic value derived from the product. At the same time, however, such a same domain-donation might increase the saliency of the product's damage and thus, not only increase the perceived harmfulness of the product but also make the consumer feel hypocritical as she supports to offset a damage that is induced by her demand in the first place. As a result, the guilt associated with the purchase and consumption of the product might be promoted rather than reduced and therefore make consumers avoid it altogether.

Both types of CM campaigns are currently widely used by companies without guidance from previous research about their relative effectiveness and the underlying consumer psychology. In this article, we investigate this shortcoming. Specifically, in one field and one laboratory experiment with consequential (i.e. incentive-compatible) purchase decisions we examine whether and why CM campaigns work better if they offer a donation to fight the product's adverse effects (*same domain*) or if they offer a donation to fight a problem that is not attributed to the product (*other domain*). Moreover, we investigate if there is any difference in same domain campaigns when advertising to offset the product-related damage in general or to

compensate the specific damage caused by the customer's own ('your') personal consumption (*personalized same domain*).

By investigating the effect of same versus other domain-donations in a CM-context we extend the current body of knowledge on CM. In addition, our research contributes to the literature on moral regulation twofold. First, it is the first to directly compare the efficacy of moral compensation-mechanisms across same versus other domains (i.e. when the unethical and ethical behavior arise from the same or from different domains). Second, our research sheds light on the question if the dynamics of moral regulation can be triggered not only by subsequent but also simultaneous actions.

## **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

### *Cause-Related Marketing (CM) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)*

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) is typically defined as social marketing that brings the for-profit and non-profit sectors together for mutual benefit (Ross, Stutts, and Patterson 1991; Chernev and Blair 2015). Today it is one of the major components of business growth and sustainability (Mbare 2007) with corporate sponsorship of social causes more than doubling in the last ten years, and spending in North America projected reaching \$2 billion in 2016 (IEG 2016).

Cause-related marketing (CM) represents a specific type of CSR (Chang 2008). The key attribute of CM is its transactional element: Companies advertise to donate to a cause each time a customer buys their products (Varadarajan and Menon 1988). That is, customers must make a purchase to trigger the donation. This transactional element promotes customers' feelings of

control and responsibility (Krishna and Rajan 2009). Additionally, it contributes to warm-glow feelings (Andreoni 1990), which have been suggested (but to date not explicitly shown) to reduce customers' guilt when indulging in hedonic and luxury products and result in favorable brand attitudes and purchase decisions (Arora and Henderson 2007; Strahilevitz and Myers 1998). Accordingly, CM represents a tactical tool companies employ to increase sales and a strategic tool to improve brand image (Ross et al. 1991).

Previous research has focused primarily on understanding the general characteristics of a successful CM campaign and has examined a broad range of success-factors, including the characteristics of the cause (e.g., Ross et al. 1991), company (e.g., Strahilevitz 2003), consumer (e.g., Wymer and Samu 2009), non-profit organization (e.g., Barnes 1992), and product (e.g., Strahilevitz and Myers 1998), as well as the fit among these factors (e.g., Pracejus and Olsen 2004). Specifically, research has shown that fit in CM or CSR can be created in multiple ways, ranging from congruence between the cause and a company's core business (e.g., a pet food brand donating for homeless pets, Menon and Kahn 2003) to a common target market (e.g. a women's fashion brand donating to a NPO fighting breast cancer) or geographic compatibility between the two (e.g., a national brand supporting a national cause, Simmons and Becker-Olsen 2006; Zdravkovic, Magnusson, and Stanley 2010). These findings are important for our research as a same domain-donation appears to provide a natural fit due congruency. Thus, any meaningful comparison of the effectiveness of same versus other domain donations on demand for conventional products associated with negative externalities (over their green counterparts) requires that the other domain-donation provides the same level of perceived fit through other dimensions.

*The Consumer Perspective: Guilt and Moral-Regulation*

Recent findings have shown that the purchase and use of products associated with negative externalities is increasingly going against people's sense of social responsibility and morality and thus, evoking guilt among consumers (Burnett and Lunsford 1994; Dahl et al. 2003). At the same time, guilt (manipulated as well as explicitly measured) has been shown to play an important role in the dynamics of moral regulation (Carlsmith and Gross 1969; Zhong and Liljenquist 2006): people generally care about maintaining a certain level of moral self-worth (e.g., Mazar, Amir, and Ariely 2008), such that when they operate above or below their individual set point (i.e. they feel a boost or blow to their moral self-concept), they push back in the opposite direction to restore their internally regulated level (Jordan, Mullen, and Murnighan 2011). For instance, after having engaged in a morally questionable behavior (e.g., cheating on a test) people feel guilty and will try to *compensate* for their "bad" behavior with a subsequent "good" act (e.g., donating; Zhong et al. 2010). Unfortunately, the pendulum also swings in the other direction: after having engaged in a morally good behavior, individuals may feel *licensed* to engage in morally questionable behavior (e.g., Monin and Miller 2001; Sachdeva, Ilic, and Medin 2009). Specific to the consumption domain, research by Mazar and Zhong (2010) demonstrated that consumers who viewed the purchase of green products as a moral act shared more money in a dictator game after purchasing conventional products than after purchasing green products. Interestingly, the dynamics of moral self-regulation can not only be evoked through completed actions but also by anticipating doing good later (Cascio and Plant 2015), imagination of or mere agreement to engage in (un)ethical behavior (Khan and Dhar 2006) and by writing stories about one's positive or negative traits (Sachdeva et al. 2009). That is, people are willing to give themselves credit for good intentions (Miller and Effron 2010). In addition, people have been found to pursue moral credentials strategically if they anticipate that they

might need them to justify a later decision (Merritt et al. 2012). This need for justification is even more relevant with respect to hedonic and pleasurable consumption experiences, which are guilt-laden and hard to justify (Khan and Dhar 2007; Okada 2005).

Together these findings suggest that the dynamics of moral regulation might also play a role when products associated with negative externalities (e.g., pollution) are bundled with CM campaigns. In such situations, the potentially guilt-laden “bad” act of purchasing the product is accompanied with a “good” act, the triggering of a donation to help someone or something. Thus, what has been suggested for purchases of hedonic and luxury products in the non-moral domain (Khan and Dhar 2006; Strahilevitz and Myers 1998) might also be true for purchases of products that go against people’s increasing sense of social responsibility and morality: consumers’ guilt associated with purchasing these products could be mitigated through bundling the purchase with a CM campaign, thereby increasing the demand for such products relative to less harmful products. However, the added complexity for such CM campaigns is that it is unclear whether the type of domain (*same* vs. *other*) matters for the CM campaign’s success in reducing consumer guilt.

In general, the moral regulation literature suggests that licensing and compensation-mechanisms can be successful no matter if the two counterbalancing behaviors are in the same domain (Monin and Miller 2001) or in differing domains (Cascio and Plant 2015; Mazar and Zhong 2010) but a direct comparison of relative effectiveness has not been done. In addition, recent evidence reveals, that under some conditions the type of domain does matter. In particular, Effron and Monin (2010) showed that when judging other people’s blatant transgressions (e.g., not promoting employees because of their ethnicity), participants were only willing to excuse those transgressions if they were preceded with a good deed in an other domain (e.g., fighting

sexual harassment); a previous good deed in the same domain as the transgression (e.g., implementing programs to recruit minority applicants) was seen as hypocritical. These findings might extrapolate to own (and not only others') behavior. That is, triggering a donation to fight a problem that one is fostering through one's purchase and consumption could induce stronger or additional guilt experienced by the consumer as it potentially not only increases the saliency of the damage fostered by one's purchase but also induces feelings of hypocrisy (Effron and Monin 2010). Thus, the same domain-donation may do both at the same time: reduce guilt due to it being a "good act" while also increase guilt from the product in the first place, and therefore overall, not providing an effective guilt-reduction mechanism. These effects may result in lower demand for the product relative to it being offered with an other domain CM campaign (Steenhaut and Van Kenhove 2006).

At the same time, however, it has been suggested that guilt is most effectively diminished if the actual wrong is repaired (Lindsay-Hartz 1984). Furthermore, people like feeling in control (Ward and Barnes 2001) and are often motivated to set things right after wrongdoing (Lindsay-Hartz 1984). Thus, the negative same domain-effects outlined above might be mitigated if the donation is *personalized* and explicitly described as offering the ability to repair some of the specific damage caused by one's own personal consumption (e.g., "a donation toward reducing the deforestation caused by *your* cup of coffee").

### *Hypotheses and Overview of Studies*

In a context in which consumer have the choice between less harmful (e.g., organic coffee) and more harmful (e.g., conventional coffee) alternatives, they should be more likely to purchase the latter the lower the guilt they experience from purchasing and consuming the product. Based on this assumption, we make two predictions. First, we propose that for

conventional products associated with adverse effects an other domain-donation is generally advantageous over a same domain-donation. Specifically, an other domain-donation provides a better guilt-reduction mechanism as it avoids emphasizing the product's harms, with corresponding feelings of guilt affecting the hedonic experience (Dahl et al. 2003). Second, the disadvantage of a same domain-donation might be reduced if the campaign offers consumers the specific opportunity to offset their own negative impact (i.e. personalized same domain-donation; see research by Lindsay-Hartz 1984).

To test our predictions we first identified one cause in the same domain (fighting water pollution) and one cause in the other domain (fighting illiteracy) that were considered as equally important by consumers and were perceived to be of equal fit with our focal product category: coffee. We also ensured that our same domain-cause was actually offsetting a damage consumers attributed to our focal product category. We then ran one field and one laboratory experiment both with incentive compatible, consequential purchase decisions to test our two predictions and examine the underlying process, in particular, the mediating role of guilt. To avoid potential cultural differences in terms of attitudes and liking of coffee, both studies were ran at the same European university campus.

## **EXPERIMENT 1: FIELD STUDY**

Experiment 1 was designed to test in an incentive compatible context whether consumers prefer a same or other domain-CM campaign for a product with negative externalities. We chose coffee as our focal product category because we wanted to use a category that is frequently consumed by most people and its consumption is oftentimes perceived as a pleasurable

experience (Alba and Williamson 2013). More importantly, our objective was to select a product that is associated with negative externalities but not stigmatized as a major pollutant (such as, for example, air travel). That way, if a same domain-donation did increase the saliency of the damage we would be less likely to run into ceiling-effects. Finally, the coffee category offers consumers choices between relatively more (conventional coffee) and less harmful alternatives (organic coffee) such that we could test realistic trade-offs in our subsequent experiments.

We conducted two pre-tests in order to select a suitable same and other domain-cause. Pre-test 1 was to identify one cause in the same and one cause in the other domain that were perceived to be of equal fit with our focal product category: coffee, and of equal importance to the consumer. This step was crucial to ensure that any differences we would find between consumers' preferences for the same versus other domain-donation could indeed be attributed to the domain-difference rather than importance or fit (e.g., Arora and Henderson 2007; Pracejus and Olsen 2004). Among ten causes (five same and five other domain-causes) we did not encounter a significant difference between fighting water pollution and fighting illiteracy with respect to perceived importance or fit (see Web-Appendix A for a detailed description of Pre-test 1). In Pre-test 2 we conducted a survey on environmental harms to ensure that fighting water pollution is indeed perceived as a same domain-cause by consumers. Among 10 damages surveyed water pollution was the damage most severely associated with conventional coffee. Furthermore, when comparing conventional versus organic coffee participants generally associated less water pollution and less environmental harm with organic coffee. Also they perceived organic coffee to be healthier and associated less responsibility and guilt with it (see Web-Appendix B for a detailed description of Pre-test 2). Thus, offering a donation to fight water pollution with

conventional coffee is viewed as a same domain-donation of equal importance and fit as the other domain-donation to fight illiteracy.

### *Method*

We operated a coffee booth at a summer music festival on campus of a European university. The festival, which was open to the public for free, took place over three days. Our booth was one of many others that were offering foods and drinks, but we were the only ones selling coffee. We placed signs with “coffee” around our booth in order to attract customers. For detailed information about the studies see Web-Appendix C.

We had two thermal containers with coffee on the table and placed a sign in front of each of them displaying the respective type of coffee (“conventional coffee” or “organic coffee”; in actuality both coffees were the same), the price for one cup, and a short description. The table with the thermal containers stood under a garden pavilion such that the signs could only be read if people approached the booth frontally and were close to the table. We kept the sign for the organic coffee constant for the entire duration of the experiment: It advertised the coffee as having been produced in accordance with regulations for organic farming and displayed a price of Euro 1.20. We switched the sign accompanying the conventional coffee every 20 minutes so as to randomly assign passersby to one of our five between-subjects conditions. In total, every condition was run nine times during the course of the study. Whenever the sign was switched the experimenter who was blind to hypotheses ensured that no consumers were approaching the stand or were standing in front of the stand.

Our experiment consisted of three experimental conditions with CM campaigns accompanying the conventional coffee, and two control conditions without CM campaigns (single-factor design with five conditions in total). In our three experimental conditions the

conventional coffee was offered same as the organic coffee for Euro 1.20 but coupled with a CM campaign promising a 10 cents donation for every cup of conventional coffee sold. We manipulated between the experimental conditions the type of CM campaign that customers encountered (*same vs. personalized same vs. other domain*). In the same domain-condition, the sign read that for each purchase of a cup of the conventional coffee, 10 cents would be donated toward offsetting water pollution caused by the production of coffee. In the personalized same domain-condition, the sign read that for each purchase of a cup of conventional coffee, 10 cents would be donated toward offsetting water pollution caused by the production of the consumer's ("*your*") coffee (i.e., the personalized same domain-condition differed from the same domain-condition by only one additional word: "*your*"). In the other domain-condition, the sign read that for each purchase of a cup of conventional coffee, 10 cents would be donated toward offsetting the educational disadvantages caused by illiteracy.

In the *control equal price* condition, we offered both coffees at the same price as in the experimental conditions (Euro 1.20) and in the *control* condition, we offered the conventional coffee at 10 cents less (i.e. Euro 1.10; this price difference equaled the size of the donation) than the organic coffee. The latter condition was meant to mimic more closely real-world settings as organic products are typically more expensive than conventional alternatives. Furthermore, we wanted to test whether companies could pass-on their CM campaign-expenses to the customer. To keep the amount of information on the conventional coffee-sign similar across all five conditions and similar to the amount of information on the organic coffee-sign, in the two control conditions the conventional coffee-sign read that the coffee had been produced in accordance with national regulations for coffee. Web-Appendix D displays an overview of the five conditions.

When a consumer approached the booth in order to buy a cup of coffee the experimenter asked which coffee they wanted to buy. After making their choice and paying, the experimenter handed out the coffee and noted the consumer's choice.

We sold 290 cups of coffee during the music festival. The number of purchased cups varied between 53 and 64 per condition.

### *Results and Discussion*

Overall, condition had a significant effect on the purchase shares for conventional and organic coffee ( $\chi^2(4) = 38.37, p < .001$ , effect size  $V = .36$ ). As can be seen in Figure 1, in the control condition, in which similar to real world-situations organic coffee was more expensive than conventional coffee, consumers generally preferred organic (71.87%) over conventional coffee (28.13%). The purchase shares were significantly different from an equal distribution ( $\chi^2(1) = 12.25, p < .001$ ). Furthermore, as expected (Bijmolt, Van Heerde, and Pieters 2005), increasing the price of conventional coffee to be the same as that of the organic coffee (equal price control) decreased the purchase share for conventional coffee (to 17.86%), albeit not significantly ( $\chi^2(1) = 1.76, p = .19$ ). Thus, in general, our consumers preferred the less harmful organic product (see Pre-test 2) and were willing to pay a price premium for it.

\*\*\* Insert Figure 1 about here.\*\*\*

As for the three CM conditions, offering conventional coffee at the same price as organic coffee but adding a same domain CM campaign reversed the trend: it significantly *increased* the conventional coffee's purchase share (36.84%) versus the equal price control condition (17.86%;  $\chi^2(1) = 5.11, p = .02, V = .21$ ). More importantly with regards to our research questions, we

compared each of our three CM campaign experimental conditions to the control condition. As can be seen in Figure 1, the same domain-CM campaign failed to significantly surpass the attraction of a 10 cents cheaper conventional coffee without a CM campaign (36.84% vs. control condition: 28.13%;  $\chi^2(1) = 1.05, p = .31$ ). However, in line with our hypotheses the CM campaign did significantly surpass the attraction of the control condition (28.13%) when offering an other domain (58.33%;  $\chi^2(1) = 11.55, p < .001, V = .31$ ) or personalized same domain-donation (66.40%;  $\chi^2(1) = 16.82, p < .001, V = .38$ ; no significant difference between these two conditions:  $\chi^2(1) = .71, p = .40$ ). Furthermore, in contrast to the other conditions, the *majority* of customers now preferred the conventional coffee over organic coffee (for the personalized same donation purchase shares differed significantly from an equal distribution,  $\chi^2(1) = 5.43, p = .02$ ; for the other domain-donation purchase shares did not differ significantly from an equal distribution,  $\chi^2(1) = 1.67, p = .20$ ).

In sum, the generally less preferred conventional coffee (28.13% purchase share in control condition) associated with more unfavorable consequences (see Pre-test 2) significantly increased its market share while not sacrificing profit margin when coupled with a CM campaign that offered a donation either in an *other* domain or in the same domain but in which the damage that was offered to be offset was *personalized* (“water pollution caused by the production of *your* coffee”). In other words, our customers were willing to incur costs and purchase an “inferior” product (i.e. conventional coffee) at a price surcharge (10¢) but only if paired with the right cause. A donation toward offsetting general product-related damages (*same* domain) did not significantly increase consumer demand in comparison to control and induced significantly less demand than the other CM campaigns (same vs. other domain: 36.84% vs. 58.33%;  $\chi^2(1) = 5.41, p = .02$ ; same vs. personalized same domain: 36.84% vs. 66.40%;  $\chi^2(1) = 9.37, p < .01$ ).

While the results from the field study suggest that CM campaigns can increase the purchase share of a product associated with harmful side effects, it is possible that some of our conditions prompted consumers to turn away from a coffee purchase altogether (decreasing sales volume). Since the natural setting of the festival did not allow us to observe a potential effect on overall demand (i.e. overall number of consumers interested in making a purchase before being turned off or attracted by our differing offerings), the CM campaigns' net effects could potentially be negative for companies. Also, our field study suggests that the type of cause matters, but it cannot explain why. Experiment 2 was designed to address these questions.

## **EXPERIMENT 2: LABORATORY STUDY**

The main objective of this laboratory experiment was to investigate why consumers are more likely to buy conventional coffee instead of organic coffee when offered with an other rather than same domain CM campaign. Second, we aimed to explore why the two same domain-frames (personalized vs. non-personalized) lead to significantly different behaviors. Third, this setting enabled us to test if some conditions led people to turn away from the purchase of coffee altogether (i.e. decreasing absolute demand).

### *Method*

**Procedure.** Students were recruited on campus of a European university and offered a compensation of up to Euro 5 in exchange for participation in an unrelated study. Those who agreed were brought individually to a classroom in order to participate in the unrelated study. In front of the classroom we set up a stand that sold coffee. The set-up was the same as in the field study: We had two thermal containers on a table, one with a sign “organic coffee” and one with

a sign “conventional coffee” in front of it (in actuality both coffees were the same in order to examine possible effects of the various CM campaigns on the hedonic experience, i.e. taste perceptions of the consumed coffee). The sign for the organic coffee was kept constant throughout the entire experiment. The sign for the conventional coffee was switched every 30 minutes so as to randomly assign students to one of six single-factor, between-subjects conditions. Every time the sign was switched the experimenter, who was blind to hypotheses, ensured that no students were approaching the stand or were in front of it. The study took place on six days around lunch-time and the experimenter started each day with a different condition. In contrast to the field study, in order to offer more competitive prices similar to those in other coffee shops on campus, we reduced the prices for both coffees by 30 cents. That is, one cup of organic coffee was sold for Euro 0.90.

We re-tested four of the five conditions from Experiment 1 (*same domain, same domain personalized, other domain, and control*). In all of the three CM conditions the conventional coffee was offered at Euro 0.90 promising a 10 cents donation for every cup sold, and in the control condition the conventional coffee was sold without a CM campaign at Euro 0.80. In addition, we added two new variants of the control condition that were the same as the control condition in terms of unequal prices and not offering a donation. They differed, however, in that they emphasized that conventional coffee was associated with water pollution. Specifically, in the *control + damage information* condition, the conventional coffee sign read “the production of coffee causes water pollution.” In the *control + personalized damage information* condition, the sign read “the production of your coffee causes water pollution” (same as the difference between the same domain condition and the same domain personalized condition, we only added the word “your”; for an overview of all six conditions see Web-Appendix E). Although

Pre-test 2 showed that in our population water pollution was highly associated with the production of conventional coffee (thus, it was reasonable to assume that our student participants were aware of this damage in every condition), it is possible that the two same domain donation-conditions made the damage more salient and that this affected our results. Consequently, with the addition of the two variant control conditions we intended to disentangle two possible effects triggered by a CM campaign with a same domain-donation: the effect of making coffee's harm more salient (water pollution) and the effect of offering a solution for its caused harm (donation to reduce water pollution).

When students passed by the coffee stand on their way to the classroom, the coffee stand experimenter asked if they wanted to buy a cup of coffee and if so which type. Those who purchased a coffee paid for it with their own money and were given the coffee and a brief questionnaire, which they were asked to fill out in the classroom. While in the classroom, the coffee stand-experimenter outside of the classroom noted the student's experimental condition, whether she purchased a coffee, and if so, which type. After completing our questionnaire as well as the questionnaire of the unrelated study students handed those to the classroom-experimenter, were compensated for the unrelated study, and dismissed.

**Questionnaire.** The coffee questionnaire presented participants (only those that had purchased a coffee) the two coffee signs they had just seen at the stand outside the classroom and assessed participants' general evaluation of (1) the taste of the purchased coffee (after drinking it), (2) the two coffee offers, and (3) the image of the manufacturer of conventional coffee. More importantly, the questionnaire assessed potential process measures (self-focused such as participants' feelings, product-related such as coffee's perceived water pollution, and manufacturer-related such as trust and anger towards the manufacturer; all on 7-point scales; see

Web-Appendix F for all adopted measures including the measures' sources and scales as well as the Cronbach's alphas of all multi-item scales). Finally, participants provided their age and gender.

Specifically, to gain insights into the processes underlying customers' behaviors we focused on a number of potential mediators. With regard to the *self-focused measures* we measured our hypothesized key process-driver guilt, by asking participants first to indicate if they felt uncomfortable and had a bad conscience because of their coffee purchase (1: *not the case at all* to 7: *totally the case*) and second how uncomfortable they would have felt if they had chosen the other alternative and if they would have a bad conscience for choosing the alternative offer. Thus, we assessed participant's guilt for their actual choice but also how much guilt they associated with the alternative offer. With this procedure we elicited guilt for the organic as well as for the conventional coffee. As our focal measure was the difference in experienced guilt between the two options, we calculated difference scores by subtracting participants' guilt ratings for organic coffee from guilt ratings for conventional coffee, such that positive scores reflected relatively higher guilt associated with conventional coffee. In addition to guilt, we assessed further self-focused measures such as general mood and arousal, and participants' moral self-concept. Also, we measured the extent to which participants felt responsible for water pollution caused by conventional coffee, their perceived locus of control with regard to the water pollution caused by conventional coffee and to what extent they felt ambivalent about the encountered offers.

For the *product-related process measure*, we asked participants to indicate how much they thought that the production of conventional coffee caused water pollution.

Finally, in order to test if any *manufacturer-related effects* were driving participants' purchase decisions, we measured the extent to which participants trusted the manufacturer of conventional coffee, their anger with the manufacturer and, in the three conditions with a CM campaign, how credible they thought the manufacturer's campaign to be.

**Participants.** Five hundred and two students agreed to participate in the unrelated study. Out of those 456 purchased coffee. Twenty-nine of these participants were excluded from all further analyses because either they did not fill out the focal questionnaire after their purchase, their self-reported choice in the questionnaire differed from the one noted by the experimenter, or because of missing values. Thus, our subsequent analyses are based on 427 complete observations (45.90% females, Age  $M = 23.58$ ,  $SD = 3.04$ ), with 67 to 75 participants per condition (see Web-Appendix E).

### *Results and Discussion*

**Purchase behavior.** Condition had no significant effect on whether coffee was purchased ( $\chi^2(5) = 10.20$ ,  $p = .07$ ). Across all conditions 90.28% of participants purchased coffee.

However, condition had a significant effect on coffee choice ( $\chi^2(5) = 27.92$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $V = .26$ ). As can be seen in Figure 2, we replicated the results from Experiment 1. Specifically, customers generally preferred organic coffee to conventional coffee (control: 61.11% vs. 38.89%; difference from a 50% equal distribution:  $\chi^2(1) = 3.56$ ,  $p < .06$ ). Furthermore, introducing an other domain (64%) or personalized same domain CM campaign (65.22%) that was (unknowingly) paid for by the customer through a price increase of the conventional coffee made the majority of customers now more likely to purchase the conventional coffee rather than the organic coffee (both purchase shares differed from a 50% equal distribution: other domain:  $\chi^2(1) = 5.88$ ,  $p = .02$ ; personalized same:  $\chi^2(1) = 6.39$ ,  $p = .01$ ; no significant difference between

these two conditions:  $\chi^2(1) = .02, p = .88$ ). These purchase shares were significantly different from that in the control condition (other domain:  $\chi^2(1) = 9.28, p < .01, V = .25$ ; personalized same:  $\chi^2(1) = 9.78, p < .01, V = .26$ ). Finally, and same as in Experiment 1, the same domain CM campaign (not personalized) did not prove effective in comparison to the control condition; we found no differences between the purchase share of conventional coffee in those two conditions (same domain: 40.30% vs. control: 38.89%;  $\chi^2(1) = .03, p = .87$ ). Again, the purchase shares for conventional coffee were significantly different between the same domain-donation (40.30%) and the other two CM campaign donations (other domain: 64.00%,  $\chi^2(1) = 7.98, p < .01$ ; personalized same domain-donation: 65.22%,  $\chi^2(1) = 8.47, p < .01$ ).

Extending the findings from Experiment 1, we found no significant difference between the purchase shares of conventional coffee among our three control conditions. That is, merely reminding people that the production of conventional coffee causes water pollution (control + damage information: 37.14%) or that the production of their cup of conventional coffee causes water pollution (control + personalized damage information: 35.14%) to a setting that had none of that information (control: 38.89%) did not significantly decrease the purchase share of conventional coffee ( $ps > .60$ ). These results suggest that the ineffectiveness of the same domain CM campaign was likely not due to making previously unaware consumers suddenly aware of the water polluting qualities of the production of coffee, and it supports our presumption that our sample is well aware of the water polluting properties of conventional coffee.

\*\*\* Insert Figure 2 about here.\*\*\*

**Questionnaire.** Table 1 displays the means, standard deviations, and test results for each of our measures from the questionnaire. As can be seen, with regard to the three general evaluation measures, controlling for type of purchased coffee (conventional or organic), condition did not significantly affect customers' taste perceptions ( $p = .18$ ; effect of control variable type of purchased coffee:  $F(1, 420) = 15.04, p < .001$ ) but it did significantly affect the relative evaluation of the two coffee offers in a similar way it had affected purchase shares ( $p < .001$ ). In addition, condition significantly affected the evaluation of the image of the conventional coffee manufacturer ( $p < .01$ ).

\*\*\*Insert Table 1 about here.\*\*\*

With respect to tapping into the psychological process underlying customers' purchase decisions, we next present findings for the potential *self-focused process measures*, in particular, our focal process variable: relative guilt associated with purchasing the two types of coffee. We found a significant difference of condition on relative guilt ( $p < .001, \eta^2 = .16$ ). Pairwise comparisons revealed that in comparison to the control condition both, an other domain-donation ( $p < .001, d = 0.41$ ) as well as the personalized same domain-donation ( $p < .01, d = 0.31$ ) significantly reduced relative guilt. In these conditions guilt associated with purchasing conventional coffee was even perceived to be lower than the guilt associated with purchasing the organic coffee. There was no significant difference in relative guilt between participants in the same domain-donation condition and the control condition ( $p = .33$ ). Moreover, explicitly pointing out the negative externality without the possibility to donate toward fighting it did not

change the relative guilt in comparison to the control without such information (control + damage information:  $p = .69$ ; control + personalized damage information:  $p = .42$ ).

Follow-up mediation analysis (Baron and Kenny 1986; see Table 2) with logistic regressions (Models I – III; dependent variable: purchase of conventional coffee) confirmed that (1) both the personalized same domain donation and the other domain donation conditions significantly increased the purchase likelihood of the conventional coffee, (2) relative guilt significantly decreased the purchase of conventional coffee, and (3) when purchase was regressed on condition and relative guilt the coefficients for the personalized same domain and the other domain-donation conditions were no longer significant whereas the coefficient for the guilt difference remained significant. Finally, a mediation model with 1000 bootstrapped confidence intervals (Preacher and Hayes 2008) showed significant indirect effects of the personalized same domain ( $a \times b = .271$ ,  $CI_{.99} (.095, .511)$ ) and other domain ( $a \times b = .365$ ,  $CI_{.99} (.189, .593)$ ) through relative guilt on purchase of the conventional coffee. Hence, in line with our proposed mechanism the significant positive effects of the personalized same domain CM campaign as well as of the other domain CM campaigns on the purchase of conventional coffee were fully mediated by the relative guilt associated with the purchase of conventional versus organic coffee when seeing both offers side-by-side.

\*\*\*Insert Table 2 about here.\*\*\*

With respect to the alternative self-focused process measures, our results did not reveal significant effects of condition on mood, arousal, moral self-concept, customers' perceived responsibility for water pollution, or locus of control (all  $ps > .15$ , see Table 1). We found a

significant effect on feelings of ambivalence and thus, decision-difficulty within a given choice-set ( $p < .01$ ;  $\eta^2 = .05$ ). However, we found no evidence for mediation (see Web-Appendix G). For the moral self-concept measure, when focusing only on the subsample of customers that purchased the conventional coffee ( $N = 200$ ), condition did have a significant effect ( $F(5, 194) = 2.58, p = .03, \eta^2 = .06$ ). Pairwise comparisons revealed that purchasing conventional coffee coupled with a personalized same domain-donation ( $M = 5.68, SD = .87$ ) gave consumers a significant boost in their moral self-concept as compared to a same domain-donation ( $M = 4.83, SD = 1.22, p = .01, d = 0.40$ ). Thus, it appears that the personalized same domain-donation does not only directly reduce relative guilt but at the same time enhances consumers' moral self-concept as compared to a non-personalized framing.

With respect to potential *product-related process measures*, condition had no effect on how much customers perceived water pollution to be caused by conventional coffee ( $p = .17$ ).

Regarding potential *manufacturer-related process measures*, trust toward the manufacturer of conventional coffee was not affected by our experimental manipulations ( $p = .24$ ), but feelings of anger toward the conventional coffee-manufacturer was ( $p < .001, \eta^2 = .06$ ). However, we found no evidence for mediation (see Web-Appendix G). Interestingly, when investigating the credibility of the variant CM campaigns an ANOVA revealed a marginal significant effect ( $p < .06, \eta^2 = .03$ ). Specifically, the credibility of the same domain-donation campaign was lowest and significantly different from the credibility of the other domain-donation campaign ( $p < .05, d = 0.20$ ), which was highest. The credibility rating for the personalized same domain-campaign was in-between and did not differ from the other conditions ( $ps > .4$ ). But again, we did not find any evidence for mediation (see Web-Appendix G).

In sum, the purchase patterns observed in the laboratory Experiment 2 replicated the results from the field Experiment 1. In addition, we found these effects to be driven by changes in the relative guilt associated with the purchase of the available offerings.

## **GENERAL DISCUSSION**

Consumers are becoming increasingly attentive to social and ethical considerations, which can threaten the hedonic value and thus, demand for conventional products associated with negative externalities and lead consumers to switch to ‘greener’ alternatives. In the hope to mitigate such a threat and maintain the hedonistic feelings experienced with such products, some companies use cause-related marketing (CM) campaigns, promising a donation to a cause every time a consumer purchases their products. Such CM campaigns apply the dynamics of moral regulation: If customers’ moral self-concept and the hedonistic experience from a product are threatened by the guilt experienced with the consumption of the product that is associated with negative side-effects, a moral act such as a donation can “save” it. What has not been clear, however, is whether the cause that is used in such CM campaigns matters and which type of cause provides a more effective guilt reduction mechanism. To our knowledge, our article is the first to compare the effectiveness of a CM campaign that reduces a product-unrelated damage (other domain-donation; e.g. coffee coupled with a donation to fight illiteracy) to a CM campaign that reduces a damage caused by the product in question (same domain-donation; e.g. coffee coupled with a donation to fight the water pollution caused by its production). In addition, we examine the underlying process. Thus, our set of incentive compatible experiments offers

important new insight into how to respond to a conflict that most companies might face at some point or another.

We provide evidence from one field and one laboratory experiment, both with consequential choices between one relatively harmful (conventional coffee) and one relatively less harmful option (organic coffee). Our findings show that consumers react more favorably toward a conventional coffee when offered with an other domain CM campaign than when coupled with a same domain CM campaign – unless the same domain CM campaign is personalized. That is, a very slight change in wording (“reducing the water pollution caused by the production of [your] coffee”) exerts a notable influence on purchase decisions. In addition, the laboratory experiment revealed that our effects were mediated by guilt. Furthermore, our findings were neither accounted for by differences in importance and fit of the causes nor were they mediated by other self-focused (e.g. ambivalence), product-related (e.g. perceived damage) or manufacturer-related (e.g. trust) measures.

### *Managerial Implications*

The current work tested the effectiveness of coupling an inferior but typically cheaper product with a CM campaign in which the cost of the donation was charged to the customers (i.e. the introduction of the CM campaign was accompanied with a price increase in the amount of the donation). As such, we provide empirical evidence with real purchases that offering a product with an other domain-donation or a personalized same domain-donation may allow companies to increase market share while not giving up profit margin. Thus, CM can be a relatively cost-effective marketing tool ensuring a hedonic experience through its effective guilt reduction.

Furthermore, we did not find a significant difference between the effectiveness of an other domain or personalized same domain CM campaign on market share. Nevertheless, when

deciding which type to employ, an other domain-donation might be the safer option for companies because in our study it was associated with less relative guilt, less anger, and higher credibility (although not significantly), and thus, overall a lower risk of adverse effects.

In addition, as the exploitation of resources is becoming an increasing threat, and societies search for ways to reduce their footprint (Kronrod, Grinstein, and Wathieu 2012; White, MacDonnell, and Dahl 2011), our findings offer a useful insight: When using the right frame, for example, personalizing the same domain-donation, consumers are willing to offset some of the damages caused by their consumption. Such favorable effects might expand beyond CM to other types of ethical appeals (e.g., public campaigns promoting the mindful use of resources) such that adding a sense of personal relevance could nudge consumers to take responsibility, thereby enhancing the effectiveness of these appeals.

Finally, the current findings reveal a potential threat of CM to society. Consumers could perceive the donation as a ‘get-out-of-jail-free card’ and increase consumption of harmful products instead of choosing more sustainable products. This may cause adverse effects on society if the offset was inferior compared to the sustainable product. In line with this potential danger, for example, Responsible Travel has stopped to offer its carbon offset program (Rosenthal 2009).

### *Theoretical Contributions*

Our work makes several significant contributions to the current body of knowledge on moral regulation. First, and most importantly, our results provide empirical evidence that not only subsequent actions but also behaviors that are occurring simultaneously (1 – purchasing a product that is perceived to be more harmful than an alternative offer, and 2 – triggering a donation to a cause) are able to elicit the dynamics established in moral regulation. So far,

licensing has only been demonstrated for subsequent actions within short-time frames (e.g., Cascio and Plant 2015). Second, we encounter differences for the likelihood to engage in a “bad” behavior (i.e. choosing a conventional coffee over an organic coffee) when associated with a good deed in the same versus an other domain. Thus, our work suggests that the *magnitude* of moral regulation-effects might depend on whether the ethical and unethical behavior stem from the same or different domains. So far, inter-domain differences on the magnitude of moral regulation-effects have only been analyzed for the licensing of others’ transgressions but not of one’s own transgressions (Effron and Monin 2010). Third, while research on moral regulation has focused primarily on the moral self-concept construct as its main driver (e.g., Khan and Dhar 2006; Sachdeva et al. 2009), our results support that guilt represents another important driver in the dynamics of moral regulation. While the moral self-concept is affected by the framing of the donation (personalized vs. non-personalized) our findings indicate that guilt is driving the consumer choices supporting other research categorizing guilt as a moral driver (e.g., Eisenberg 2000).

#### *Limitations and Directions for Future Research*

The current studies focused on coffee as focal product category in a population with high coffee consumption (e.g., > 90% purchased coffee before taking part in an unrelated study in Experiment 2), high awareness of water pollution caused by coffee (> 90% in our sample), and a strong preference for organic coffee (> 60% in our control groups). While these specific findings may not replicate to other cultural or contextual settings, we assume the general effects of same versus other domain CM campaigns to hold for different product categories and settings. In particular, as long as fit and importance do not differ between the offered causes, and consumers are aware of the negative consequences, we expect an other domain CM campaign to be more

successful than a same domain CM campaign – unless the latter is personalized. Future studies may examine the generalizability of our findings.

One limitation is the fact that we did not use a fully crossed design. That is, we did not also tie the CM campaigns to the organic coffee. As a consequence, we cannot fully reject the alternative explanation that it is something about these causes themselves that people value or do not value (i.e. they do not particularly care for reducing water pollution but do care about reducing ‘their’ water pollution) that is driving our effects. However, several observations provide strong evidence in support of our proposed mechanism: (1) Pre-test 1 showed our causes to be of equal fit and importance, (2) Experiment 2 finds the effects of same personalized versus other domain-donations to be fully mediated by relative guilt, (3) Experiment 2 finds no significant mediation by the relative offer evaluation which should be closely linked to liking of the campaigns, and (4) Experiment 2 finds no significant mediation by moral self-concept, which should be linked to experiencing a warm glow from the charitable contribution (Sachdeva et al. 2009). Thus, because Pre-test 2 revealed that the consumption of organic as opposed to conventional coffee was perceived as more virtuous (more environment friendly, healthier, and less guilt-inducing) and to cause water pollution to a significantly lesser extent, and because our individual guilt measures in the control condition of Experiment 2 (see Web-Appendix H) showed that organic coffee ( $M = 1.77$ ,  $SD = 1.15$ ) was indeed associated with significantly less guilt ( $t(71) = 5.27$ ,  $p < .001$ ) than the conventional coffee ( $M = 2.80$ ,  $SD = 1.55$ ), we would predict a smaller difference between the effectiveness of the *same* versus *other* versus *same personalized domain* CM campaigns, if offered together with the organic coffee.

CM campaigns have generally been proven to be more effective with hedonic rather than utilitarian products (e.g. Strahilevitz and Myers 1998) supposedly because they provide a

justification to indulge. Since the consumption of coffee can serve hedonic as well as utilitarian motives (Alba and Williamson 2013), it is unclear which one it was for our participants.

Systematically investigating the mechanism of a same versus other domain-donation with respect to different product types (e.g., hedonic vs. utilitarian) would broaden our insight and provide further insights into the relationship between experienced guilt and hedonistic feelings.

Another limitation is that our research focused on CM campaigns where the consumers had no previous price information and therefore did not know whether and to what extent the cost of the donation was passed on to them (our conditions were run between subjects). Future research may want to examine to what extent our findings hold when consumers know that the cost of the donation is (and if so, to what extent) or is not passed on to them.

Finally, participants' revealed preferences in our control condition show that the majority (Experiment 1: 72%; Experiment 2: 61%) preferred the organic coffee over the conventional alternative despite its price premium (i.e. 10¢). However, bundling the less preferred conventional coffee with the "right" type of CM campaign (other domain or personalized same domain) and thus reducing the guilt associated with its consumption induced consumers to switch to it such that the majority of customers then preferred the conventional over the organic coffee. As the organic coffee was perceived as less harmful in the first place (see Pre-test 2) it is an interesting question why consumers did not continue to purchase the organic coffee. One possible explanation may be that some of our customers held the belief that organic coffee is inferior, for example in taste, effectiveness, or other quality features (Lin and Chang 2012; Luchs et al. 2010; Raghunathan, Walker Naylor, and Hoyer 2006) but that it was important for them to go with the less harmful alternative. Thus, once the conventional coffee was paired with the right CM campaign it was no longer associated with relatively more guilt than the organic coffee,

allowing consumers to choose the option they truly preferred. Another possible explanation could be that the right CM campaigns increased the utility consumers derived from the product due to, for example, ‘warm glow’ from the donation (Andreoni 1990). This latter effect should also hold true if the organic product was bundled with a CM campaign – a scenario we did not test in the current study. Thus, bundling the different CM campaigns (same, personalized same, and other domain) with the organic alternative would allow to further disentangle the effect of the CM campaign itself and the proposed guilt-reducing mechanism given that the perceived guilt was generally lower with the organic option (see Pre-test 2, field Experiment 2). While answering that question goes beyond the purpose of this article, studying this underlying process could yield further important implications.

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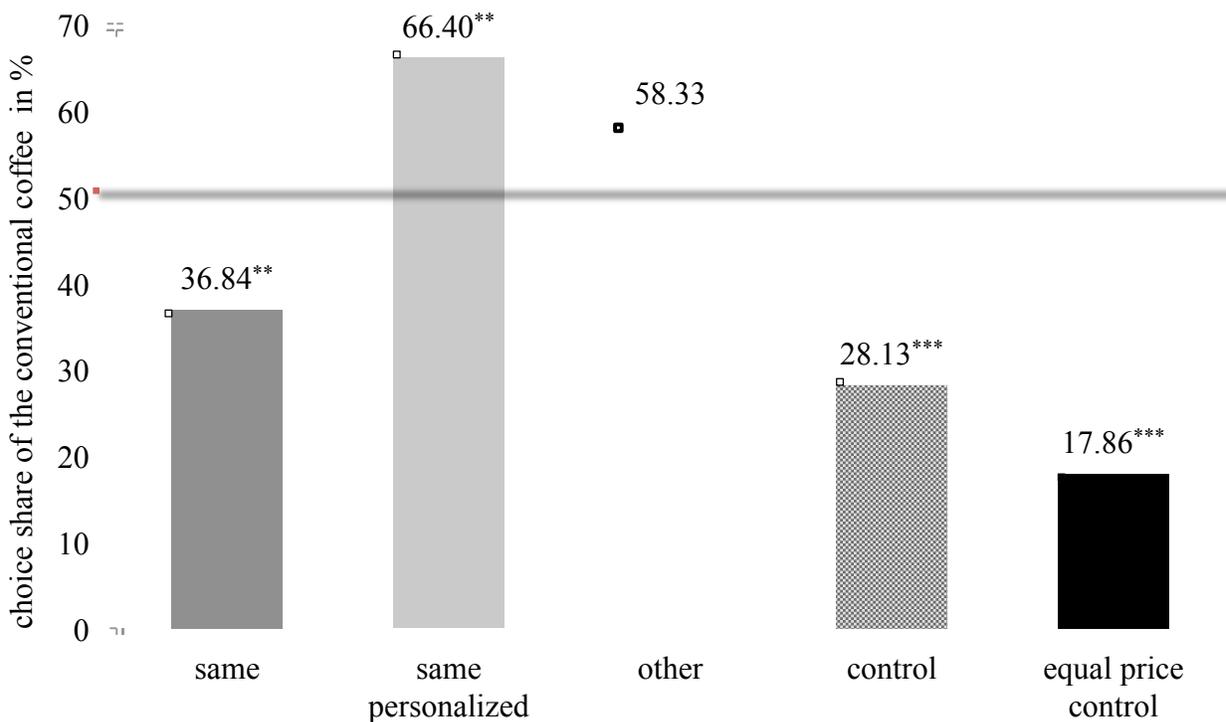
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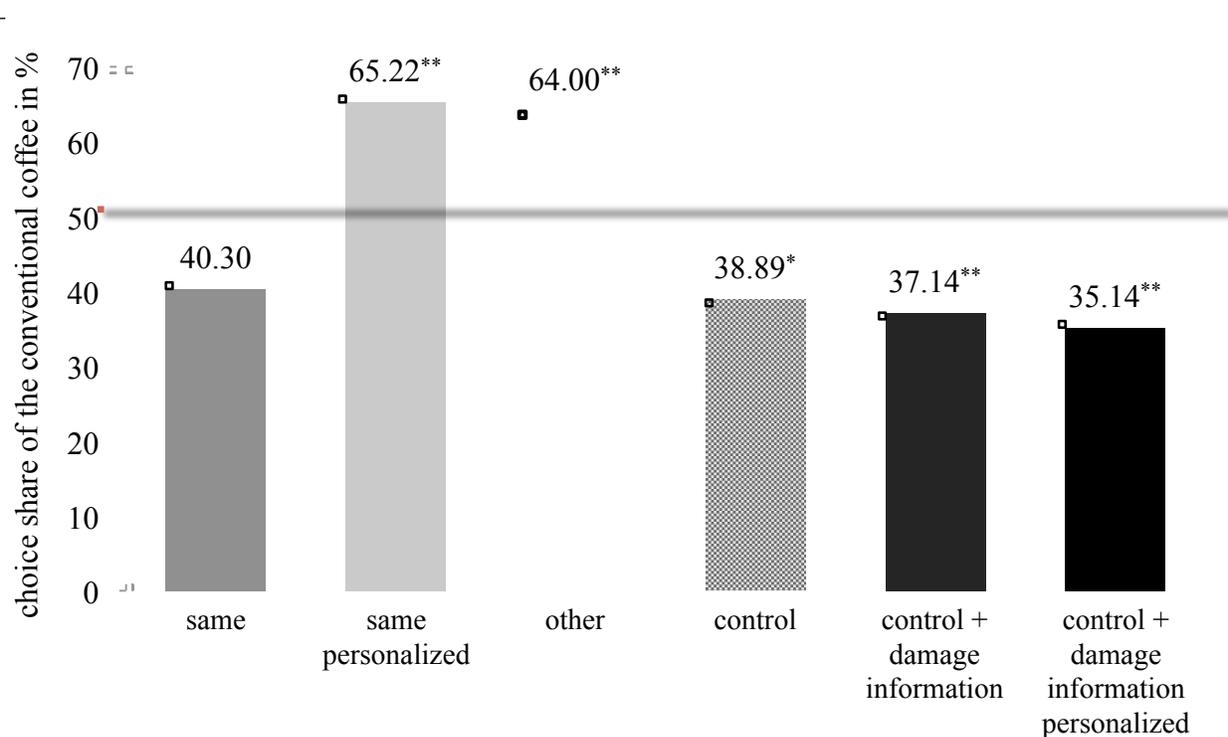
## FIGURES

FIGURE 1  
FIELD EXPERIMENT 1: PURCHASE SHARES OF CONVENTIONAL COFFEE BY  
CONDITIONS (N = 290)



Note: Red line (50%) represents the expected values for an equal distribution. Stars indicate if a condition differs significantly from an equal distribution with \*\* =  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*\* =  $p < .001$ .

FIGURE 2  
LABORATORY EXPERIMENT 2: PURCHASE SHARES OF CONVENTIONAL COFFEE  
BY CONDITIONS (N = 427)



Note: Red line (50%) represents the expected values for an equal distribution. Stars indicate if a condition differs significantly from an equal distribution with  $* = p < .10$ ,  $** = p < 0.05$ .

**TABLES**

TABLE 1  
 LABORATORY EXPERIMENT 2: MEAN SCORES AND ANOVA RESULTS OF POTENTIAL PROCESS MEASURES AND  
 GENERAL EVALUATION

Measure (Scale)	Mean						<i>F</i> (5, 421)	<i>p</i>	$\eta^2$
	(SD)	Same	Same personalized	Other	Control	Control + damage information			
<i>General product, offer and manufacturer evaluation</i>									
Experienced taste of purchased coffee (1: bad to 7: good)	4.54 (1.14)	4.83 (1.10)	4.54 (1.35)	4.85 (1.16)	4.73 (1.25)	5.01 (1.21)	1.52 <sup>†</sup>	.18	
Relative offer evaluation (-6: organic offer much better to 6: conventional offer much better)	-.49 <sup>a,b</sup> (1.84)	.19 <sup>b,c</sup> (1.93)	.55 <sup>c</sup> (1.65)	-.22 <sup>b,c</sup> (1.58)	-1.21 <sup>a,d</sup> (2.01)	-1.45 <sup>d</sup> (2.57)	11.50	<.001	.12
Conventional coffee manufacturer image (1: bad to 7: good)	4.26 <sup>a,b</sup> (.96)	4.41 <sup>a</sup> (1.06)	4.49 <sup>a</sup> (1.08)	4.55 <sup>a</sup> (.81)	3.86 <sup>b</sup> (1.25)	4.12 <sup>a,b</sup> (1.29)	4.06	<.01	.05
<i>Self-focused process measures</i>									
Relative guilt (-6: organic choice more guilt inducing to 6: conventional choice more guilt inducing)	.34 <sup>a,b</sup> (1.92)	-.21 <sup>a,c</sup> (1.93)	-.64 <sup>c</sup> (1.81)	1.03 <sup>b,d</sup> (1.65)	1.52 <sup>d</sup> (2.93)	1.66 <sup>d</sup> (2.29)	15.76	<.001	.16
Mood (1: low to 7: high)	4.58 (1.35)	4.85 (1.10)	4.98 (1.24)	4.83 (1.11)	4.93 (1.28)	4.92 (1.19)	.94	.45	
Arousal (1: low to 7: high)	3.69 (.87)	3.68 (.83)	3.66 (.84)	3.69 (.85)	3.74 (.92)	3.73 (.80)	.08	1.0	
Moral self-concept (1: low to 7: high)	5.24 (1.11)	5.71 (.90)	5.36 (1.22)	5.43 (1.11)	5.60 (.88)	5.42 (1.25)	1.62	.15	
Responsibility (1: low to 7: high)	3.98 (1.46)	4.18 (1.70)	3.83 (1.46)	4.14 (1.46)	4.16 (1.60)	4.22 (1.67)	.66	.65	
Locus of control (1: low to 7: high)	3.94 (1.61)	3.93 (1.55)	3.81 (1.54)	4.01 (1.48)	3.92 (1.73)	3.84 (1.65)	.14	.98	

Ambivalence (1: low to 7: high)	3.47 <sup>a</sup> (1.19)	3.16 <sup>a,b,c</sup> (1.26)	3.27 <sup>a,b</sup> (1.22)	2.83 <sup>b,c</sup> (1.08)	3.00 <sup>a,b,c</sup> (1.31)	2.65 <sup>c</sup> (1.32)	4.12	<.01	.05
<i>Product-related process measures</i>									
Perceived water pollution caused by conventional coffee (1: low to 7: high)	4.27 (1.68)	4.71 (1.35)	4.27 (1.47)	4.68 (1.30)	4.36 (1.56)	4.20 (1.71)	1.57	.17	
<i>Manufacturer-related process measures</i>									
Trust toward conventional coffee manufacturer (1: low to 7: high)	3.49 (1.43)	4.00 (1.47)	3.91 (1.36)	4.04 (1.20)	3.84 (1.47)	3.89 (1.33)	1.36	.24	
Anger toward conventional coffee manufacturer (1: low to 7: high)	2.66 <sup>a,b,c</sup> (1.61)	2.27 <sup>b,c</sup> (1.45)	1.99 <sup>c</sup> (1.10)	2.55 <sup>a,b,c</sup> (1.59)	3.11 <sup>a</sup> (1.77)	2.90 <sup>a,b</sup> (1.77)	5.01	<.001	.06
Credibility of CM campaign (1: low to 7: high)	3.30 <sup>a</sup> (1.44)	3.58 <sup>a,b</sup> (1.47)	3.88 <sup>b</sup> (1.39)	NA	NA	NA	2.92 <sup>‡</sup>	.06	.03

Notes: Measures in grey-shaded rows are significant with  $p < .05$ ; † ANCOVA controlling for purchased coffee (i.e. conventional or organic coffee); ‡  $F(2, 208)$ ; <sup>a,b,c,d</sup> In each row, means connected by different superscripted letters are significantly different from each other based on 2-tailed Tukey HSD,  $p < .05$ . We used the more conservative Tukey HSD to control for a possible inflation of Type I error due to the high number of all pairwise comparison-combinations (i.e. 15).



## WEB-APPENDICES A – H

### WEB-APPENDIX A

#### PRE-TEST 1: IMPORTANCE AND FIT OF SAME VERSUS OTHER DOMAIN CAUSE

##### *Method*

We pre-tested 10 causes, five of which are directly related to damages caused by the production of coffee (*same* domain: child labor, use of pesticides, water pollution, climate change, deforestation) and five causes that are unrelated to the production of coffee (*other* domain: diabetes, drug addiction, illiteracy, animal testing, child homelessness). To assess their relative importance, participants indicated how much they cared about the causes by allocating 100 points among them (more points indicating higher importance). Further, we asked participants to imagine a coffee brand wanted to support a cause and to rate the perceived fit between each of the 10 causes and the product category coffee on a 7-point scale (1: *very good fit* to 7: *very poor fit*; items were reverse coded for analysis).

Students were approached on campus and asked to fill out a short questionnaire. Forty-one university students (63.41% females, Age  $M = 24.02$ ,  $SD = 3.88$ ) agreed to participate in the survey without compensation. Two students were excluded due to missing values, resulting in a final sample of 39. The importance ratings of three participants did not sum up to 100. We transformed those ratings to ensure they sum up to 100 by dividing them by their respective sum and multiplying with 100. Excluding these participants did not alter our results.

##### *Results*

In comparison to all other causes, water pollution (same domain) and illiteracy (other domain) did not receive extreme evaluations. More importantly, paired t-tests did neither find a significant difference between their perceived importance (water pollution:  $M = 8.06$  vs.

illiteracy:  $M = 10.66, p = .11$ ) nor a difference in their perceived fit with the coffee category (water pollution:  $M = 3.59$  vs. illiteracy:  $M = 3.39, p = .64$ ; importance and fit ratings in terms of means and standard deviations for each of the 10 causes are displayed in the table below). Using all available responses ( $n = 41$ ) for the comparison of the importance between water pollution and illiteracy did not show a significant difference (water pollution:  $M = 8.21$  vs. illiteracy:  $M = 10.41, t(40) = 1.44, p = .16$ ).

PRE-TEST 1: IMPORTANCE AND FIT RATINGS FOR THE 10 CAUSES AND THEIR RELATIONS TO THE TWO FOCAL CAUSES (N = 39)

	Importance (Distribution of 100 points)					Fit with Product Category Coffee (1: <i>very poor</i> to 7: <i>very good</i> )				
	Mean (SD)	Test for difference from water pollution		Test for difference from illiteracy		Mean (SD)	Test for difference from water pollution		Test for difference from illiteracy	
		$t(38)$	$p$	$t(38)$	$p$		$t(38)$	$p$	$t(38)$	$p$
<i>Same domain causes</i>										
Child labor	17.41 (8.52)	-4.75	<.001	-3.13	<.01	5.33 (1.87)	-4.20	<.001	-5.33	<.001
Climate change	14.89 (11.66)	-3.74	<.001	-1.64	.11	4.82 (1.37)	-4.05	<.001	-3.99	<.001
Deforestation	9.33 (6.60)	-.91	.37	.66	.51	5.13 (1.88)	-4.44	<.001	-4.64	<.001
Water pollution	8.06 (5.52)	---	---	1.65	.11	3.59 (1.94)	---	---	-.47	.64
Use of pesticides	4.98 (4.18)	4.07	<.001	3.56	<.01	5.36 (1.94)	-4.88	<.001	-5.34	<.001
<i>Other domain causes</i>										
Child homelessness	14.88 (10.93)	-2.94	<.01	-1.75	.09	4.15 (1.66)	-1.58	.12	-2.67	.01
Illiteracy	10.66 (9.30)	-1.65	.11	---	---	3.39 (1.91)	.47	.64	---	---
Animal testing	9.93 (10.36)	-.91	.37	.28	.78	2.59 (1.63)	2.97	<.01	1.97	.06
Drug addiction	5.65 (5.32)	2.04	<.05	2.92	<.01	2.54 (1.55)	3.33	<.01	2.25	.03
Diabetes	4.20 (5.30)	2.89	<.01	3.65	<.001	2.97 (1.77)	1.72	<.10	1.00	.32

Note: The result rows for the two focal causes water pollution and illiteracy are shaded in grey.

## WEB-APPENDIX B

### PRE-TEST 2: WATER POLLUTION AND COFFEE – SAME DOMAIN PERCEPTION

#### *Method*

Participants were given a list of 10 environmental damages, five that could be attributed to the production of coffee (same domain: deforestation, water pollution, pesticides, monocultures, carbon emission) and five that were less likely to be attributed to it (species extinction, toxic waste, particulate matter air pollution, overfishing, nuclear contamination). The causes associated with coffee were retrieved from an open response questionnaire asking students which environmental damages they associate with conventional coffee ( $n = 42$ ). In Pre-test 2, participants were asked to mark all damages they thought were caused by the production of coffee. In addition, participants indicated to what extent they thought each of these damages were caused by the production of conventional coffee (7-point scale from 1: *not at all* to 7: *very severely*). Subsequently, participants repeated the rating-task but this time for organic coffee. We let participants rate the conventional coffee first to examine if consumers associated any of these damages at all with coffee (without raising awareness for conventional vs. organic coffee). Asking for organic coffee first could have reminded consumers that there is a less harmful alternative possibly leading to exaggerated ratings for the conventional coffee.

Finally, after having rated both types of coffee, participants judged how environmentally harmful in general they perceived conventional and organic coffee to be, how responsible they felt for the environmental damages caused by the production of conventional and organic coffee, how guilty they felt when purchasing conventional and organic coffee, and how healthy they perceived conventional and organic coffee to be (each on 7-point scales from 1: *environmentally*

*harmful / not responsible / innocent / unhealthy to 7: environmentally friendly / responsible / guilty / healthy).*

Students were approached on campus of a European university and asked to fill out a questionnaire without compensation. Thirty-seven university students participated in the study (56.76% females, Age  $M = 25.73$ ,  $SD = 4.85$ ).

### Results

Our focal damage from Pre-test 1, water pollution, was named by almost everyone (91.89%) as being caused by the production of conventional coffee – the highest agreement of all 10 damages (a tie with deforestation) among our participants (for results on all damages see the table below). Furthermore, water pollution was the damage most severely associated with conventional coffee ( $M = 5.49$ ), and the severity of water pollution attributed to organic coffee ( $M = 3.86$ ) was perceived as significantly lower than for conventional coffee ( $p < .001$ ;  $d = 1.25$ ).

### PRE-TEST 2: DAMAGES ASSOCIATED WITH CONVENTIONAL AND ORGANIC COFFEE AND PAIRED T-TEST RESULTS FOR SEVERITY OF DAMAGE COMPARISONS (N = 37)

	Damage caused by conventional coffee			Damage caused by organic coffee				
	% of people agree	Severity (1: <i>not at all</i> to 7: <i>very</i> )		Severity (1: <i>not at all</i> to 7: <i>very</i> )		Severity Difference		
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	$t(36)$	$p$	$d$
Water pollution	91.89	5.49	1.37	3.86	1.72	7.60	<.001	1.25
Deforestation	91.89	5.46	1.24	4.59	1.62	4.85	<.001	0.80
Monocultures	67.57	5.27	1.50	3.68	1.63	6.32	<.001	1.04
Pesticides	75.68	5.14	1.64	2.81	1.58	7.33	<.001	1.20
Species extinction	54.05	4.08	1.64	3.27	1.76	3.60	<.001	0.59
Carbon emission	48.65	3.78	1.89	2.92	1.86	4.54	<.001	0.75
Particulate matter	24.32	2.92	1.69	2.59	1.66	1.82	.08	0.30
Toxic waste	35.14	2.92	1.38	2.30	1.39	3.39	<.01	0.56
Nuclear contamination	8.11	1.81	1.27	1.51	1.10	2.33	.03	0.38

Overfishing	0	1.62	1.19	1.51	1.17	.94	.35
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Note: The result row for the focal same domain-cause water pollution is shaded in grey.

In addition, paired t-tests revealed conventional coffee to be perceived as more environmentally harmful ( $M = 3.03$ ,  $SD = 1.21$ ) and as unhealthier ( $M = 3.70$ ,  $SD = 1.24$ ) than organic coffee (harm:  $M = 4.62$ ,  $SD = 1.16$ ,  $t(36) = -8.00$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 1.32$ ; health:  $M = 4.22$ ,  $SD = 1.54$ ,  $t(36) = -2.79$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $d = 0.46$ ). Participants also indicated feeling significantly more responsible for the environmental damages caused by conventional coffee ( $M = 3.30$ ,  $SD = 1.85$ ) than for the damages caused by organic coffee ( $M = 2.81$ ,  $SD = 1.39$ ,  $t(36) = 2.17$ ,  $p = .04$ ,  $d = 0.36$ ), and significantly less innocent when purchasing conventional ( $M = 3.22$ ,  $SD = 1.78$ ) as opposed to organic coffee ( $M = 2.41$ ,  $SD = 1.54$ ,  $t(36) = 2.99$ ,  $p < .01$ ,  $d = 0.49$ ).

## WEB-APPENDIX C

### ADDITIONAL INFORMATION ABOUT STUDIES

#### EXPERIMENT 1: FIELD STUDY

The study took place over the three days of the music festival on campus. Coffee was sold from around 1 pm to 6 pm. We started each day with a different condition and changed the condition every 20 minutes such that each condition was presented at different times during the day. In total, each condition was presented nine times.

We used the same coffee in order to be able to conduct taste comparisons in our later study and we wanted to use the same coffee for all our studies.

After the experiment, we donated 10¢ to the advertised cause for every CM coffee sold.

In the main text, we report chi-square tests to compare the differences in the conventional coffee's purchase share across conditions (see Figure 1). Running a logistic regression (purchase of conventional coffee as dependent variable) with the experimental conditions as dummy variables and testing for the differences between the respective coefficients with Wald tests yielded robust results. We also included the days as dummy variables in the model but we did not encounter any differences in coffee choice for the different days the study took place.

#### EXPERIMENT 2: LABORATORY STUDY

The coffee stand experimenter was a different person than the one who recruited the students and the one that conducted the study in the classroom. Only the experimenter in front of the classroom was aware of condition but blind to hypotheses.

After the experiment, we donated 10¢ to the advertised cause for every CM coffee sold.

In the main text, we report chi-square tests to compare the differences in the conventional coffee's purchase share across conditions (see Figure 2). Running a logistic regression (purchase of conventional coffee as dependent variable) with the experimental conditions as dummy variables and testing for the differences between the respective coefficients with Wald tests yielded robust results. We also included the day of the study as dummy variables in the model but did not encounter any differences in coffee choice for the different days the study took place.

When looking only at the subset of participants that chose the organic coffee relative guilt differed for all cause-marketing conditions versus the two information conditions. Purchasing organic coffee when the conventional coffee was offered with a note about its water polluting properties reduced relative guilt for choosing organic in comparison to conventional coffee. However, this difference decreased significantly when the conventional coffee offered a donation. Not selecting the conventional coffee when offered with an other domain donation made participants experience the same level of guilt for the two offers ( $M = -.06$ ,  $SD = 1.58$ ), which differed significantly from the relative guilt measured in the control group ( $M = 1.57$ ,  $SD = 1.50$ ,  $p < .05$ ;  $d = 0.36$ ).

**WEB-APPENDIX D**

## OVERVIEW OF CONDITIONS IN THE FIELD EXPERIMENT 1 (N = 290)

Field Experiment 1 – Conditions				
	N	Price (Euro) per cup		Donation coupled with the sale of one cup of conventional coffee
		conventional coffee	organic coffee	
1 same domain CM	57	1.20	1.20	10 cents toward offsetting water pollution caused by the production of coffee
2 same domain personalized CM	53	1.20	1.20	10 cents toward offsetting water pollution caused by the production of <i>your</i> coffee
3 other domain CM	60	1.20	1.20	10 cents toward offsetting illiteracy
4 control	56	1.10	1.20	N/A
5 equal price control	64	1.20	1.20	N/A

**WEB-APPENDIX E**

## OVERVIEW OF CONDITIONS IN THE LABORATORY EXPERIMENT 2 (N = 427)

Laboratory Experiment 2 – Conditions				
	N	Price (Euro) per cup		Donation coupled with the sale of one cup of conventional coffee
		conventional coffee	organic coffee	
1 same domain CM	67	0.90	0.90	10 cents toward offsetting water pollution caused by the production of coffee
2 same domain personalized CM	69	0.90	0.90	10 cents toward offsetting water pollution caused by the production of <i>your</i> coffee
3 other domain CM	75	0.90	0.90	10 cents toward offsetting illiteracy
4 control	72	0.80	0.90	N/A
5 control + damage information	70	0.80	0.90	N/A but we mentioned that “the production of coffee causes water pollution”
6 control + personalized damage information	74	0.80	0.90	N/A but we mentioned that “the production of <i>your</i> coffee causes water pollution”

## WEB-APPENDIX F

## MEASURES IN COFFEE QUESTIONNAIRE OF THE LABORATORY EXPERIMENT 2

Measures	Source	$\alpha$
<b>General product, offer and manufacturer evaluation</b>		
Experienced taste of purchased coffee		
Rating of the taste of the purchased coffee (after drinking it) on Likert scales:		.906
1 = <i>bad</i> and 7 = <i>good</i>		
1 = <i>disgusting</i> and 7 = <i>excellent</i>		
1 = <i>low quality</i> and 7 = <i>high quality</i>		
<b>Relative offer evaluation</b>		
Rating of the conventional coffee offer and the organic coffee offer (1 = <i>very poor</i> offer to 7 = <i>very good</i> offer)		
<b>Conventional coffee manufacturer image</b>		
Rating the manufacturer of conventional coffee on Likert scales:	Völckner, Sattler, and Kaufman 2008 <sup>†</sup>	.905
-3 = <i>bad</i> and +3 = <i>good</i>		
-3 = <i>not likeable</i> and +3 = <i>likeable</i>		
-3 = <i>low quality</i> and +3 = <i>high quality</i>		
-3 = <i>not trustworthy</i> and +3 = <i>trustworthy</i>		
-3 = <i>unpleasant</i> and +3 = <i>pleasant</i>		
-3 = <i>unattractive</i> and +3 = <i>attractive</i>		
<b>Self-focused process measures</b>		
<b>Relative guilt</b>		
Participants assessed whether the following statements applied to them (1 = <i>not the case at all</i> to 7 = <i>totally the case</i> ) with regards to their actual coffee choice and if they had chosen the other alternative.		.795
<i>I (would) feel uncomfortable.</i>		(convtl.)
<i>I (would) have a bad conscience.</i>		.743
		(organic)
<b>Mood</b>		
Rating of current feelings on Likert scales:	Lee and Sternthal 1999	.876
1 = <i>sad</i> and 7 = <i>happy</i>		
1 = <i>bad</i> and 7 = <i>good</i>		
1 = <i>irritated</i> and 7 = <i>satisfied</i>		
1 = <i>displeased</i> and 7 = <i>pleased</i>		
<b>Arousal</b>		
Rating of current feelings on Likert scales:	Mehrabian and Russel 1974	.671
1 = <i>energetic</i> and 7 = <i>relaxed</i> *		
1 = <i>excited</i> and 7 = <i>calm</i> *		
1 = <i>elated</i> and 7 = <i>down</i> *		
1 = <i>jittery</i> and 7 = <i>dull</i> *		
1 = <i>awake</i> and 7 = <i>tired</i> *		
1 = <i>aroused</i> and 7 = <i>sedated</i> *		

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Moral self-concept		
Extent to which participants agreed/disagreed with the following statements (1 = <i>strongly disagree</i> to 7 = <i>strongly agree</i> ):	Khan and Dhar 2006	.860
<i>I am compassionate.</i>		
<i>I am sympathetic.</i>		
<i>I am warm.</i>		
<i>I am helpful.</i>		
<hr/>		
Perceived responsibility for water pollution caused by conventional coffee		
Extent to which participants agreed/disagreed with the following statements (1 = <i>strongly disagree</i> to 7 = <i>strongly agree</i> ):	Basil, Ridgway, and Basil 2006;	.820
<i>As a consumer I hold a responsibility for the water pollution caused by coffee.</i>	Kubany and Watson 2003	
<i>As a consumer I contribute to the water pollution caused by coffee.</i>		
<i>As a consumer I should curb the water pollution caused by coffee.</i>		
<hr/>		
Locus of control for the water pollution caused by conventional coffee		
Extent to which participants agreed/disagreed with the following statements (1 = <i>strongly disagree</i> to 7 = <i>strongly agree</i> ):	Barclay, Skarlicki, and Pugh 2005;	.837
<i>I cannot change anything about the water pollution caused by coffee*</i>	Kubany and Watson 2003	
<i>The water pollution caused by coffee is outside of my control.*</i>		
<i>I am able to prevent the water pollution caused by coffee.</i>		
<hr/>		
Ambivalence		
Rating of one's feelings when seeing the two coffee offers side-by-side on Likert scales:	William and Aaker 2002	.808
1 = <i>undecided</i> and 7 = <i>decided*</i>		
1 = <i>confused</i> and 7 = <i>clearheaded*</i>		
1 = <i>uncomfortable</i> and 7 = <i>comfortable*</i>		
1 = <i>bad</i> and 7 = <i>good*</i>		
<hr/>		
Product-related process measures		
<hr/>		
Perceived water pollution through conventional coffee		
Participants assessed how much water pollution they thought the production of conventional coffee caused (1 = <i>not at all</i> to 7 = <i>very much</i> ).		
<hr/>		
Manufacturer-related process measures		
<hr/>		
Trust toward conventional coffee manufacturer		
Extent to which participants agreed/disagreed with the following statements (1 = <i>strongly disagree</i> to 7 = <i>strongly agree</i> ):	Fries and Krishna 2012	.920
<i>One can trust the manufacturer of conventional coffee.</i>		
<i>The manufacturer of conventional coffee is authentic.</i>		
<i>The manufacturer of conventional coffee is trustworthy.</i>		
<hr/>		

Anger toward conventional coffee manufacturer		
Extent to which participants agreed/disagreed with the following statements (1 = <i>strongly disagree</i> to 7 = <i>strongly agree</i> ):	Porath, Macinnis, and Folkes 2010	.922
<i>I am angry at the manufacturer of conventional coffee.</i>		
<i>I am upset with the manufacturer of conventional coffee.</i>		
Credibility of CM campaign		
Extent to which participants agreed/disagreed with the following statements (1 = <i>strongly disagree</i> to 7 = <i>strongly agree</i> ):	Fries, Gedenk, and Völckner 2010	.854
<i>The manufacturer of conventional coffee conducts the campaign in order to do a good deed.</i>		
<i>The campaign is an honest effort.</i>		
<i>The manufacturer of conventional coffee is truly committed to the cause.</i>		

Notes:  $\alpha$  = Cronbach's alpha in our study; † we added item trustworthy; \* = reverse coded for analyses; convtl. = conventional coffee. For simplicity, the measures in this table are grouped by category. This order does not represent the order in which the questions were presented to the participants. In the questionnaire we asked participants first to evaluate the offer and the taste, before assessing ambivalence, guilt and moral self-concept. Next, they answered to all measures related to the manufacturer, followed by questions focusing on conventional coffee. The final measures were mood and arousal.

## WEB-APPENDIX G

## LABORATORY EXPERIMENT 2: MEDIATION ANALYSIS FOR AMBIVALENCE, ANGER AND CREDIBILITY, LOGISTIC REGRESSION RESULTS

DV: Purchase of conventional coffee	Model I			Model II			Model III		
Independent variables	b (SE)	<i>p</i>	OR	b (SE)	<i>p</i>	OR	b (SE)	<i>p</i>	OR
<i>Ambivalence (N = 427)</i>									
Same	.06 (.35)	.87					.01 (.35)	.98	
Same personalized	1.08 (.35)	<.01	2.95				1.06 (.35)	<.01	2.71
Other	1.03 (.34)	<.01	2.79				1.00 (.34)	<.01	2.88
Control + damage information	-.07 (.35)	.83					-.09 (.35)	.80	
Control + personalized damage information	-.16 (.34)	.64					-.15 (.34)	.67	
Ambivalence				.11 (.08)	.15		.08 (.08)	.34	
Constant	-.45 (.24)	.06		-.47 (.26)	.07		-.67 (.34)	<.05	
Pseudo $R^2$	.09			.01			.09		
$\chi^2$	28.19			2.14			29.09		
<i>p</i>	<.001			.14			<.001		
Log likelihood	-281.03			-294.05			-280.58		
<i>Anger (N = 427)</i>									
Same	.06 (.35)	.87					.09 (.36)	.80	
Same personalized	1.08 (.35)	<.01	2.95				1.05 (.36)	<.01	2.85
Other	1.03 (.34)	<.01	2.79				.91 (.35)	<.01	2.48
Control + damage information	-.07 (.35)	.83					.08 (.36)	.83	
Control + personalized damage information	-.16 (.34)	.64					-.08 (.35)	.82	
Anger				-.32 (.07)	<.001	.73	-.28 (.07)	<.001	.76
Constant	-.45 (.24)	.06		.68 (.19)	<.001		.23 (.30)	.43	
Pseudo $R^2$	.09			.08			.14		
$\chi^2$	28.19			25.33			45.39		
<i>p</i>	<.001			<.001			<.001		
Log likelihood	-281.03			-282.46			-272.42		
<i>Credibility (N = 211)</i>									
Same personalized	1.02 (.36)	<.01	2.78				1.00 (.36)	<.01	2.71
Other	.97 (.35)	<.01	2.63				.90 (.35)	.01	2.47
Credibility				.16 (.10)	.11		.12 (.10)	.23	
Constant	-.39 (.25)	.12		-.29 (.37)	.45		-.80 (.42)	.06	
Pseudo $R^2$	.07			.02			.08		
$\chi^2$	10.99			2.63			12.48		
<i>p</i>	<.01			.11			<.01		
Log likelihood	-138.76			-142.94			-138.02		

Notes: The table reports the coefficients with standard errors in parentheses. OR = Odds ratios.

## WEB-APPENDIX H

### LABORATORY EXPERIMENT 2: PAIRED T-TEST ON INDIVIDUAL GUILT MEASURES BY CONDITION (OVER ALL CONSUMERS)

Measure (Scale)		Same	Same persona- lized	Other	Mean (SD)	Control + damage information	Control + persona- lized damage information	<i>F</i> (5, 421)	<i>p</i>	$\eta^2$
					Control					
Guilt for conventional coffee (1: <i>not at all</i> to 7: <i>totally</i> )		2.65 <sup>a</sup> (1.61)	2.13 <sup>a</sup> (1.22)	2.15 <sup>a</sup> (1.24)	2.80 <sup>a</sup> (1.55)	3.59 <sup>b</sup> (1.84)	3.60 <sup>b</sup> (1.78)	12.83	<b>&lt;.001</b>	.13
Guilt for organic coffee (1: <i>not at all</i> to 7: <i>totally</i> )		2.31 <sup>a,b</sup> (1.45)	2.34 <sup>a,b</sup> (1.49)	2.79 <sup>a</sup> (1.69)	1.77 <sup>b</sup> (1.15)	2.07 <sup>b</sup> (1.34)	1.95 <sup>b</sup> (1.29)	4.72	<b>&lt;.001</b>	.05
Paired t-test: conventional versus organic coffee	<i>p</i> <i>t</i>	.16 1.43	.37 -.91	<b>&lt;.01</b> -3.6	<b>&lt;.001</b> 5.27	<b>&lt;.001</b> 5.31	<b>&lt;.001</b> 6.23			
Guilt experienced with one's choice (1: <i>not at all</i> to 7: <i>totally</i> )		2.20 (1.30)	1.97 (1.84)	2.17 (1.34)	1.84 (1.15)	2.28 (1.49)	1.97 (1.17)	1.25	.29	.02
Guilt associated with the other option (1: <i>not at all</i> to 7: <i>totally</i> )		2.76 <sup>a,b,c</sup> (1.71)	2.50 <sup>a</sup> (1.48)	2.77 <sup>a,b</sup> (1.62)	2.73 <sup>a,b</sup> (1.59)	3.39 <sup>b,c</sup> (1.88)	3.58 <sup>c</sup> (1.87)	4.51	<b>&lt;.001</b>	.05
Paired t-test: choice versus alternative	<i>p</i> <i>t</i>	<b>&lt;.05</b> -2.45	<b>&lt;.05</b> -2.36	<b>&lt;.01</b> -2.85	<b>&lt;.001</b> -4.35	<b>&lt;.001</b> -3.54	<b>&lt;.001</b> -6.00			

Notes: <sup>a,b,c</sup> In each row, means connected by different superscripted letters are significantly different from each other based on 2-tailed Tukey HSD,  $p < .05$ . We used the more conservative Tukey HSD to control for a possible inflation of Type I error due to the high number of all pairwise comparison-combinations (i.e. 15).