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Doing Good when Buying Food

A quantitative study about purchase intentions for cause-related marketing products

by

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Abstract

Title	Doing good when buying food - A quantitative study about purchase intentions for cause-related marketing products
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Authors	Anja Wallén and Sigrid Green Salmonson
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Keywords	Cause-related marketing, charity, consumer behaviour, purchase intention, motivations to engage in charity
Thesis purpose	The purpose of this thesis is to explore what motivational factors that best influence consumers to purchase food products.
Methodology	This study is characterised by a quantitative nature with a deductive approach. The research design is of cross-sectional character as the data collection, through a web-based survey, was carried out at a single point in time allowing for patterns of association. Moreover, to analyse to relationship between motivational factors, and purchase intentions of cause-related marketing products, a correlation-, and regression analysis was employed.
Theoretical perspective	This thesis contains of two research streams. The first one, refers to cause-related marketing, and the second concerns consumer behaviour. This research is applied in the food industry; however, the context is just as an example and not a stream.
Empirical data	The empirical data is obtained from a web-based survey of 36 statements, and four questions regarding demographics. The questionnaire reached out to 296 participants, but only 198 could be included in the sample.
Findings/conclusion	The findings conclude that the motivational factors social motivation, trust in the company, altruistic motivation, egoistic motivation, enhancement motivation, and guilt-related motivation are all positively correlated to purchase intention of cause-related marketing products. The strength of the relationships was moderate for all factors; however, all hypotheses were statistically supported.
Practical implications	This thesis provides a great value for managers, marketers and companies currently undertaking or aiming to undertake cause-related marketing in terms of what influences consumers to purchase products. Other valuable implications concern awareness about the potential benefits and challenges that comes with implementing cause-related marketing as part of the business- and marketing strategy.

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1. Introduction

This chapter introduces the topics of the thesis; the concepts of consumer behaviour and cause-related marketing, which serves as the foundation for this research. It is followed by a presentation of the contextual setting; the food industry, and draws upon the problematization. Subsequently, the research gap is identified, which is summed up in a research question. Lastly, the introduction provides the reader with the aim of this study, and an overview of the structure of the paper.

1.1 Background

Researchers have for a long time studied why people behave as they do around others. Hofstede (1984) was one of the first researchers proposing that people's behaviours are shaped by their culture (Hofstede Insights, 2020), whereas one perspective refers to individualism versus collectivism. The main difference in these perspectives centres around whether people care more about the self or others. Individualism means that people perceive the self as self-directed, autonomous, and distanced from others. On the contrary, collectivism promotes, and integrates perception of the self as being associated with near others, which means that people's emotions, feelings, and actions are rooted in social contexts (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1995; Varnum, Grossmann, Kitayama, & Nisbett, 2010) Moreover, are people today more or less collectivistic or individualistic in nature? And what are the consequences for adhering to these kinds of behaviours?

Some authors argue that society has taken a turn where people are becoming more individualistic, where taking care of oneself is the prioritisation (Kitirattarkarn, Araujo & Neijens, 2019). The consequence of this, according to Corcoran (2012) is that people are becoming more selfish in today's society, and it has become increasingly common to take actions for one's gain. How can this be justified for, when people spend time, money, and effort on helping others? Every single day consumers' all over the world perform actions to support others. This includes everything from donating clothes, giving blood to seriously ill people, donating money to foundations, research, and charities, volunteering, providing free homework help, shopping for the elderly, and even risking lives for the well-being of others (Elster, 2006). In contrast, an interesting reflection regarding this occurrence is that while people seem to be more egotistical in nature, they are still prone to make sacrifices for others.

Several explanations have been compassed to address this question. Some examples for why people choose to support others could be a need to perceive oneself as good and kind (Walster, Berscheid & Walster, 1973); to adapt to social norms (Piliavin, 1990); to perceive a particular company as trustworthy (Torres, Bijmolt, Tribo & Verhoef, 2012); to seek personal development (Clary & Snyder, 1999); to feel better about oneself (Beatty, Kahle & Homer, 1991); to perceive violation of internal moral standards if not helping (Mosher 1980; Kugler & Jones, 1992), and lastly; the aspiration to experience a "warm glow" (Andreoni, 1990; Isen & Levin, 1972). What these explanations have in common is the underlying assumption that helping others leads one to experience positive emotions. Moreover, donating to charity might not be something people do on a daily basis, thus, those positive experiences might seldomly be present. Could the consumption of goods be a good starting point to incorporate that positive state of mind?

Human consumption results in various negative consequences for our planet. Whenever an individual makes a purchasing decision, of whether to buy or not, there will be a risk of that move contributing towards ethical, resource, waste, and community impact implications (Young, Hwang, McDonald & Oates, 2009). Recent research has provided insights into processes from the entire cycle of food, having tremendous negative impacts on the environment such as waste, farmland erosions, and greenhouse gas emission (Tanner, Kaiser & Wölfing Kast, 2004). Consequently, consumers' concerns about food do not only refer to health nowadays but also the environment and sustainability (Krystallis, Grunert, de Barcellos, Perrea & Verbeke, 2012). Moreover, as people have become more conscious about consumer choices, trends regarding ecological, environmental awareness, and sustainability have become a fact. Thus, in today's society, consumers' expect companies and brands to take their corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Hartmann, 2011).

A study conducted by Cone Communications (2017) explores customer expectations, beliefs, and behaviours regarding CSR, as well as whether, and how corporations can stand up for social injustices. The study revealed that 86 percent of the respondents believed that businesses need to place at least equal weight on society's interests as on their profit-driven purposes. With the rise of initiatives concerning social commitments, collaborations between profit-driven companies and NPO's (non-profit organisations) have steadily increased, namely cause-related marketing (Borglund, De Geer & Hallvarsson, 2008). Cause-related marketing-activities have existed since 1942, but it was not until the 1980s when American Express produced a campaign aimed at restoring the Statue of Liberty that the phenomenon became known worldwide. This campaign became the starting point for what we today call cause-related marketing. Other examples include Pampers and UNICEF partnership, Innocent and age UK and, Women's Aid and The Body Shop (Bloggers, 2020). In the trading market, we see examples of cause-related marketing, partnerships between profit-making companies and charities, every day. Adkins (1999) explains this phenomenon as a commercial activity where companies and NPO's initiate a formal partnership in order to market a product, image or service for mutual benefits. Moreover, building on the insights that people have aspirations to help, in combination with rising sustainability concerns, one strategy for companies to capture consumers' attention today is by implementing cause-related marketing.

1.1.1 Critique of the Food Industry

Food is fundamental for humans' physical well-being, but also a considerable source of pleasure, worry, and stress (Rozin, Fischler, Imada, Sarubin & Wrzesniewski, 1999). The food industry is not only responsible for the processing of raw materials and food supply, but also for employment and economic output across the globe (Menrad, 2004). This sector constitutes for a highly dynamic and volatile business environment (Van Der Vorst & Beulens, 2002), which is characterised by industrialisation and mass production (Manning, Baines & Chadd, 2006; Roth, Tsay, Pullman & Gray., 2008; Trienekens, Wognum, Beulens & Van Der Vorst, 2012). Thus, the food industry is a highly complex sector and one which consumers' might have a difficult time understanding, since much of the food is produced in places far from home (Pirog, Pelt, Enshayan & Cook, 2001). Thus, the distance between producers and consumers' is both mental and physical, mainly as a result of increasing urbanisation (Brom, Visak & Meijboom, 2007).

The food industry has in the last couple of years seen a rapidly growing globalisation, change in consumer trends, and shifts in technologies (Trienekens et al., 2012; Van Der Vorst & Beulens, 2002; Wiengarten, Pagell & Fynes, 2012). Consequently, increased awareness about environmental and social issues has arisen because of the enclosed critical concern about business emissions and, the impact on the environment and society (Forsman-Hugg, Katajajuuri, Mäkelä, Järvelä & Timonen, 2013). The food industry has a strong impact, as well as a high dependence on the environment, and society but, foremost, the economy (Hartmann, 2011). Hence, the triple bottom line focusing on the planet, people, and profit and simultaneously doing business while avoiding harm has become pivotal for companies (Cronin, Smith, Gleim, Ramirez & Martinez, 2011). The nature of the sector has thus led to CSR being a highly relevant objective for companies operating in the food industry. Moreover, the food industry is facing several challenges, where CSR has a standing impact, specifically for three reasons:

Environmental
Firstly, the food industry has a negative impact on the environment, while depleting biodiversity, and nature, and at the same time being dependent on human, physical, and natural resources (Genier, Stamp & Pfitzer, 2009). A major problem is the excessive solid and liquid waste disposal from food, packaging, and service wares issues (Boehlje, 1993; Fox, 1997; Kim, 2017; Lim, Kang & Kim, 2017). The industry increases global warming from methane (Maloni & Brown, 2006), soil-, and water pollution while at the same time contributing to deforestation (Lim, Kang & Kim, 2017). Although there are industries that harm the environment more, the food industry is a very special one due to the considerable impact on the environment in combination with the dependence on natural resources (Jones, Comfort, Hillier & Eastwood, 2005; Maloni & Brown, 2006). Moreover, recent studies show that the food sector represents 15 to 40 percent of the environmental impacts generated by private consumption (Seppälä, Mäenpää, Koskela, Mattila, Nissinen, Katajajuuri, Härmä, Korhonen, Saarinen, Virtanen, 2011).

Social
Secondly, the food industry is accountable for several social issues. The sector is negatively affecting societies, and communities in which they operate, while at the same time contaminating people's health concerns worldwide (Heikkurinen & Forsman-Hugg, 2011; Maloni & Brown, 2006). A consequence of this is all the requirements regarding production of raw materials, working conditions, employee training, and, animal welfare (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2013). The industry is facing considerable health and safety challenges, many of which have an extensive impact on the supply chain (Maloni & Brown, 2006). Human and labour rights have, due to the exposed sweatshops, become a major issue. The U.N. Global Compact has highlighted the key negative issues such as workplace diversity, community issues such as hunger and homelessness (Poist, 1989), child and forced labour, poor working conditions, and discrimination (Maloni & Brown, 2006; Martin, 1991). Moreover, concerns such as social problems like fair wages and working conditions for farmers are reported frequently by governmental agencies or non-governmental organisations (Hassini, Surti & Searcy, 2012).

Ethical
Lastly, the food sector is a complex and disseminated industry, where small enterprises differ from large ones in their stance to CSR. This, in turn, can lead to confusion, and conflicts regarding CSR involvement in the food industry (Hartmann, 2011). For instance, ethical issues relating to procurement processes have been under special public scrutiny because of the danger of power abuse, unfair practices and insufficient labour conditions. Another ethical issue in the food industry concerns bargaining power, often resting with large producers and retailers, while their suppliers, partly located in developing countries, are only eligible to accept the offers they receive (Jones et al., 2005; Maloni & Brown, 2006; Fuchs, Kalfagianni & Havinga, 2011). Other issues include safety, healthiness and quality of products (Heyder & Theuvsen, 2012; Maloni & Brown, 2006). In order to keep being perceived as ethically fair, food companies must work towards sustaining their production in a responsible way, meaning that they must take the entire supply chain into consideration, and investigate every actions' impact on the triple bottom line while being transparent (Hartmann, 2011). Moreover, food companies try to tackle these challenges by adopting sustainable practices as part of their business (Maloni & Brown, 2006; Wiengarten, Pagell & Fynes, 2012).

Several food companies have started to adopt environmentally, socially, and ethically responsible programs to mitigate the challenges they face from being global actors in the food industry (Maloni & Brown, 2006; Torugsa, O'Donohue & Hecker, 2013). Starbucks and McDonald's are two actors worth mentioning. Starbucks has set up five environmental strategies with the aim to create a resource-positive future, and "give more than they take from the planet" (Starbucks Stories, 2020, n.p.). These strategies include among others: expanding the selection of plant-based food products, shift from single-use to reusable packaging, preserve natural resources, water replenishment, waste management, and elimination of food waste (Starbucks Stories, 2020). McDonald's have similar goals and strategies as Starbucks concerning sustainable packaging and reducing litter, protecting agricultural communities, minimizing food waste, preserving use and quality of water, minimizing the environmental footprint of distribution activities and developing resource-efficient restaurants (McDonald's, n.d.).

In summary, the dimensions of sustainability must be a priority for food companies to sustain competitive advantage, adapt to market changes, and preserve a trustworthy image (Beske, Land & Seuring, 2014). Hence, it is important for businesses operating in the food industry to respond to these concerns and demands, considering the sector to be a target of request by activists, government, and NGOs (non-governmental organisations). Perceived deficiencies of CSR are most likely to contaminate the company's image and to a certain extent, their profitability (Kim, 2017).

1.1.1.1 Consumers' Concerns

Food as a commodity and phenomenon has many implications, making it a topic that affects everyone, hence, there are strong opinions held about the food industry. As previously mentioned, consumers' are becoming increasingly aware of environmental and societal impacts stemming from food production (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2013). A consequence of the multi-trillion dollar industry, is that the food industry is subject to substantial public visibility (Maloni & Brown, 2006), resulting in a rapid increase in consumer awareness where actors in the food industry are being scrutinized and inspected by the public daily (Fearne, Hornibrook & Dedman, 2001; Manning, Baines & Chadd, 2006). Moreover, consumers', the media, and NGOs are demanding well-substantiated and open information regarding operations; what impact they have on the environment, and how they save natural resources (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2013).

Consequently, consumers' have substantially more access to public information, leading to increased awareness among consumers' of traceability in the food chain, environmental impacts of processes, business emissions, social issues, the origin of raw materials and food safety (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2013; Yakovleva, 2007; Zanoni & Zavanella, 2012). Moreover, other concerns consumers' have about the food industry refer to production methods, labour standards, animal treatment, and environmental impact of production (Cross, Edwards, Opondo, Nyeko, Edwards-Jones, 2009; Trienekens et al., 2012). Thus, many food companies are today forced to adapt to new, complex consumer demands to stay attractive on the market.

Prompted by mass media, and advertisement, consumers' often have a 'romantic' view of food production. Hence, once confronted with the intensive 'truth', a negative attitude towards agriculture and food production might emerge (Frewer, Kole, Kroon & Lauwere, 2005; Grunert, 2006; Kanis, Groen & De Greef, 2003; Søndergaard, Grunert & Scholderer, 2005). Moreover, due to constant scrutinization by the public, food companies must adapt to the dynamic changes in consumer perceptions and expectations of sustainable incentives, thus, companies are forced to adopt a part or all three dimensions of sustainability; economic, environmental, and social (Beske, Land & Seuring, 2014).

1.2 Problematization

The business environment has changed rapidly over the last decades. Today, a company's products and services are usually not enough to fulfill consumers' demands (Ekström, Parment & Ottosson, 2017). consumers' no longer desire products or services with unique characteristics to the same extent as before, they seek to get familiar with companies' code of conducts and ethical standards (Pringle & Thompson, 1999). Due to these changes, companies have started to compete with values and social responsibilities (Löhman & Steinholtz, 2003), not only as a complement, but as a part of their business-, and marketing strategy (Torres et al., 2012). Moreover, co-participation with NPO's and enterprises in social welfare services is a growing trend (Lin & Lin, 2019). Under the impact of this trend, businesses must shift their philosophies from traditional classical capitalism where seeking purely economic benefits is a matter of fact, towards establishing, and maintaining partnerships with enterprises in the society. Hence, Lin and Lin (2019) argue that cooperating with social enterprises indicates enhancing sensitivity to social problems and needs, as consumers' request companies to undertake responsibilities of giving back what they have taken from society.

Due to the rapid changes in the business environment, it is necessary that companies uncover new ways to satisfy consumers' demands and convey value in their corporate brand (Pringle & Thompson, 1999). Moreover, one way to achieve this is by incorporating cause-related marketing activities, referring to partnerships between a for-profit corporation and a NPO, serving for mutual benefits, as part of their business- and marketing strategy (Pringle & Thompson, 1999). Furthermore, cause-related marketing could be perceived as vital for companies to stand out in today's hyper-competitive business landscape (Endacott & William, 2004), given that companies fully understand consumers' perceptions and emotional appeal towards these activities (Demetriou, Papasolomou & Vrontis, 2010). However, the process of providing value for consumers' could be perceived to not be a fully closed loop until one has made a purchase of a product or service. Thus, cause-related marketing is an opportunity to cater to positive perceptions of a corporate brand (Hajjat, 2003; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005; Lii & Lee, 2012) and stimulate consumers' to make a purchase (Smith & Alcorn, 1991).

When examining articles published in the most popular marketing and communication journals, an extensive stream of research have emerged regarding the impacts of cause-related marketing on a variety of factors such as consumer choice (Barone, Miyazaki & Taylor, 2000), and consumers' purchase intentions (Webb & Mohr, 1998). Other studies within the field of cause-related marketing has highlighted enhanced corporate reputation from engaging in social welfare (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990; Smith, 1994), improvement of the corporate image (Demetriou, Papasolomou & Vrontis, 2010), the importance of consumers' connection to the cause (Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005), the fit between the cause and the company (Costa e Silva, Duarte, Machado & Martins, 2019; Handa & Gupta, 2020; Nan & Heo, 2007; Pracejus & Olsen, 2004), and the type of product that is involved in the campaign (Baghi & Antonetti, 2017; Melero & Montaner, 2016; Strahilevitz & Myers, 1998). Moreover, various authors have conducted research on consumers' motivations to donate money to charities and social causes (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Green & Webb, 1997; Konrath & Handy, 2018), but without examining purchase intention.

Limited research has been conducted within the field of cause-related marketing in the food industry. Additionally, it is possible to apply this unexplored field of research in the context of increasing consumers' purchase intentions for cause-related marketing products, and explicitly in combination with food products. Moreover, Müller, Mazar, and Fries (2016) found that consumers' are likely to purchase a product when it is bundled with a cause that is intensified by consuming the product: such as donating a portion of sales of coffee products to fight deforestation. However, the study does not highlight whether the respondents' intention to purchase the products under examination was due to any certain motivational factor. On one hand, there exists extensive research about cause-related marketing, purchase intentions, consumers' motivations to donate money to charitable causes and food products. On the other hand, to the knowledge of the authors, no study has yet been conducted which draws upon a combination of the research streams of cause-related marketing and consumer behaviour, in relation to purchase intention and motivational factors, thus, there is a clear gap in the literature. Therefore, this study aims to shed light on this unknown area by investigating what motivational factors best contribute to increasing consumers' purchase intention of food products that are bundled with a cause-related marketing campaign.

1.3 Research Purpose

This thesis aims to investigate Swedish consumers' purchase intention of cause-related marketing products, using the food industry as an example. Furthermore, it aims to explore what motivational factors consisting of external and internal factors that best influence consumers' to purchase food products related to a charitable cause. Additionally, by examining this limited area of research, the aim is to contribute to the two research streams of consumer behaviour and cause-related marketing. Subsequently, in order to provide answers to the aforementioned problems, the following research question was formulated:

"What motivates consumers' to purchase food products that are marketed through a cause-related marketing campaign?"

1.4 Outline of the Thesis

This thesis consists of six chapters (see figure 1), each of which contributes to answering the research question. The first chapter surrounded the introduction to the topic, including the background of the phenomenon and the research question. This section also incorporated the problematization as well as the purpose of the research. Chapter two presents the literature and concepts that will make up the two main research streams; consumer behaviour and cause-related marketing, upon which the hypotheses will be developed. Starting with the broader concept of CSR, which will consequently culminate in cause-related marketing, where the authors will explain the phenomenon, its effects and, how it can be connected to the food industry, which is the chosen context for this research. Cause-related marketing will then be linked to consumer behaviour, and more precisely purchase intention. Lastly, the chosen motivational factors with respective hypotheses will be presented, and the logic behind the selection of factors. Furthermore, the third chapter will describe in detail the methodology, comprising research and data collection design. Moreover, the variable measurement will be presented, as well as the chosen data analysis method. The fourth chapter reflects upon the findings that could be deduced from the empirical material in combination with the chosen method of analysis, correlation and regression. The results are followed by a discussion relating back to existing literature, in the light of the new findings. Theoretical and practical implications will be discussed as well as limitations and future research. The study ends with a concluding chapter.

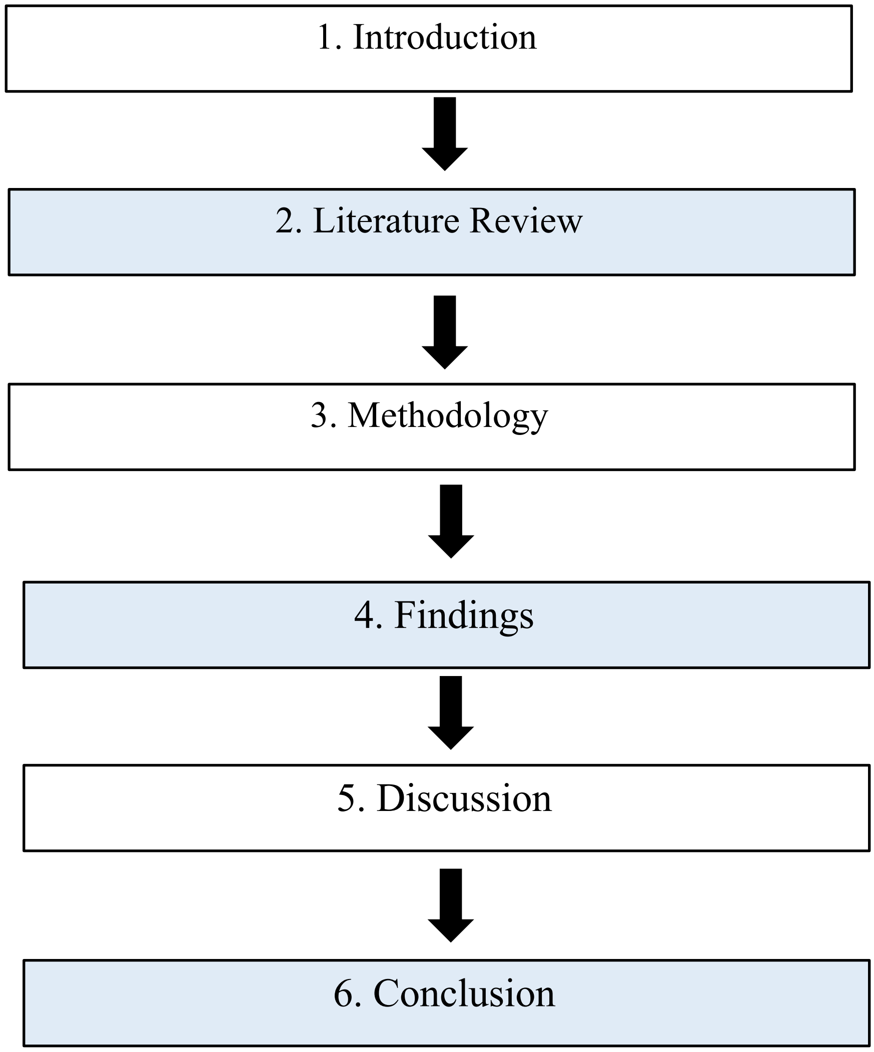

Figure 1: Outline of the Thesis

2. Literature Review

This literature review aims to give a comprehendible outlook of the two different research streams that this thesis will follow, namely cause-related marketing and consumer behaviour. This chapter will present existing research within the context of corporate social responsibility, including elaborations upon how it has developed, and increasingly integrated cause-related marketing. Moreover, existing research on consumer behaviour, including purchase intentions, as well as an elaboration upon motivational factors for purchasing cause-related marketing products will be presented, including their attached hypotheses.

2.1 Corporate Social Responsibility

Literature has extensively analyzed societal values from the perspective of corporate social responsibility (CSR). A broad conceptualisation of CSR is that it helps corporations achieve their objectives by promoting ethical values, respect for societies, and environmental considerations (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; Parguel, Benoît-Moreau & Larceneux, 2011). Initially when talking about CSR, it was referred to social responsibility (SR) as a result of the non-existent dominance of the business sector (Carroll, 1999). Bowen (1953, p.6) initiated one of the first definitions of social responsibility of businessmen:
"It refers to the obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society"

McPherson (2017) argues that CSR has evolved from a "nice-to-have silo" to a "fundamental strategic priority" for companies. The concept of CSR refers to that companies have responsibilities not only for economic impacts but also for any influence that their operations might have on the society, and the environment (Lee & Johnson, 2019). Furthermore, CSR involves the incorporation of philanthropic involvement in education, economic development, stakeholder relations (consumers', suppliers, local communities), and environmental causes (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006; Kotler & Lee, 2005; Lindgreen, Swaen & Johnston, 2009). However, CSR does not only adhere to fulfilling external obligations but various other objectives such as brand differentiation and competitiveness (Kotler & Lee, 2005), develop new resources and capabilities (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006), increase staff satisfaction and customer loyalty (Adkins, 1999; Liu, Liston-Heyes & Ko, 2010), improve corporate reputation (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Drumwright, 1994; Meyer, 1999), and increase market performance, and market share (Klein & Dawar, 2004).

Various authors argue that CSR has shifted from ideology to reality (Kotler & Lee, 2005; McWilliams, Siegel & Wright, 2006). Thus, it is nowadays considered an absolute necessity for companies to define their roles in society to apply social, ethical, legal, and responsible standards as part of their business strategies (Lichtenstein, Drumwright & Braig, 2004). This is further noticed when examining the 40 largest agri-food companies today, whereas all of them conduct information regarding their responsible actions in a separate review or integrated report (FoodDrinkEurope, 2019). Moreover, due to the fact that many actors are becoming increasingly transparent about their CSR initiatives, the likelihood of gaining publicity and a positive corporate image is greater, thus, it could increase the chances of consumers' supporting their brands and products over competitors (Skarmeas & Leonidou, 2013).

2.1.1 Implementing Cause-related Marketing Through Corporate Social Responsibility

Being part of CSR, cause-related marketing is a way for companies to implement new business- and marketing strategies to further increase their social influence (Yang & Yen, 2018). Cause-related marketing is a particular form of CSR (Brønn & Vrioni, 2001; File & Prince, 1998; Jahdi & Acikdilli, 2009; Kotler & Lee, 2005; Liu, Liston-Heyes & Ko, 2010; Van de Ven, 2008), which extends the conceptualisation of taking social responsibility. It opens up for organisations to formulate, implement and control ethical issues and incorporate these to marketing strategies (Schlegelmilch & Öberseder, 2010), while promoting sales and charitable causes simultaneously (Lee & Johnson, 2019). As cause-related marketing allows for extension of CSR programs (Oldenburg, 1992) the goals and benefits of cause-related marketing are not surprisingly different from those for CSR. For instance, companies could increase sales (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988), boost corporate prestige, credibility and differentiation (Adkins, 1999), attracting, motivating and retaining employees (Kotler & Lee, 2005), reduce customers price sensitivity and perceived difference in product attributes (Rifon, Choi, Trimble & Li, 2004), and, improve consumer behaviour (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). A study within this area of research highlighted that when organisations are involved in some kind of cause, 78 percent of consumers' are likely to buy the company's products, 66 percent state that they would wish to switch brands and 54 percent are willing to pay more for the product (Rains, 2003).

Taking all corporate benefits in mind, cause-related marketing is a fundamental aspect not only for being implemented through CSR (Brønn & Vrioni, 2001; File & Prince, 1998; Jahdi & Acikdilli, 2009; Kotler & Lee, 2005; Liu, Liston-Heyes & Ko, 2010; Van de Ven, 2008) but for companies to demonstrate their business ethics in general (Schlegelmilch & Öberseder, 2010). Moreover, cause-related marketing has become an integral and vital part of the marketing mix (File & Prince, 1998). However, the growing popularity of cause-related marketing among businesses today makes it much more complicated to differentiate (Vanhamme, Lindgreen, Reast & van Popering, 2012). consumers' nowadays expect businesses to give back to society, therefore, advertisement and marketing practices concerning communicating social causes and partnerships with charitable organisations have become a common practice (Lafferty & Edmondson, 2009; Smith, 1994; Till &

Nowak, 2000; Webb & Mohr, 1998). Furthermore, Dahlén and Rosengren (2016), and Sarkar and Kotler (2018) argue that brands need to find ways to connect emotionally with their consumers' to attract attention, whereas cause-related marketing campaigns can be a good strategy to do this; showing that they take an authentic stand on social issues.

2.1.2 Understanding Cause-related Marketing

Cause-related marketing was used for the first time unintentionally in 1983 when American Express helped to fund the rebuilding of the Statue of Liberty (Wall, 1984). What was not known then was that this in fact would give rise to a newly coined concept that would be used worldwide a few decades later (Cone Communications, 2008). American Express donated one penny to the restoration of the Statue of Liberty every time a cardholder charged a purchase and one dollar for every new member applying for a card. Subsequently, the credit card usage increased with 28 percent, $1,7 million was raised in favour of the cause, and card applications increased with 45 percent (Bailey, 1987; Wall, 1984). Thanks to American Express's successful cause-related marketing campaign, more companies were motivated to get involved in these activities, and it has since become a common marketing strategy (Hawkins, 2012; Nelson, Kanso & Levitt, 2007; Vilela & Nelson, 2016). Cause-related marketing has been and is listed by several names. The most acknowledged ones are charity marketing, social marketing, affinity marketing and, cause branding. Cause-related marketing is a prominent topic and has been discussed from different perspectives and for various academic disciplines. Hence, various definitions exist. The definition we will enclose in our study is the one that emerged in the late 1980s and is the most widely accepted of them all:

"*the process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when consumers' engage in revenue-providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives*" (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988, p.60).

Table 1: Definitions of Cause-related Marketing

Authors	**Definitions**
(Barone, Miyazaki & Taylor, 2000)	a strategy designed to promote the achievement of marketing objectives (e.g.. brand sales) via company support of social causes
(Cui, Trent, Sullivan, Matiru, 2003)	the general alliance between businesses and non-profit causes that provide resources and funding to address social issues and business marketing objectives
(Van den Brink, Odekerken-Schröder	a specific marketing activity in which the firm promises its consumers' to donate company resources to a worthy cause for each

& Pauwels, 2006)	sold product or service
(Larson, Flaherty, Zablah, Brown, Wiener, 2008)	any marketing activities in which company donations to a specified cause are based upon sales of specified goods or services
(Beise-Zee, 2013, p. 321)	a promotional activity of an organization in which a societal or charitable cause is endorsed, commonly together with its products and services as a bundle or tie-in
(Barreda, Bilgihan, Nusair & Okumus, 2016)	the marketing planning and executing process; during consumers' product purchase, an enterprise promised to donate the specific ratio of amount to charitable events to achieve the organizational and individual objectives
(Jung, Naughton, Tahoun & Wang, 2018)	horizontal cooperative promotion, meaning to precede promotion with the combination of enterprise brand and non-profit organizations

Although the definitions vary considerably, the central element is consistent; there must be a mutual benefit, such as increased awareness of brands and causes, and boosted profits, between the for-profit corporation and the cause (Adkins, 1999; File & Prince, 1998; Papasolomou & Kitchen, 2011; Pringle & Thompson, 1999). Primarily cause-related marketing was used when the corporation engaged in charitable fundraising for each sold product or service (Van den Brink, Odekerken-Schröder & Pauwels, 2006; Yang & Yen, 2018). To date, the concept has emerged and includes all marketing activities ranging from sales promotion, direct marketing, public relations, and sponsorship with a cause or charity in mind (Adkins, 1999; Harris & Whalen, 2006). According to Dupree (2000), the growth of cause-related marketing is due to consumers' increased social awareness. However, Fellman (1999) emphasizes the growth of cause-related marketing from a business perspective; companies want to make good efforts for society while at the same time encourage company business goals. Most researchers believe cause-related marketing to have two objectives: to improve business performance, and at the same time support a cause (Ross, Stutts & Patterson, 1991; Varadarajan & Menon, 1988; Yang & Yen, 2018).

As previously mentioned, cause-related marketing is a component of CSR and is partly a strategy for building a company's brand, but also a way to make companies' CSR work more visible (Adkins, 1999). While businesses and causes may see cause-related marketing as a tool for acquiring economic and social goals, consumers' may additionally see cause-related marketing as a combination of purchase decision and altruistic behaviour (Ross, Stutts & Patterson, 1991). Other attributes besides those previously mentioned that have been found to improve with cause-related marketing activities are brand image, brand attitude, and customer loyalty (Lucke & Heinze, 2015; Nan & Heo, 2007; Strahilevitz, 1999; Varadarajan & Menon, 1988). Moreover, cause-related marketing is also an important method for differentiating brands among consumers', as well as attaching the brands with an affective value in order to be emotionally positioned (Meyer, 1999; Pringle & Thompson, 1999; Varadarajan & Menon, 1988; Welsh, 1999).

2.1.3 Cause-related Marketing: Two Sides of the Coin

2.1.3.1 One Side

Cause-related marketing is generally perceived as an activity that caters to various benefits for the company behind the product being sold. For instance, it could result in gaining a positive reputation and competitive advantage (Fombrun, 1996), a way to captivate investors (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990), provide customer support in times of crises (Creyer & Ross, 1996) and increase consumers' trust, thus, potentially higher purchase intentions (Neville, Bell & Menguc, 2005; Yoon, Guffey & Kijewski, 1993). Moreover, companies and NPO's that enter a partnership through cause-related marketing could improve growth in financial performance (Johnson, 2003; Miles & Covin, 2000) and improved stakeholder relationships (Kotler & Lee, 2005; Liu & Ko, 2011).

Today's competitive landscape has led to society and consumers' being more judgmental than ever, regarding the behaviour and actions of companies. Companies are constantly under the loop of evaluation because acting philanthropically alone can no longer justify "doing good" (Brønn & Vrioni, 2001). Thus, it leads to the question of whether companies are engaged in charitable giving to increase their goodwill, or if they are honestly interested in providing aid for a particular social concern (Brønn & Vrioni, 2001). However, cause-related marketing is generally perceived as a positive act of taking social responsibility (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; Brown & Dacin, 1997; Horne, 2003; Muehleman, Bruker & Ingram, 1976). Fombrun and Shanley (1990) state that companies mostly take social responsibilities beyond their corporate obligations to enhance the reputation and the popularity aspect of the company. Moreover, companies that attain a positive reputation from acting socially responsible, are more likely to get access to capital markets and attract investors (Fombrun & Shanley, 1990). Other effects of a positive reputation refer to achieving some kind of competitive advantage over competitors (Fombrun, 1996), which could positively affect consumers' purchase intentions (Neville, Bell & Menguc, 2005; Yoon, Guffey & Kijewski, 1993). Thus, a strong reputation could result in increased purchase intentions of cause-related marketing-products (Arora & Henderson, 2007; Barone, Miyazaki & Taylor, 2000; Chang, 2008; Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Hou, Du & Li, 2008; Lafferty, Lueth & McCafferty, 2016; Olsen, Pracejus & Brown, 2003; Pracejus & Olsen, 2004).

Additionally, under the right circumstances, the brand involved in the campaign can be positively tied with the cause, opening up for positive assessments of the company (Webb & Mohr, 1998). According to Bachmann and Inkpen (2011) and various other authors (Keh & Xie, 2009; Lee, Lee & Seo, 2011; Lichtenstein, Drumwright & Braig, 2004; Pivato, Misani & Tencati, 2008) reputation is an important factor in generating trust for the consumer. Bodenstein and Spiller (1998) have a similar view, and state that the representation of past actions will influence future prospects, thus, donating to charity will lead to consumers' approval of "doing good", resulting in accumulated trust throughout time. Furthermore, Brammer and Millington (2005) argue that companies engaging in charitable giving can have a positive influence on the reputation of the whole industry. However, those industries that are perceived to be socially or environmentally damaging tend to have a poorer reputation, for instance, the food industry. This could, on the other hand, be mitigated by the degree of which corporations engage in charitable giving (Brammer & Millington, 2005). That said, the food industry is a sector where operations in various forms result in negative social and environmental consequences, but food companies can proactively prevent negative perceptions by showing that they are willing to give back to society in some way (Vlaholias, Thompson, Every & Dawson, 2015).

Another inevitable aspect of cause-related marketing refers to the benefit of improved financial performance (Johnson, 2003; Miles & Covin, 2000). The primary focus for both businesses and NPO's is to seize financial achievements, due to the fact that a well-designed campaign can turn out to be extremely profitable (Berglind & Nakata, 2005). An increase in sales can originate from e.g. repeated purchases, or multiple unit purchases (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988). As previously mentioned, American Express's Statue of Liberty campaign was one of the first cause-related marketing campaigns being rolled out. The company saw card usage rise by 28 percent and a number of applicants with 17 percent as a result of the campaign. These numbers were translated into millions of dollars in new revenues, which opened up for recouping a $6 million investment in advertising (Berglind & Nakata, 2005).

However, the benefits that might accrue from cause-related marketing consist of additional benefits other than monetary (Moir, 2001). File and Prince (1998) and various other authors (Barnes Ganim & Fitzgibbons, 1991; Minton & Cornwell, 2016) argue that cause-related marketing can favour, enhance, and differentiate a company's corporate image. Moreover, by supporting a respected cause, the positive image accrued from that particular act can result in an opportunity to acquire national visibility (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988). Another benefit stemming from a positive corporate image is improved stakeholder relations (Kotler & Lee, 2005; Liu & Ko, 2011). For instance, consumers' who perceive brands engaging in cause-related marketing to do good, are likely to be more loyal to that particular brand (Lafferty, Lueth & McCafferty, 2016; Van den Brink, Odekerken-Schröder & Pauwels, 2006). Moreover, if a favourable corporate image is established, the odds of identifying consumers' who are willing to support the cause behind the cause-related marketing campaign are greater (Henricks, 1991), and the same goes for broadening the customer base (Barnes, Ganim & Fitzgibbons, 1991). Other relationships that might be strengthened by cause-related marketing are those between communities, governments, and not least employees (Moir, 2001). Dawkins and Lewis (2003) and Maio (2003) argue that cause-related marketing increases employee commitment while employee turnover decreases. Furthermore, Berglind and Nakata (2005) have a similar perception and argue that the use of cause-related marketing could emphasize employee recruitment, retention, and morale, because employees are likely to stem a sense of satisfaction and pride from being part of a corporation helping a worthy cause.

Webb and Mohr (1998) argue that another benefit of implementing cause-related marketing is brand building. Thus, companies pick out social causes for which they believe customers will have an affinity about, with the hopes of translating that affinity into brand recognition, preference, and purchase intention. Moreover, studies have exhibited that consumers' attitudes are more favourable towards companies that are tied to a social cause in comparison with those which are not (Webb & Mohr, 1998). One example of a company that has managed to apply cause-related marketing as branding is the ice cream company Ben & Jerry's. Early in their journey, Ben & Jerry's positioned their brands as being socially caring by giving a portion of their sales to preserve rainforests and support farmers. Even though the taste may be the primary factor for buying ice cream, the idea of using cause-related marketing to build the brand strengthened customer loyalty and generated sales (Berglind & Nakata, 2005). However, a strong brand is not only crucial for commercial purposes. Creyer and Ross (1996) argue that it could enhance building goodwill for business in times of crisis; preventing long term damage. Customers are less likely to abandon a brand that has made a strong impact, built a positive reputation, or supported a charity organisation; thus, cause-related marketing is a valuable long-term investment (Creyer & Ross, 1996).

Many benefits resulting from cause-related marketing cope in particular for the NPO. NPO's generally have limited amounts of resources due to their nature of not being profit-driven. Therefore, a partnership with a for-profit company could open up for taking advantage of human, financial and marketing resources (Berglind & Nakata, 2005; Henricks, 1991) which could result in increasing the NPO's funding and awareness for the designated cause (Steckstor, 2011; Varadarajan & Menon, 1988). The fundings and raised awareness is a central benefit for many NPO's, because it increases competitive edge in comparison with other, individual donors (Steckstor, 2011). Varadarajan and Menon (1988) agree upon this, and argue that the primary aim of a cause-related campaign is to establish revenue-generating exchanges between the company and consumers', which in turn provides funding for the charity organisation. Moreover, NPO's that engage in cause-related marketing with an external company aim to create awareness about the cause, its mission, and activities, which the campaign is hoping to facilitate (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988).

Additionally, organisations and businesses are usually more impactful than NPO's, due to a broader customer base and more partners. Therefore, NPO's can benefit from the for-profit companies' marketing channels and attain advantages they would not be able to attain on their own. A cause-related campaign delivered through a partnership with a well-known brand is, therefore, penetrating and persuasive (Berglind & Nakata, 2005), increasing the abilities to influence the selection of consumers' who want to support the cause (Henricks, 1991), and broadening the customer base (Barnes, Ganim & Fitzgibbons, 1991). Except for an increase in exposure, NPO's can enjoy a generation of other non-financial resources provided by the brand behind the product being sold. NPO's often have a limited number of competencies than commercial businesses. Therefore, according to Berglind and Nakata (2005), corporations should provide their marketing and business talents for the development of cause-related campaigns for NPO's to implement. Cause-related marketing is complex and requires careful analysis before implementation takes place, which is why NPO's could use assistance in delivering the promotion, which increases the likelihood of good results (Berglind & Nakata, 2005).

2.1.3.2 The Other Side

However, cause-related marketing does not always result in beneficial outcomes. One challenge concerns finding the perfect fit between the cause and the company, since that is essential for a successful campaign (Lafferty, Goldsmith & Hult, 2004). Moreover, a mismatch between the company and the charitable cause could result in consumers' raising suspicions against the company, and that the image of both parties being harmed rather than enhanced (Lafferty, Goldsmith & Hult, 2004). Other downsides with cause-related marketing refer to NPO's limited resources (Polonsky & Wood, 2001), consumers' skepticism of the objective for implementing cause-related marketing (Barone, Miyazaki & Taylor, 2000; Poppendieck, 1999) and potential conflicts between the company and the NPO (Berglind & Nakata, 2005).

Balance in power between the NPO and the company can be troublesome. Polonsky and Wood (2001) argue that companies have responsibilities of not abusing their power, which potentially could harm the cause or damage the image of the charity organisation. Consequently, a loss of credibility may lead to consumers' making fewer purchases which decrease the overall sum donated to the cause. Furthermore, reduced funding is troublesome for the NPO, because as mentioned, those organisations generally have limited resources to rely upon (Polonsky & Wood, 2001).

Cause-related marketing can lead to consumers' developing skepticism and doubt regarding the efficacy and objective of the campaign being carried out (Becker-Olsen, Cudmore & Hill, 2006; Brønn & Vrioni, 2001). Some questions coming from consumers' refer to whether the designated cause receives a portion of the profits from consumers' purchases of cause-related marketing products (Barone, Miyazaki & Taylor, 2000). consumers' skepticism may also refer to perceiving cause-related marketing as inappropriate, despite it being an honest act of philanthropy (Poppendieck, 1999). This is because the potential risk of donations misfitting the needs of the recipients, as the donations may not cater to religious or culturally-specific needs. Thus, it is of high importance for donors to be aware of the recipient's needs, as this will affect consumers' perception of appropriateness, perceived fit, and efficacy (Poppendieck, 1999).

Wu and Hung (2008) argue that cause-related marketing does not always result in win-win for the parties involved, it can cause controversy, and that the execution of cause-related marketing comes with potential risks and negative effects for the NPO. One downside refers to a loss of organisational flexibility for the NPO. Due to the fact that NPO's are dependent on monetary funding and donations, there is a risk of changing goals to cater to the company's needs in order to gain financial support (Caesar, 1987). Moreover, Andreasen (1996) believes that inflexibility for the NPO can rise, if the corporation executing cause-related marketing imposes restrictions on the NPO, prohibiting it from cooperating with the corporations' competitors. If the venture between the organisation and NPO would fail, the organisation could more easily chalk it up to the cost of doing business, which an NPO cannot, due to limited resources (Andreasen, 1996).

Other kinds of criticism of cause-related marketing refer to the fear of the partnership between the NPO and the company, potentially damaging the cause. For-profit organisations aim is to build values for shareholders, while NPO's aim to improve social conditions, educate and enlighten society (Berglind & Nakata, 2005). Thus, these objectives may be in direct conflict with each other. Moreover, it might be perceived unethical that for-profit organisations are trying to benefit from NPO's, as they are wrapping themselves in the coat of public service for a corporate benefit (Berglind & Nakata, 2005). Moreover, many questions exist whether the philanthropic missions of NPO's are being strategically picked out by marketers, with the objective to profit from it (Berglind & Nakata, 2005). Berglind and Nakata (2005) further argue that there is a fine line between whether cause-related marketing is about activism or exploitation. This is due to the fact that many campaigns in this context are known for being controversial in marketing; it triggers consumers' to consume so that organisations can profit from social issues. On the other hand, some authors argue that it is crucial to highlight critical needs to generate passionate giving, and contribution to society, and therefore the marketing perspective is vital (Smith, 1994).

One dilemma of cause-related marketing concerns consumers' perception of it being either about activism or exploitation. Hence, companies must adhere to transparency and honesty to communicate to consumers that neither activism nor exploitation is the fundamental purpose (Berglind & Nakata, 2005). It is questioned whether NPO's and corporations are completely open about the campaign they form because they want to encourage as many people as possible to support the cause, and thereby contribute to positive sales figures (Berglind & Nakata, 2005). The reason for this, according to Olsen, Pracejus, and Brown (2003) is that many cause-related marketing campaigns are formed to make consumers' misunderstand the donations. They further argue that people prefer to take computational shortcuts, therefore, they tend to skip the step referring to estimating profit levels. Thus, it leads to a profit-equals-price (PEP) effect, which may result in consumers' overestimating the amount in which a cause-related marketing campaign donates to a cause (Olsen, Pracejus & Brown, 2003). Having stressed the importance of cause-related marketing in terms of positive public images, stakeholder relationships, and financial opportunities, but also downsides such as skepticism, potential exploitation, and harms, there is room to elaborate on how cause-related marketing is being used in more narrow contexts, such as the food industry.

2.1.4 Cause-related Marketing in the Food Industry

Concerns regarding environmental and social issues in the food industry have faced a rapid increase and spread the last couple of years (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2013). High pressure is put on food companies to take philanthropic responsibility in societies that goes beyond commercial and economic interests (Mohr, Webb & Harris, 2001). consumers' perceptions are increasingly becoming affected by corporations' social responsibilities (Huber, Meyer, Vogel & Vollmann, 2011), and their response to these philanthropic incentives are being either rewarded or punished depending on if the social performance is perceived to be good or bad (Beckmann, 2006; Moosmayer, 2012). Thus, an increasing number of food companies of various sizes have developed and implemented CSR programs (Maignan & Ralston, 2002). The food industry is one that constitutes for a volatile business environment where operations throughout the supply chain result in social problems, and ethical issues (Hartmann, 2011). Production of food leads to various consequences, among others the use of genetically modified organisms, food safety, animal welfare (Heyder & Theuvsen, 2012), food quality, health, and environmentalism (Hingley & Vanhamme, 2009), and consumers' are becoming increasingly aware and engaged in these issues. Food companies invest heavily in public visibility, thus, the external pressure, expectations, and demands to take social responsibility, and respond to the challenges posed by sustainability trends are high (Beer, 2016; Forsman-Hugg et al., 2013). As a result, food companies are being pushed towards taking a share in the responsibility of social- and philanthropic incentives (Elford & Daub, 2019), and demonstrate that the actions they take are suitable for sustainability concerns and that their responsibilities form meaning in societies (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2013).

As a part of CSR, cause-related marketing has received particular interest for actors in the food industry due to its positive effect on consumer behaviour (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). As mentioned in the introduction of this paper, Starbucks and McDonalds are examples of global corporations in the food industry that have adopted strategies for social responsibility to satisfy consumer demands. Moreover, apart from their CSR initiatives, McDonald's and Starbucks have implemented cause-related marketing as part of their business strategies. McDonald’s has since 1974 committed to be a mission partner of one of their own charity funds; Ronald McDonald House Charities (RMHC). For instance, at McDonald's restaurants all over the world, customers are exposed to RMHC donation boxes by the cashier counters, which encourages them to donate their change or optional amounts of money to raise funds (RMHC, 2020). Moreover, Starbucks has for more than 10 years been in a partnership with (RED), a licensed brand that raises awareness and funds in the private sector to help eliminate HIV/AIDS in eight African countries (RED, 2020). Throughout their collaboration, Starbucks has developed annual campaigns during the world AIDS-day. For instance, in 2018 Starbucks donated 20 cents (USD) for every handcrafted latte purchased in the USA and Canada to the Global Fund to help fight AIDS with (RED).

Although McDonald's and Starbucks have various CSR-activities and philanthropic initiatives, their cause-related marketing-activities are well-thought-out strategies to increase customer awareness, recognition, and brand recall (Sheikh & Beise-Zee, 2011), while improving their marketing performance and supporting a social cause (Varadarajan and Menon, 1988). Moreover, a favourable message is communicated to specific segments, instead of a larger public audience, allowing to reach customers that might find a certain cause to be of certain relevance (Sheikh & Beise-Zee, 2011). Moreover, when Starbucks and McDonald's support a specific cause as part of doing business, it signals that their business is successful and that they have enough profit to donate a portion of it to charity (Vlaholias et al., 2015). Thus, by addressing cause-related marketing-activities as part of CSR, companies achieve commercial success alongside with the social success, and achieve to establish a shared value between the business and stakeholders, and can thereby achieve a competitive advantage (Vlaholias et al., 2015). Finally, CSR initiatives and corporate identities formed by CSR could have a positive effect on the way consumers' behave in terms of brand evaluations and intentions to purchase products or services (Lichtenstein, Drumwright & Braig, 2004; Marin, Ruiz & Rubio, 2009; Pérez, 2009).

2.2 Consumer Behaviour and Cause-related Marketing

Companies exist for the sake of satisfying consumers' needs (Solomon, Bamossy, Askegaard & Hogg 2006). Therefore, it is of high importance to invest time and resources to understand how consumers' act and resonate concerning consumption, in order to fulfill those needs in the best possible way (Solomon et al., 2006). The concept of consumer behaviour started to face growth as part of changes in the business environment during the late 1990s when consumers' started to get substantially more power (Solomon et al., 2006). Various authors have throughout the years defined consumer behaviour in different ways. (Jacoby, 1976, p.332) defines consumer behaviour as "... the acquisition, consumption, and disposition of goods, services, time, and ideas by decision-making units". Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard (1986, p.4) have a similar perception of consumer behaviour and define it as "activities people undertake when obtaining, consuming, and disposing of products, and services". According to a definition provided by Blackwell, Szeinbach, Barnes, Garner, and Bush (2016), consumer behaviour also includes ideas and practices to be bought, used, and disposed of by people. Solomon et al. (2006) have added an extension consisting of companies' abilities to satisfy needs and desires, whilst Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2010, p.6) draw upon not only satisfying needs but "…the impacts that these processes have on the consumer and society".
One part of consumer behaviour could be conceptualized as a response model called the "stimulus-organism-response (SOR) process, consisting of three classes (Bagozzi, 1983). The stimulus, which refers to external factors that affect consumer choice, consists of managerially controllable factors (e.g. price, packaging, advertising) and environmental factors (e.g. competition, social pressure). For instance, the stimulus could be when a company markets its CSR activities, and individuals are being exposed to pressure stemming from social norms (Lii & Lee, 2012). The organism refers to individuals' internal processes to regulate choice and consists of cognitive processes (e.g. expectations, dissonance and decision rules) and affective processes (e.g. arousal, motivations, needs, attraction). Lastly, response refers to the behaviours constituting choice and consists of reactions, intentions to act, activities leading to the choice, actual choices, and outcomes of choice, as a result of stimuli and organisms (Bagozzi, 1983). Moreover, in order for consumers' to take action, the stimuli in question must be influential enough and come from a reliable source, such as another person who is perceived trustworthy (Hovland, Janis & Kelley, 1953; Le, Dobele & Robinson, 2018; Sweeney, Soutar & Mazzarol, 2008).

One kind of information source that is considered more effective than others, due to its non-commercial nature, is word of mouth (WOM) (Goldsmith & Horowitz, 2006; Mangold, 1987). This is due to the fact that people share recommendations on a daily basis (Reza Jalilvand, Salimipour, Elyasi & Mohammadi, 2017), and WOM can be acquired at any time, in various different ways (Chen & Berger, 2016). When consumers' recommend a product or brand it refers to a so-called "extra-role behaviour", meaning activities that are implicit and voluntarily made, and are not expected by the company (Groth, 2005). WOM refers to a way consumers' talk about brands and their products through conversing with other people (Solomon et al., 2006), given that the individual spreading the WOM has encountered the subject of matter (Ogbuji, Onuoha & Abdul, 2016). When consumers' are prone to recommend a product or brand, it is an unexpected act targeted towards the company, thus, an extra-role behaviour that is positive for the company (Solomon et al., 2006; Van Dyne & McLean Parks, 1995).

Reichheld (2003) argues that consumers' willingness to recommend a brand or a product to family and friends is a result of satisfaction and loyalty. Furthermore, another key benefit of WOM refers to the perceived trustworthiness as a result of personal recommendations (Day, 1971), due to the fact that WOM is free of any financial interest for the information provider (Reichelt, Sievert & Jacob, 2014). Moreover, various authors argue that as the credibility of the sender of information provided by the sender increases, so does the positive effect of WOM for the recipient (Bone, 1995; Gatignon & Robertson, 1986; Yale & Gilly, 1995). Therefore, to reach this level of satisfaction and desirable state of credibility companies must listen to, and understand how their consumers' behave (Groth, 2005).

Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) argue that CSR is perceived as something satisfactory by consumers', moreover, it increases the likelihood of conveying positive opinions to other people about the company executing CSR-activities. Several authors have shown that consumers' who are impressed by companies' associations with social causes are more likely to show support for those firms (Docherty & Hibbert, 2003; Thomas, Mullen & Fraedrich, 2011; Webb & Mohr, 1998). That said, CSR and WOM are positively connected, because companies CSR could result in prompting consumers' extra-role behaviour, thus, spreading positive WOM.

The importance of WOM is highly emphasized in today's marketing landscape (Bruwer & Reilly, 2006; Bruwer & Thach, 2013). Some literature provides insights into how cause-related marketing-partnerships may stimulate positive WOM for companies. Kano et al. (1984) argue that consumers' can be either dissatisfied, satisfied, or delighted. Those consumers' who are delighted, have gotten their needs met, and the outcome has positively exceeded their expectations. Therefore, they are more likely to spread their perceptions through positive WOM. Moreover, since most consumers' only expect a product in exchange for their payment, companies donating to charity are above and beyond what customers expect to receive, hence, this experience is likely to result in positive WOM (Kano et al., 1984).

Various authors argue that when consumers' get recommendations about a product or brand from someone they trust, it is likely to positively influence the consumer's purchase intention (Bughin, Doogan & Vetvik, 2010; Martin & Lueg, 2013; Prendergast, Ko & Siu Yin, 2010). Thus, WOM could be more reliable than traditional media when prompting customers to purchase a good. Furthermore, the authors argue that around 20-50 percent of all decisions to purchase a product are determined by WOM, making it a favourable marketing tool to gain a competitive advantage (Bughin, Doogan & Vetvik, 2010). Previous literature shows positive relationships between cause-related marketing, consumer attitudes, and purchase behaviour. In a study made by Roper (2002) it was found that 78 percent of the respondents believed companies have responsibilities to show support to social issues, 92 percent claimed that the image of companies supporting causes is positive, and 84 percent claimed they would be likely to switch to a brand which had associations with a good cause, given that price and quality of the product was similar.

2.2.1 Purchase Intention

Behavioural intentions refer to the degree to which an individual has set a conscious plan with the objectives to perform or not perform a specified future behaviour (Warshaw & Davis, 1985). According to Karem Kolkailah, Abou Aish and El-Bassiony (2012), consumers' are more likely to hold more positive behavioural intentions if they consider the company's objectives to be value-driven, thus, taking some kind of social responsibility. The behavioural intention that will be used for this thesis refers to purchase intention, which according to researchers within the scope of buyer behaviour theory refer to "a buyer's forecast of his brand choice some time in the future" (Howard & Sheth, 1969, p.148). Furthermore, other authors have defined purchase intentions, as illustrated in table 2.

Table 2: Definitions of Purchase Intention

Authors	Purchase Intention Definition
Rossiter, Percy & Bergkvist (2018)	… the buyer's self-instruction to purchase the brand (or take other relevant purchase-related action).
Spears & Singh (2004)	… purchase intentions are individuals' conscious plan to make an effort to purchase a brand
Eagly & Chaiken (1993)	the person's motivation in the sense of his or her conscious plan to exert effort to carry out a behaviour
Christensen, Gräås, Engdahl and Haglund (2001)	...an individual's expected or planned future behaviour, for instance intention to buy a specific good or service

Thus, a consumer's purchase intention is an individual's tendency to purchase a product or service in the near future (Blackwell et al., 2016; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Yoo, Donthu & Lee, 2000). Dahlén and Lange (2009) argue that purchase intentions require some kind of physical effort from the consumers' side, e.g. locate a store that sells the product. Therefore, according to Dahlén and Lange (2009), it is desirable that as the consumers' effort to find the product increases, so does the intention to purchase it. However, the level of purchase intention differs from different situations, as a cheap or everyday utility involves a lower degree of purchase intention because the purchase is usually not fully planned (Dahlén & Lange, 2009).

Lii and Lee (2012) argue that when consumers' have a positive perception of a company, it is more likely that the consumers' purchase intentions are positive. Cause-related marketing is one way for companies to do good, hence, consumers' generally perceive cause-related marketing as a positive act (Brown & Dacin, 1997). Therefore, it is likely to be more effective than ordinary marketing due to the ability to create positive brand attitudes (Hajjat, 2003; Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005), and positive effects on consumers' purchase intentions for buying a product linked with cause-related marketing (Smith & Alcorn, 1991). Various authors agree upon that cause-related marketing activities have a positive impact on consumer behaviour, such as consumers' purchase intentions of the specific product or service involved in the campaign (Berger, Cunningham & Kozinets, 1999; Lafferty & Edmondson, 2009; Olsen, Pracejus & Brown, 2003; Yechiam, Barron, Erev & Erez, 2003). This is also emphasized in a study about the effectiveness of cause-related marketing conducted by Ross, Stutts and Patterson (1991), where the results signified that approximately half of the respondents had purchased a product or service with a fundamental desire to support the cause aligned with the purchase.

Moreover, other studies within this area of research have indicated that consumers' can use their purchasing power to either reward or punish companies depending on whether the attitude for social responsibilities is positive or negative (Creyer, 1997; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). A study conducted by Olsen, Pracejus and Brown (2003) showed that consumers' who were told that ten percent of the profits would be donated to a charitable cause showed significantly higher purchase intention than if one percent of the price would be donated. Barone, Miyazaki and Taylor (2000) have a similar perception of the effectiveness of cause-related marketing and argue that consumers' are more likely to motivate their intentions to purchase a product if the donation goes to a cause they have a personal connection to. On the other hand, Bhattacharya and Sen (2004) believe that another condition to increase consumers' purchase intention for cause-related marketing products refers to the connection between the company and the cause. Moreover, Melero and Montaner (2016) argue that when cause-related marketing campaigns involve utilitarian products, purchase intentions are more likely to increase. However, due to the complexity of cause-related marketing, there is a need to gain insights into the effectiveness of this marketing strategy and its effect on purchase intentions given that the consumer feels motivated to engage in charity. Thus, the presence of various motivational factors to engage in charitable giving could potentially result in an increase in purchase intention.

2.3 Motivations that Influence People to Engage in Cause-related Marketing

Literature has identified a wide variety of motivations that influence people to engage in charity. Specifically, Konrath and Handy (2018) argue that individuals who rationalize their behaviour of donating money to charities are likely to seek to gain some kind of benefit, just as a consumer who acquires a product will seek benefits from making a purchase. Additionally, individuals seek different kinds of benefits, therefore, they are motivated to donate to charity by different factors. A common categorization of motivational factors to possess charitable behaviour refers to self-oriented or other-oriented motivations (Bock, Eastman & Eastman, 2018; Konrath & Handy, 2018).

White and Peloza (2009) argue that marketers commonly use these categories to identify appeals for charitable giving. The behaviour around charitable giving can be either egotistically driven whereas the donors receive the benefits (self-oriented) or altruistically driven, meaning that other people than the donor receive the benefits (others-oriented) (Konrath & Handy, 2018; White & Peloza, 2009). The former is characterized by egoistic traits, and the desire to receive something back in return for charitable behaviour (Emerson, 1976; Gouldner, 1960; Homans, 1958). Additionally, it refers to individuals having a desire to gain public recognition, and a positive reputation from their acts (Ariely, Bracha & Meier, 2009; Griskevicius et al., 2007). The latter is characterized by selfless acting (Belk & Coon), and could indicate that the donor engages in charity with the desire to establish a self-image of being purely altruistic (Dubé, Luo & Fang, 2017; Morewedge, Tang & Larrick, 2016; Savary, Goldsmith & Dhar, 2015; Touré-Tillery & Fishbach, 2012). Thus, the key distinguisher for self- and other-oriented motivational factors refer to the audience which the benefits are aimed at. Other-oriented motivations aim to benefit an external audience, while self-oriented motivations aim to solely benefit the individual who donates or engages in the charity event (Bodner & Prelec, 2003). Previous authors, for instance, Konrath and Handy (2018) argue that these motivational factors are characterized by various sub-motives, respectively (see figure 2).

While previous literature shows that motivations to engage in charity are two-fold, proposing that individuals are either motivated to benefit others or oneself (Konrath & Handy, 2018), this thesis will add a holistic structure with a slightly different scope. The authors of this paper believe that the intention of donating money versus buying cause-related marketing products differs in nature. For donations, the designated cause which the donation is directed towards is usually handpicked by the donor since it might indicate a personal connection, passion, or deeper concerns. Thus, the cause is the focal point. On the other hand, since cause-related marketing involves the act of purchasing a product before any donation can be made, the product is the focal point. That said, the cause might still be appealing to the consumer, but not to the same extent as in a donation. This might be due to the fact that the purpose of engaging in cause-related marketing is to acquire a product which in most cases was planned to be purchased. Because charity donations are intended to provide aid for a cause, that is also where the direct benefits are designated. Similarly, for cause-related marketing, a part of the benefits goes to the cause, but a bigger portion of direct benefits go to the person purchasing, since that person receives a product that was desired in the first place.

Cause-related marketing includes the act of making a purchase in which the purchase has been influenced by a stimuli. Drawing on previous research on charity motives (Konrath & Handy, 2018), this thesis examines internal and external motivations. This is because other-oriented and self-oriented motivations for donating money refers, in the authors' opinions, to whom the benefits are targeted. Whereas for cause-related marketing, the stimulus influencing the purchase could be either external or internal; coming from an individual's external environment or stemming from emotions on the inside. Moreover, the internal motives are further splitted into compensation and development factors. The internal motivations of donating to charity consist of altruistic, egoistic, enhancement, and guilt-relative motivations while external motivations consist of social motivation and trust in the company. Egoistic and guilt-relative motivations both refer to individuals experiencing a need to compensate for an internal, negative state of emotions by doing something positive; donating to charity. Therefore, egoistic and guilt-relative motivations are categorized under 'compensation motivations'. Enhancement and altruism are motivations whereas internal development, personal growth, and self-esteem can be leveraged by donating to charity, therefore, these factors are categorized under 'development motivations'. Lastly, social motivation and trust refer to donating to charity for the sake of external pressures and connection to other people, thus, these are external factors for donating to charity (see figure 2).

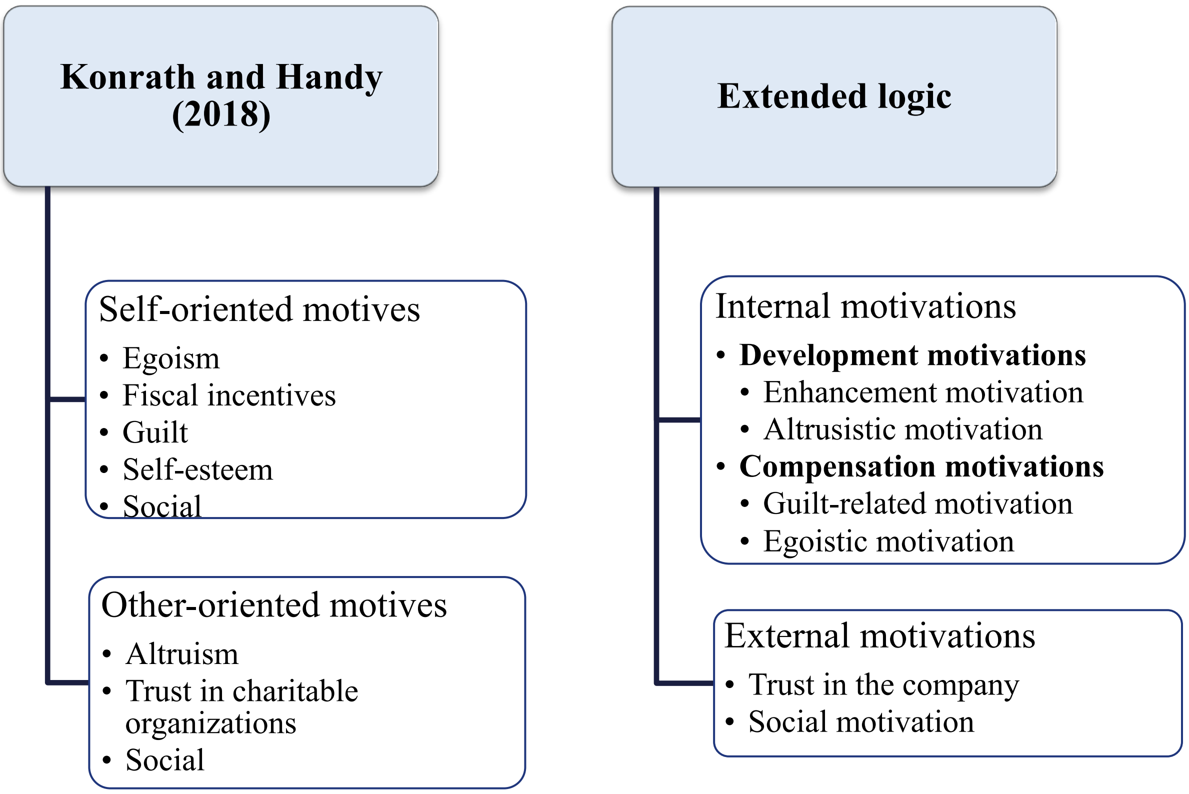

Figure 2: Extended Logic

2.3.1 External Factors

2.3.1.1 Social Motivation

The act of giving can be described by the theory of “social norms” (Elster, 1989). Individuals who engage in donating to charity accept the norms of their reference groups, leading them to donate money when they are perceived as positive and commonly occurring (Croson, Handy & Shang, 2009). Bekkers, Boonstoppel and de Wit (2018) argue that individuals who are influenced by social norms donate with an aspiration to keep good standing with their peers and enhance their reputation. Moreover, an individual who engages in charitable giving will change his or her belief of donating depending on others' contributions (Croson, Handy & Shang, 2009), and will perceive other's behaviour as superior to one self's (Crutchfield, 1955). Elster (1989) argues that in order for norms to be classified as “social” they need to be characterized by being shared among other people who are to judge if the norms are "approved" or "disapproved". Social norms could prompt feelings of embarrassment, anxiety, guilt, and shame of a person who is violating those norms set by one's peers (Elster, 1989). In a study made by Croson, Handy and Shang (2009) it was found that individuals who had a belief of others donating more money, donated more themselves. Moreover, the study showed that the higher the perceived social norms, the higher the sum of donations from an individual. Croson, Handy and Shang (2009) argue that individuals are more likely to be influenced by social norms when two conditions are held. The first condition refers to the perceived ambiguity of potential outcomes. Moreover, if an ambiguity would not exist, and the actions to be taken are obvious, it influences an individual's behaviour less (Crutchfield, 1955). The second condition refers to the applicability of the social norm; for the social norm to have an influence on individuals' behaviours, it needs to be perceived as relevant or appropriate (Croson, Handy & Shang, 2009).

Piliavin (1990) argues that people's willingness to donate money, as well as the amount individuals donate are subject to social norms. For instance, some contexts involve expectations on individuals to engage in charity, hence, if expectations are present, the only decision to be taken refers to not donating. Radley and Kennedy (1995) agree upon this and argue that giving to charity is for many people the normative thing to do, as it falls in line with what is expected of any person in a social context. If giving to charity is the expected thing to do, the failure to give is that of significance distinction, since a person who is not giving is perceived to not fulfill the minimum obligation that people expect of each other. Thus, the act of not giving requires justification (Radley & Kennedy, 1995). Moreover, the more often an individual engages in charitable giving, the higher the expectations of that particular individual to sustain the role as a donor throughout time (Callero, Howard & Piliavin, 1987). Seeing other people donate will influence an individual's willingness to donate themselves. Blake, Rosenbaum and Duryea (1955) have a similar perception of social influences and argue that an individual's judgment of how much to give to charity is based upon what is normative for the group. Thus, there is room to elaborate on whether social norms and expected social behaviour could be an influential factor for individuals engaging in charity through acquiring food products used in a cause-related marketing campaign.

Some authors argue that individuals have easier to adapt to other people's behaviour when they perceive other people to be correct in their judgment (Burnkrant & Cousineau, 1975; Miniard & Cohen, 1983). Compliance of these forms are often seen in family constellations, peer reference groups (Childers & Rao, 1992), and settings referring to private consumption (Bearden & Etzel, 1982; Osterhus, 1997). Clary and Snyder (1999) argue that social norms reflect motivations to maintain relationships with other people. Radley and Kennedy (1995) have similar perceptions of social norms and argue that giving to charity can also be a way for people to maintain social relationships. For instance, giving to a charity which aims to support people with the same disease that has caused the death of an acquaintance, could be a way to sustain the relationship with others who have been affected (Radley & Kennedy, 1995). Other social relationships of concern are family constellations, which seem to have a significant effect on norms relating to charitable giving. Many individuals have been told stories related to charity in their childhood by relatives, which leaves a mark on the experience in the family. Thus, self-identification of adhering to altruism and charitable giving plays a big part in the expectations of the group (one owns family) (Radley & Kennedy, 1995). Having this in mind, there seems to be a desire to establish and maintain relationships (Clary & Snyder, 1999), and perceiving other actions regarding charitable giving to be “correct”. Thus, similar behaviour could apply for increasing purchasing intentions for food products sold through cause-related marketing.

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between social motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause

2.3.1.2 Trust in the Company

Arnott, Wilson and Sichtmann (2007, p.1001) define corporate brand trust as: “the belief which a consumer in a purchase situation is characterized by uncertainty, vulnerability, lack of control and the independent-mindedness of the transaction partners relies on, to the effect that a company identified as a corporate brand will deliver a good or service at the quality which the consumer expects ...”. Brand trust refers to innocent consumers" expectations of companies not taking advantage of them (Anderson & Weitz, 1992). If consumers" perceive corporate trust to be favourable, it is likely to lead to positive results for the consumers" (Delgado-Ballester & Munuera-Alemán, 2005). Thus, a positive corporate trust forms a positive reputation and image, and is therefore vital in order for consumers" to make a purchase decision (Lafferty, Goldsmith & Newell, 2002). That said, consumers" can be naturally skeptical towards companies' CSR initiatives, because they believe they are merely profit-motivated (Rifon et al., 2004; Webb & Mohr, 1998). Therefore, one could argue that consumers" trust in companies engaging in cause-related marketing activities, could be a motivational factor to purchase food products, where a part of the profit goes to a charitable cause.

Doney and Cannon (1997) argue that if consumers' experience a company, which they intend to support by purchasing their products or service, to exhibit exploiting behaviour, they would experience betrayal and loss of trust. Because of this, consumers' are looking for clues to legitimize the social responsibility of truthful companies (Foreh & Grier, 2003; Menon & Kahn, 2003). Thus, if consumers' perceive companies to engage in charity because of goodwill, the likelihood is that consumers' confidence in the company will increase (Dean, 2003) while skepticism decreases (Hartmann, Klink & Simons, 2015). On the other hand, Till and Nowak (2000) argue that when consumers' question a companies' overall reputation, they tend to be more skeptical towards cause-related marketing campaigns.

Arnott, Wilson, and Sichtmann (2007) argue that the more positive experiences a consumer has with a corporate brand, the more their trust towards that corporation increases. Moreover, consumers' have a desire to find information about whether a brand can keep its promises (Arnott, Wilson & Sichtmann, 2007). Therefore, brands aim to communicate through their marketing strategies and activities to their consumers' what they are, what they want to be, and what they value, hoping that it could increase brand trust (Chaplin & John, 2005; Klein & Leffler, 1981). Various authors believe that consumers' find brands to be more attractive and trustworthy when their preferences and beliefs correspond with the brands' identity (Dutton, Dukerich & Harquail, 1994; Schneider, Goldstein & Smith, 1995). Additionally, Pivato, Misani, and Tencati (2008) argue that the perceived level of trust is based on a personal level. Hence, brands perceived CSR activities are more likely to form a positive impression on those consumers' who are personally sensitive to the social issues being addressed (Pivato, Misani & Tencati, 2008).

Several studies highlight that consumers' trust in cause-related marketing campaigns is crucial for companies to continuously engage in social causes. Thus, consumers' who do not trust companies cause-related marketing activities will most likely develop negative associations towards other kinds of CSR initiatives by the same company (Hartmann, Klink & Simons, 2015; Pergelova & Angulo-Ruiz, 2013; Strizhakova, Coulter & Price, 2008). Godfrey (2005) believes that trust in a brand is important because it can mitigate the level of negative evaluations made by consumers' and will positively influence consumers' purchase intentions for products sold under that particular brand. Furthermore, engagement in social causes and CSR should be regarded as an effective marketing strategy for companies, as it establishes a trustful relationship between companies and their consumers' (Torres et al., 2012). Likewise, for food products sold through a cause-related marketing campaign, purchase intentions could be mitigated by the level of trust a consumer has for a company and their social engagement.

Moreover, according to van Iwaarden, van der Wiele, Williams and Moxham (2009), and Ranganathan and Sen (2012) trust is considered to be one of the key motivational factors behind charitable giving. As trust increases, it also contributes to a positive relationship between companies and consumers' in the short, and long term (Sargeant & Lee, 2004). For companies that adhere to CSR practices, trust has been built up by being both transparent but also by sharing its reports to the public. In recent years, this has become increasingly important, and as mentioned in chapter '2.1 Corporate Social Responsibility', the 40 largest food players share their sustainability reports with the community to gain publicity and a positive corporate image (FoodDrink Europe, 2019). Bennett and Barkensjo (2005) also emphasize how trust in the relationship between the donor and the charity is crucial. When a donor engages in charitable giving, one relies entirely on the charity organisation, and that the donated money will go to the intended cause. If that is not the case, the relationship will be destroyed, as well as the trust. Moreover, if consumers' trust the company to donate the monetary value which they claim to do, and if the relationship between companies and consumers' is positive, consumers' purchase intentions for food products linked with a cause-related marketing campaign are likely to be positively influenced.

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between trust in the company and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause

2.3.2 Internal Factors

Development Motivations

2.3.2.1 Altruistic Motivation

Altruistic behaviour is not restricted to a particular culture, nationality, age, or social class (Etzioni, 1988). Hence, altruistic acts are performed by all kinds of people. Furthermore, altruism in relation to charitable giving is not a phenomenon on an individual level, even countries are raising billions to charity every year (Charities Aid Foundation, 2019). There are several factors that could have a particular influence on the practice of supporting others, where one factor could refer to altruistic behaviour (Hogg & Cooper, 2009). What is even more remarkable is that this applies not only to people in one's vicinity but also to people and places where no substantial connection can be found. However, there is still a continued confusion regarding altruism because of its scope. The phenomenon has become a debated and much-disputed topic that researchers still find difficult to grasp since it does not match our individualistic behaviour as highlighted by Corcoran (2012).

Zeigler Sojka (1986, p.240) defines altruism as “a donor's voluntary act which benefits the recipient”. This view is supported by Sherry (1983, p.160), who argues that altruistic behaviour is “the donor's attempt to maximize the pleasure of the recipient”. Consistent with these definitions, Kim, Gibson and Ko (2011) adopted the concept of pure altruism by Martin (1994) and noted that altruistic actions are derived from the belief that the primary goal of donating is to enhance the welfare of those in need. A number of studies have postulated a convergence between what distinguishes altruistic giving in relation to general giving; and that is the focus of those who need the help while ignoring any benefits the donor might receive from the act, resulting in a truly unselfish act (Andreoni, 1990; Bennett, 2003; Clary & Snyder, 1995; Deb, Gazzale & Kotchen, 2014; Harbaugh, Mayr & Burghart, 2007). Several lines of evidence suggest that altruistic behaviour “(1) must benefit another person, (2) must be performed voluntarily, (3) must be performed intentionally, (4) the benefit must be the goal by itself, and (5) must be performed without expecting any external reward” (Bar-Tal, 1986, p.5; Staub, 2013).

However, in previous studies on charitable giving, different variables have been found to be related to altruistic motives. In contrast to other studies, Keim (1978) investigates the underlying factor behind altruism and concludes that it is influenced by self-interest. Accordingly, such behaviour is motivated by the belief of private benefits in the long term. By donating blood or donating money to cancer research, there is a self-winning interest that if one would end up in a vulnerable position, then previous donations would be helpful (Bigné-Alcañiz, Chumpitaz-Cáceres & Currás-Pérez, 2010). Hence, individuals who are motivated by altruism might seek a self-winning interest referring to some kind of personal development, because voluntarily helping other people, could be enlightening for the donor (Keim, 1978).

People driven by altruistic acts may feel a greater affection for others, and thus an obligation to support others. This drives donor behaviour and actions related to charity. Through studies of neural activity, it has been found that charitable behaviour is actually affected by altruism (Harbaugh, Mayr & Burghart, 2007). This suggests that one way of thinking about charitable giving in the context of consumer behaviour is to view those engaged in altruistic acts as consumers' seeking the emotional benefits derived from giving. Indeed, Cialdini, Darby, and Vincent (1973) pointed out that the act of giving usually relates to the feeling of sacrificing, while giving in relation to charity becomes more of an overall hedonically pleasant experience. Thus, it could result in experiencing a feeling of personal development and growth. These aspirations are in a way linked to affirmation of one's self. However, these are not the only reasons. People have feelings and thus also empathic feelings. It is empathic thinking that leads to altruistic motivation and thus selfless actions (Oppenheimer & Olivola, 2011). That said, individuals' that act altruistically for the sake of giving to charity, could potentially be doing it in other circumstances too. For instance, when purchasing products that are involved in a cause-related marketing campaign. This leads us to hypothesis number three.

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between altruistic motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause

2.3.2.2 Enhancement Motivation

Another motivation to engage in charitable giving refers to the ego's growth and development, thus, identifying positive strings of the self, and especially striving for enhancement in self-esteem (Anderson & Moore, 1978; Clary & Snyder, 1999; Jenner, 1982). According to Blascovich and Tomaka (1991), self-esteem is the overall effective evaluation of one's own worth, and is a key motivator for giving to other people (Haggberg, 1992; Kotler & Andreasen, 1987). People with high self-esteem are more likely to engage in charity if it involves personal meaning (Wallace, Buil & de Chernatony, 2017). Thus, if the giving involves personal meaning, then those individuals that are affected by it, are also more likely to display their charitable affiliations because of their confidence in doing something good (Wallace, Buil & de Chernatony, 2017; Chaudhuri, Mazumdar & Ghosal., 2011). Furthermore, if an individual develops positive feelings (Clary & Snyder, 1999), and feel good about giving money to charitable causes (Wallace, Buil & de Chernatony, 2017; Chaudhuri et al., 2011), it is likely that they want to purchase food products in a cause-related marketing campaign for the same reasons.

Clary and Snyder (1995) argue that self-esteem can "grow and develop physiologically through volunteer activities", and lead to individuals feeling better about themselves when engaging in charitable giving. Various researchers argue that improvements in self-image, social worth, and feelings of self-esteem are enhanced by charitable giving (Dawson, 1988; Sargeant, 2014). For instance, in a study conducted by Piliavin, Piliavin, and Rodin (1975), it was found that giving blood could enhance individuals' feelings of heroism. The achievement of possessing a generous, loving, self-image is more important for individuals who donate to charity, than for those who do not donate (Yavas, Riecken & Parameswaran, 1980). Therefore, individuals who donate should be portrayed as generous and loving to help them sustain the self-image which dawned on donating to charity (Douglas, Field & Tarpey, 1967). Anderson and Moore (1978) argue that most people that engage in charitable giving have at least a moderate level of self-esteem. This makes these individuals feel that they have an adequate level of self-worth and competence to make their contributions as donors meaningful (Anderson & Moore, 1978). Moreover, individuals who believe that they are less or unable to contribute to the good of the charity organisation are more unlikely to volunteer (Moe, 1980). Self-esteem has been positively linked with helping behaviour in previous research (Gergen, Gergen & Meter, 1972). Burke (1982) argues that individuals with high self-esteem perceived themselves as helpful people, thus, the relationship between voluntarily giving and an increase in self-esteem is positive. The act of donating could for some individuals be a way to 'atoning for sins' and thereby enhance self-worth of the individual engaging in charitable giving (Burke, 1982). Koivula, Hassmén and, Fallby (2002) argue that self-esteem not only employs individuals to perceive growth in self-worth but also reflects enhanced self-confidence and competence. Moreover, a study made by Berkowitz (1972) highlighted that individuals with high self-confidence are more likely to be willing to help other people, thus, engage in charitable giving.

Baumeister and Leary (1995) argue that human behaviour is often formed by the essential need to form strong interpersonal relationships. That said, self-esteem functions to monitor an individual social inclusionary status, and is a tool used for steering the satisfaction of belongingness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). When an individual perceives strong social ties, his or her self-esteem increases, likewise, if the same individual is not likely to fulfill the need for belongingness, the self-esteem will decrease (Gailliot & Baumeister, 2007). Moreover, self-esteem reflects the extent to which individuals share opinions and values with others, and how well an individual fulfills those beliefs (Crocker & Wolfe, 2001; Pyszczynski, Greenberg & Solomon, 1997). Furthermore, experimental evidence shows that if the perception of how much others agree with one's opinions is positive, it will have a substantial effect on the self-esteem of that individual (Gailliot & Baumeister, 2007). Considering the effect on individuals' self-esteem from engaging in charitable giving (Clary & Snyder, 1995; Dawson, 1988; Sargeant, 2014) it is likely that the same feelings could arise from buying food products where a part of the profit from sales goes to a charitable cause.

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between enhancement motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause

Compensation Motivations

2.3.2.3 Egoistic Motivation

Egoistic motivation is synonymous with self-fulfilling motives. This kind of motivation to engage in charitable giving traces its roots in ego defense (Katz, 1960), meaning that the ego is protected from negative features of the self. Some people who possess egotistically motivations for charitable giving have aspirations of feeling better about themselves (self-respect givers), while others do it for the reason to maintain and enhance relationships with their peers (Beatty, Kahle & Homer, 1991). Individuals who are egotistically motivated may quest for reducing feelings of guilt over being more fortunate than others, and to find strategies to mitigate personal problems (Clary, Snyder, Ridge, Copeland, Stukas, Haugen & Miene, 1998). Thus, individuals donate to charity to compensate for experiencing any negative feelings. Similarly, egoistic motives and desires for reducing negative feelings about oneself could urge individuals to donate money to charity through purchasing food products connected to cause-related marketing. Sargeant and Woodliffe (2007) perceive egoistic motives as being rational in nature while leading individuals towards evaluating the costs and benefits of engaging in charitable giving. Moreover, Andreoni and Scholz (1998) argue that such individuals who are egoistic and motivated to engage in charitable giving aspire to enhance one's own ego by reducing peer pressure. Additionally, by showing interest and involvement for donating to charity, individuals seek to obtain rewards referring to improving their personal welfare (Batson, Ahmad & Tsang, 2002; Bendapudi, Singh & Bendapudi, 1996; Kim, Gibson & Ko, 2011; Kottasz, 2004). Thus, individuals who are motivated by egoistic reasons are guided by a constant seeking of rewards or compensation of some kind for their engagement in charity (Shelley & Polonsky, 2002). Other aspirations of egoistic motivation refer to obtaining personal recognition and increased self-esteem (Dawson, 1988; Glynn, Bhattacharya & Rao, 1996), or receiving tangible benefits of the monetary form (Mora & Nugent, 1998; Yetman, 2001). Moreover, individuals could receive similar kinds of rewards such as personal recognition for engaging in charity in other ways, among others purchasing food products that are bundled with a cause-related marketing campaign.

Paswan and Troy (2004) argue that one kind of reward in which people are prompted by egoistic motivation refers to social recognition. Thus, by donating money to charity one seeks to obtain prestige from belonging to a certain group. Moreover, by belonging to a certain group, individuals can benefit through taking advantage of the group's accomplishments, known as social identification (Katz & Kahn, 1966). Social identification is intertwined with self-interest, thus, donating money is a status symbol for some individuals with egoistic motives. As that particular person donates more, he or she gains a greater level of internal satisfaction in terms of self-esteem and prestige in relation to the group he or she belongs to (Paswan & Troy, 2004). Correspondingly, desires for obtaining prestige, increased self-esteem, or feeling rewarded for engaging in charity could also be motivational factors to buy food products where a portion of the profitability goes to a charitable cause. However, egoistic motivation refers to other benefits rather than those of self-fulfilling nature. Cermak, File and Prince (1994) argue that individuals might engage in charitable giving because of tangible (monetary) benefits that will favour oneself or someone they know. These benefits could refer to for instance tax deductions, vouchers, or coupons. Yamamura, Tsutsui and Ohtake (2017) argue that it is a risk to offer individuals tangible rewards for engaging in charity due to the fact that it can change the meaning of the donation. Individuals who seek tangible rewards from their charity engagement might transition from a purely altruistic donation to one driven by self-interest (Yamamura, Tsutsui & Ohtake, 2017). The fact that people feel motivated to engage in charity because of perceived tangible benefits, can result in similar coping behaviour for purchasing food products involved in a cause-related marketing campaign.

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive relationship between egoistic motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause

2.3.2.4 Guilt-related Motivation

The feeling of guilt has been noticed by various authors (Cotte, Coulter & Moore, 2005; Duhachek, Agrawal & Han, 2012), and refers to general feelings individuals' experience when doing wrong (Tracy & Robins, 2007; Zimmermann Abrams, Doosje & Manstead, 2011). It is a two folded concept which is splitted between personality traits, and emotions (Izard, 1977; Mosher, 1980). Guilt as a trait refers to self-punishment for violating internal moral standards (Kugler & Jones, 1992; Mosher, 1980). Gaylin (1979) believes that when those internal moral standards are violated, it signals that one has failed their personal ideals, and transgressed from codes of behaviour, which they personally want to withstand. Guilt is a painful experience of regret, self-blame, and self-punishment, whereas these feelings originate from the commitment of misconduct (Izard, 1977). Similarly, the feelings of violating internal moral standards (Mosher, 1980; Kugler & Jones, 1992), as well as experiencing regret and failure (Izard, 1977) could emerge in similar situations, such as when consumers' are exposed to a campaign which stresses charitable aid, in combination with purchasing a good.

Tracy and Robins (2007) argue that emotions of guilt are affected by the extent to which individuals believe they can change the outcome of certain situations. Thus, when individuals perceive failure to be the results of an action, and if it was due to controllable factors such as lack of effort, then the feeling of guilt is strong (Tracy & Robins, 2007). Furthermore, guilt is self-conscious where the attention is pointed towards self-presentation (Tracy & Robins, 2004), which is why advertisements of charity and donations often arouse guilt-related emotions (Basil, Ridgway & Basil, 2006). Thus, other kinds of advertisements about charitable giving, such as those related to cause-related marketing could prompt similar feelings of guilt. Ghingold and Bozinoff (1982) argue that consumers' behaviour is positively affected by negative emotions. When people experience negative emotions triggered by social disapproval, such as guilt, they strive to find ways to reduce and regulate that feeling (e.g. compensate by doing something that feels good (Chang, 2014). Parker and Brown (1982) argue that an effective strategy for reducing negativity is to redirect one's attention to upcoming, positive events. Therefore, in situations when a person experiences guilt, shifting their thoughts to other things which arouse positive feelings could help produce happiness (Chang, 2014). Observing others in trouble makes most individuals develop feelings of compassion, and thus more willing to help reduce distress and seek emotional rewards (Cialdini, Schaller, Houlihan, Arps, Fultz & Beaman, 1987). Moreover, one way for individuals to do this is by donating to charity, because giving to charity could generate psychological benefits for the donor such as a positive mood, facilitating of expressing gratitude, and compensating for guilt-like emotions (Bekkers & Wiepking, 2011).

When individuals cultivate the idea of donating to charity, they prompt happiness and forecast a future state of positivity if they voluntarily engage in charitable giving (Chang, 2014). People who acknowledge a negative state of emotions, are more likely to engage in charity, compared to people who do not acknowledge those feelings (Smith & McSweeney, 2007), or have experienced positive feelings such as empathy (De Luca, Ferreira & Botelho, 2016). Previous literature has not only shown that the more feelings of guilt an individual experiences, the greater the willingness to participate in charity. What has also been highlighted by various authors is that when the feeling of guilt cultivates, so does the size of the donations. Thus, people are more willing to donate more money, as they experience a stronger guilt-related feeling (Basil, Ridgway & Basil, 2006; De Luca, Ferreira & Botelho, 2016; Hibbert, Smith, Davies & Ireland, 2007; Smith & McSweeney, 2007). Referring to various authors who allege that charitable giving seeks to reduce a negative state by donating to charity (Cialdini et al, 1987; Bekkers & Wiepling, 2011), the same positive emotions could be achieved by purchasing food products that bundled with a cause-related marketing campaign.

When an individual experiences guilt, it often stems from inconsistency with moral or social norms (Miceli & Castelfranchi, 1998; Tangney, Stuewig & Mashek, 2007). To exemplify: individuals who find themselves in charity-settings and do not donate, might experience guilt and feel bad about themselves if other people donate (Miceli & Castelfranchi, 1998; Schwartz, 1970). The reason for this is because viewing other people's donations might cause people to be ashamed, or that its dissonances with one's self-image (Schwartz, 1970). Moreover, individuals might feel responsible for the fact that others are more misfortunate than themselves, thus, guilt-related emotions can arise when they fail to take responsibility over others (Burnett & Lunsford, 1994; Miceli, 1992). In a study made by Harris, Benson, and Hall (1975), the results indicated that people who entered a church before and during confession hours donated more (39%) in comparison with people who donated after confession (19%) when their guilt had been reduced. Hence, when individuals violate the social principles and expectations of donating to charity, they reach a negative state of emotions (guilt), and one way to compensate for it is by donating (Coulter & Pinto, 1995). Moreover, cause-related marketing could like other kinds of charity activities prompt individuals to donate by playing on their feelings of responsibility (Miceli, 1992; Burnett & Lunsford, 1994)

Hypothesis 6: There is a positive relationship between guilt-related motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause

2.5 Summary of Literature and Hypotheses Formulation

The figure below presents the conceptual framework that summarizes the literature behind the development of the hypotheses. Deducted from the literature, it seems that social motivation, trust in the company, altruistic motivation, enhancement motivation, egoistic motivation, and guilt-related motivation could prompt consumers' to purchase cause-related marketing products. Thus, these motivations represent the independent variables which are conceptualized to affect the dependent variable; purchase intention.

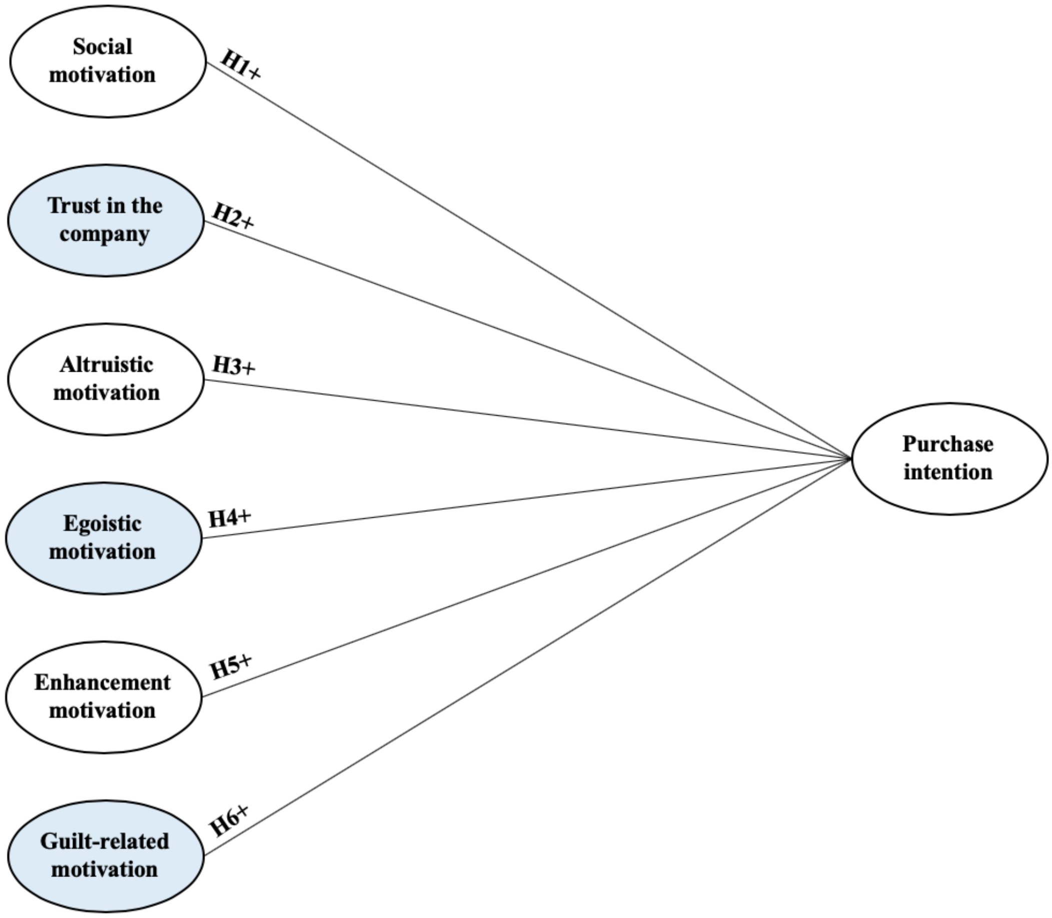

Figure 3: Conceptual Framework

3. Methodology

This chapter presents the methodological approach of this study, starting with the philosophical assumptions, and how it has been translated into the research approach. The following sections draw upon the chosen research design and methods for sampling, which consequently leads to a detailed description of the questionnaire. Furthermore, the dependent and independent variables will be presented, respectively. This follows the data analysis method and concludes with a critical discussion of the research quality criteria.

3.1 Research Philosophy

Research philosophy refers to the nature and development of knowledge, that influences the aim of the study, as well as the underlying research design (Easterby-Smith, 2018). Moreover, it encloses important assumptions on how the researcher views and interprets the world (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Hence, it is of importance to elaborate on the philosophical stance at an early stage of the research, to obtain a coherent picture of the problem, and to make sure that it is consistent with the research approach. In this study, we intended to develop consolidated knowledge from the two selected research streams; consumer behaviour, and cause-related marketing. To achieve this, we had to make assumptions about the nature of reality (ontological), and nature of the world (epistemological) that shaped the formulation of our research question, method, and interpretation of findings (Crotty, 1998).

Ontology refers to the nature of reality and existence, and concerns questions regarding the subject of matter, and how it should be understood, and subsequently, how the world operates (Bell, Bryman & Harley, 2018; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). One kind of ontology refers to internal realism (Bell, Bryman & Harley, 2018). Easterby-Smith (2018) states that internal realism distinguishes from the other stances in that truth exists, but it is quite obscure. He further argues that it is impossible to approach that reality directly, meaning that the evidence has to be gathered indirectly. The observed phenomenon, consumer behaviour in relation to cause-related marketing, is not dependent on a particular researcher, and the concept can be described and conceptualised in different ways. Moreover, even though the truth exists, we accept that the view of reality can be changed depending on the method of data collection. Hence, these arguments support the ontological position of internal realism to be suitable for this thesis.

Epistemology is the study of how we know whether facts are true or false, how we go about knowing things and what steps that need to be taken to gain knowledge of the world (David, 2015). With regards to epistemological considerations, we considered a positivist stance to be well aligned with this thesis. Positivism is according to Easterby-Smith (2018), and Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) referring to knowledge based on facts, meaning that reality should be measured through objective methods, such as quantitative ones. Moreover, it concerns existing theories that later will be used to develop hypotheses. This study aimed to investigate motivational factors that positively influenced purchase intentions of cause-related marketing products. Thus, past findings and theories were used to develop a logic identifying motivational factors, which was used as a foundation for elaboration of hypotheses. The collected data were quantitative, allowing us to identify patterns and regularities in consumer behaviour, which resulted in supported or not supported hypotheses. This is consistent with positivists' goal of generating findings obtained through statistical research (Easterby-Smith, 2018).

3.2 Research Approach

When conducting research, the relationship between the research and theory has to be considered (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The goal with the research question(s) in combination with the main purpose of the study is to direct the research approach of the study (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). There is a consensus among social scientists, that business research can be categorized into an inductive, deductive or abductive approach (Bell, Bryman & Harley, 2018; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). According to Bryman and Bell (2015) deductive approaches reflect the most dominant research approach, in scientific research, when investigating the connection between theory and research. So basically, the researcher uses what is already known about a particular topic to deduce hypotheses. In other words, the deductive approach begins with existing theory, used to formulate hypotheses (Bell, Bryman & Harvey, 2018). Through observations, one will conclude to support, or not support, the hypotheses. Consequently, acceptance of hypotheses will lead to the development of new theories as well as revisions of the existing ones (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Accordingly, deductive research is a top-down strategy, starting from the more general, culminating into the more specific (Burns & Burns, 2008).

A deductive approach is the most common procedure for conducting quantitative research since testing hypotheses are prominent (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009; Yilmaz, 2013). With the information above in mind and taking into account the aim of the study, a deductive approach was selected, as it allows exploration of relationships between variables (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Firstly, the aim was to confirm our research question, and explore the relationship between the independent variables, thus, the motivational factors behind charitable giving and the dependent variable; purchase intention where a percentage goes to a designated cause. To investigate this, we used existing theory of motivational factors for charitable giving to formulate our hypotheses. Through our empirical material we were then able to determine whether the hypotheses were to be supported or not supported, and then revise or form new theory.

3.3 Research Design

A research design is according to Malhotra (2010), a blueprint when conducting a research study. It contains all the processes and procedures required to provide the information needed to answer the research question. Hence, the research design acts as a framework for the collection and analysis of data (Burns & Burns, 2008). A consistent and carefully executed research design is therefore important and facilitates for later stages during the process.

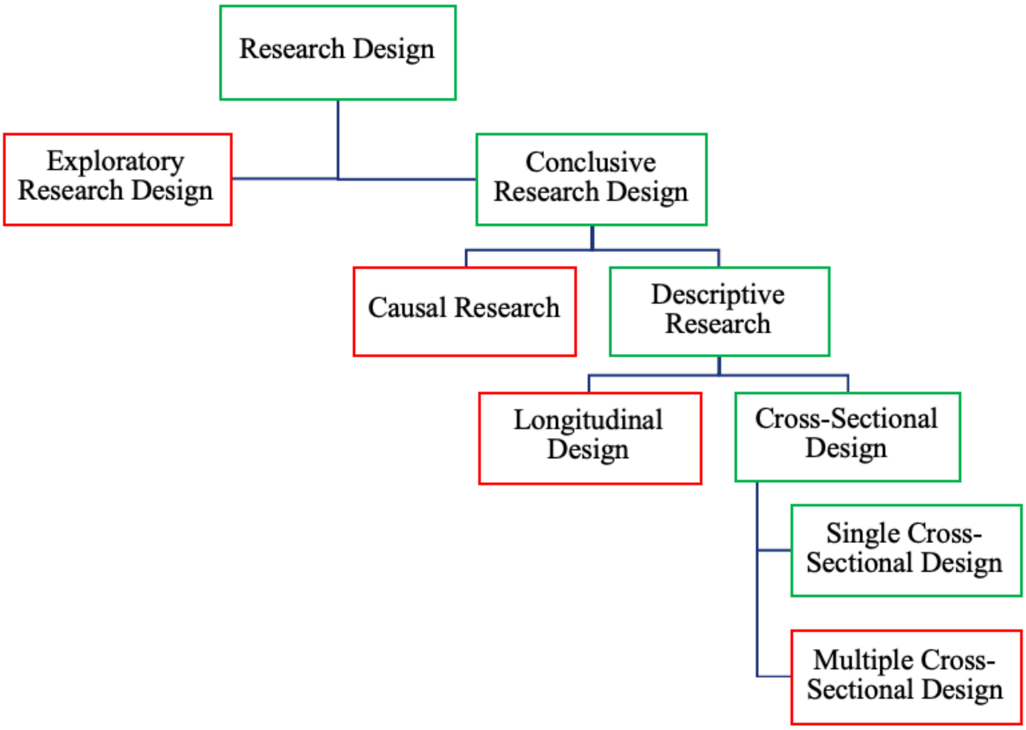

Figure 4: Research Design

Malhotra (2010) distinguishes between two types of research designs; exploratory, and conclusive. An exploratory research design is usually adopted in studies of a qualitative nature. On the contrary, a conclusive research design is used in the collection of quantitative data (Sreejesh, Mohapatra & Anusree, 2014). A conclusive research design is also characterized by a large sample, and a research process that is structured and formal. Testing hypotheses and relationships is another aspect that distinguishes conclusive research design from exploratory (Malhotra, 2010). Based on the aforementioned information, a conclusive research design was more appropriate for our study (see figure 4). The nature of the study is structured due to examined relationships between the motivational factors and purchase intention. Also, the hypotheses, which are typical for conclusive research design, confirm the chosen design.

After determining a conclusive research design, we would once again decide whether our research would take the form of a descriptive or causal design. At first, the idea was that we would use an experiment and showcase different types of marketing activities. This method is particularly useful in studying experiments, and the initial choice of causal design as it differs from descriptive through the use of experiments, to see effects on the dependent variable when the independent variable is manipulated (Zikmund, Carr & Griffin, 2013). However, after some guidance and thoughts, we chose to eliminate the experiment and focus on a more descriptive research. When conducting descriptive research, the main objective is to describe something – preferably characteristics about the market (Malhotra, 2010). Descriptive research is used: (1) when describing characteristics of particular groups – in our case; consumers' of the Swedish market, (2) when estimating the percentage of a population behaving in a particular way and (3) to determine perceptions; consumer behaviour (Malhotra, 2010).

Furthermore, descriptive research is categorized into cross-sectional and longitudinal design. A cross-sectional research design, and more precisely single cross-sectional design, was the one we opted for due to the following characteristics: (1) More than one case; our survey were completed by 198 persons, (2) the data was collected more or less simultaneously at a single point in time, (3) a standardized method for gauging variation; quantifiable data, and lastly (4) examination of relationships between the specified variables; motivational factors and purchase intention, to detect patterns (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

3.4 Sampling Method

3.4.1 Target Population and Sample

Sampling is the process of picking out a representative portion of the population that is intended for the study (Burns & Burns, 2008). When choosing a sample, the first step is to define the population, which is the "… universe of units from which the sample is to be selected" (Bryman & Bell, 2015, p.187). In other words, the population is the entire collection that shares some common set of characteristics that is of interest for the study (Malhotra, 2010). When defining the population for this study we came to the conclusion (based on previous research within the area) that individuals' perceptions of cause-related marketing products are quite diverse as a result of one's background and experiences. With that in mind, our study was targeted towards people who during some period in their lives had lived in Sweden, however, they did not necessarily have to be Swedish residents. The motive for this refers to the authors' perception that living abroad makes one create perceptions of the culture, micro-, and macro-environment of that country. Thus, this indicated that the individual could be categorized as a Swedish consumer and eligible to fill out the questionnaire. Furthermore, individuals below the age of 18 were not targeted for consent reasons. As anonymity was secured, a consent form from the parents was unable to be requested from the participants. However, we do not see any restrictions with this since food products are largely purchased by people aged 18 and above. Lastly, what also had to be taken into consideration was the internet-usage in Sweden. According to Internetstiftelsen (2018) 94 percent of all people over

17 years old use the Internet regularly, hence the questionnaire was shared on LinkedIn, Facebook, Instagram and email.

3.4.2 Sampling Technique

Sampling techniques can take the form of either probability or non-probability sampling (Burns & Burns, 2008; Malhotra, 2010). In a probability sampling, the sample is randomly selected and all individuals in the population have the same chance of being selected (Burns & Burns, 2008). On the other hand, non-probability sampling refers to when the sample is not randomly selected, and the individuals do not have the same chance of being included. Some might have a zero chance, while others are more likely to be selected (Bryman & Bell, 2015). A non-probability sampling method was adopted to determine the motivational factors that affect purchase intention of food products bundled with a cause-related marketing campaign. One disadvantage of non-probability sampling is that sampling errors cannot be measured which in turn affects the results; the assumptions can statistically not be generalized to a larger population (Burns & Burns, 2008). Moreover, the results can easily be biased. Nonetheless, it was not feasible to conduct a probability sampling for the purpose of this research, due to resource, cost, and time constraints. In order to reduce the risk of misleading results, the number of respondents can be increased, as well as to ensure that the sample elements are diverse (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

Non-probability sampling can be managed in several ways. For this thesis, the sample elements were selected using convenience sampling. Convenience sampling is characterized by finding units, in this case, individuals, who are easy to find, and available in the researcher's surroundings (Burns & Burns, 2008; Easterby-Smith, 2018). In addition to purely convenience sampling, this study also used another type of non-probability sampling; judgement sampling, or in other words purposive sampling (Burns & Burns, 2008; Easterby-Smith, 2018). Judgement sampling is a form of sampling where respondents are selected based on their suitability with the research purpose. When looking for sample elements with specific characteristics that are eligible for the representation of the population, this form of sampling is adopted (Burns & Burns, 2008). The eligibility criteria for this study were people aged 18 years and above, who live or have previously lived in Sweden. This is due to the fact that we believe younger people may not understand the meaning of cause-related marketing-products, and that they are usually not the ones who go grocery shopping. Therefore, we decided to post the link to the survey, on pages where there was a strong likelihood that we would find our intended sample.

3.4.3 Sample Size

Bryman and Bell (2015) emphasize the importance of determining the sample size before data collection begins. They further argue that a large sample size reflects the representation of the population much better and more accurately. Hence, the sample size reflects a compromise between cost and time constraints, the need for precision, sampling error tolerance, non-respondents, and heterogeneity of the population (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Malhotra, 2010). When the population size is relatively unknown and hard to calculate, it is difficult to determine where the limit goes for the sample to be credible. After some consideration, we chose to set a limit of at least 150 respondents.

In total, the questionnaire reached out to 296 participants. Of those, 73 did not complete the entire questionnaire and only 223 could be included in our sample. Moreover, after further consideration, nine respondents were withdrawn due to a response time below three minutes. With further thought, as we did not collect enough answers from people over 50 years old, we decided to delete 16 more answers. Therefore, we chose to change our target group to people aged between 18 and 50 years. Consequently, the final sample consisted of 198 respondents. Of the 198 who made up our sample, 60.1 percent were women and 39.9 percent were men. 81.8 percent were below the age of 30. With a sample of 198 respondents, it exceeded our minimum of 150 respondents for this study. More information about respondents regarding education, salary, etc. can be found in table 6.

3.5 Data Collection Method

3.5.1 Questionnaire Design

When new technologies appear, so do survey techniques. In past years, the internet has become a necessary tool for people's everyday life. Bryman and Bell (2015) introduce the self-completion questionnaire that allows the respondents to fill out and complete the survey themselves. They further emphasize the wide scope self-completed questionnaires provide; they can come in numerous forms. Postal and mail questionnaires have been the most widely used ones, whereby they are sent to the respondent through post or mail. After completion, the questionnaire is returned by post or mail to the sender (Bryman & Bell, 2015). With that in mind, internet-based surveys have become more convenient and common than postal and email-based ones (Bryman & Bell, 2015; Easterby-Smith, 2018). The web-based survey contains various practical tools for reaching many respondents, which in turn could result in many responses. Another advantage of using a web-based survey is that it can be accessed and completed at any time (Easterby-Smith, 2018). In contrast to the postal and mail-survey, it does not require the respondent to return the questionnaire back, as this happens automatically. Moreover, the physical presence of the interviewers is not required, thus, solving time constraints.

Nowadays, several different platforms for web-based surveys exist that are customized with different functions, to fit different purposes and types of questionnaires (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). The authors of this paper have both previously used the survey platform SoSci Survey for smaller projects, hence the choice fell on this alternative. It also allows the authors to use the time to the maximum when a new tool does not need to be learned. Moreover, SoSci Survey allows the import of data directly into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) program, which was later used as the analysis software in this paper.

When conducting the survey and choosing the items, we had Easterby-Smith (2018) six principles in mind. The first principle (1) states that each question should express only one single idea; by keeping purchase intention separate from the questions about the motives, we managed to do this. The motives were also separated from each other, so no questions dealt with two motives at the same time, to be able to distinguish the different motivational factors. The second principle (2) discusses the use of jargon and colloquialisms. When we pre-tested our questionnaire (see chapter '3.4.2 Sampling Technique'), we made sure that the test subjects could clearly, and easily write their comments on how the questions were framed, so as not to exclude some people and to make it easy to understand. The third principle (3) treats expressing questions in a simple way. Since our research is about explaining an already existing phenomenon (purchase intention) in relation to cause-related marketing-products, we chose to presuppose on already existing items. However, some small adjustments in social motivation were made to facilitate the understanding of the statements (see chapter '3.4.2 Sampling Technique'). In enhancement motivation for example, we chose to formulate all the questions in the same way: "Donating makes me feel important" instead of "I feel important when donating". The fourth principle (4) concerns the avoidance of using negatives. To not make mistakes, we did not choose any items with a negative formulation. However, we had two questions that were reverse-coded under the categorization “trust”. In this case the respondent had to answer the opposite to not make any mistakes. This was not something we could control, so for the sake of clarity we added a note concerning that the respondents would read the wording carefully before answering the questions concerning trust. However, Bryman and Bell (2015) argue for the benefit of using reverse-coded questions. If a respondent agreed to all items, when some of them indicated lack of trust, then it is most likely that the respondent was influenced by the response set and filled out the form without reading the questions. The respondent's response is thus not approved and is unlikely to provide a valid assessment of the motivational factors. The fifth principle (5) is about time referents. No questions in our formulary was dependent upon a time horizon. The sixth and last principle (6) concerns the avoidance of leading questions. The questionnaire was formulated in a way so the respondents would feel secure about themselves, and we emphasized that no answers were right or wrong. By keeping these principles in mind, we are confident that our survey was clear and appropriate enough to use.

The survey started by thanking the respondent for taking their time to fill out the questionnaire, followed by information about the authors, a description of the subject of matter and the aim of the thesis. We also included the approximate time for filling out the survey, and the requirements of age, and experience of the Swedish market. Moreover, a short section with ethical considerations such as confidentiality and anonymity were included, as well as information about processing of data.

Section one in the survey consisted of demographic background questions concerning gender, age, highest level of education and monthly net income. The results derived from this section provided us with the essential demographic characteristics to fully analyze the data, and to prepare us for various types of control variables. Accordingly, the first question in the demographics section concerned gender and was formulated as “What is your gender?”. All questions in the survey were in the format of closed questions due to the benefits of this approach. A major advantage with closed questions is the simplicity when processing answers; both for the respondent (only a few alternatives) and for the authors (codes can be mechanically derived from the selected answers and no interpretation have to be made) (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Other advantages of using closed questions, is the ability that comes with being able to easily compare answers and show relationships between variables. It also clarifies the meaning of the questions and these are easy for the respondents to complete (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The second question asked about the respondent's age and was formulated “How old are you?”. The respondent could choose between 10 different age spans using a nominal scale. If the box “Younger than 18 years old” was checked, the participant was excluded from the sample. The choice to exclude participants based on age was utilized for in chapter '3.4.2 Sampling Technique'. The fourth question regarded the highest level of education the participant had completed or was currently studying. The alternatives were of nominal scale, ranging from “middle school” to “Would rather not say”. The last question asked participants about their monthly net income. Two of the alternatives were of nominal scale whereas the other eight were of ratio scale (Burns & Burns, 2008).

The six subsequent sections concern the different motivational factors that influence people to buy food products where a part of the profits goes to a designated cause. Easterby-Smith (2015) emphasizes the importance of grouping the questions so they concern the same topic. With that in mind, we decided to separate the different classifications with a new number asking the question “How much do you agree with the following statements? Note: Please read the questions carefully and be aware of the formulations” (see appendix 1).

The last section referred to the purchase intention of cause-related marketing products where three questions were asked. In this section we included the ending “where the company behind the product donates money to a cause. For example, coffee brands that allocate a percentage of their profits to deforestation” as an example for the respondent to visualize a specific situation. The statements regarded indicators of information, interest and likelihood of purchase (see appendix 1).

3.5.2 Pre-test

According to Reynolds, Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch (1993) a pre-test is a helpful way to reduce ambiguities and errors in a survey. Pre-tests are used to minimize measurement errors, to find problem areas, as well as a tool to ensure that the questions are formulated correctly, and interpreted accordingly. Hence, a pre-test was conducted with the intended questionnaire and sent to 14 respondents within the target population. The pre-test was managed through SoSci survey platform, where the main study also was conducted. SoSci offers a tool called “pre-test mode” that allows respondents to leave comments on each question. The respondents' opinions were related to the clarity, formulation of statements and response alternatives, flow, and their general perception of the questionnaire. Based on these opinions, we chose to make minor adjustments to reduce the occurrence of confusion while facilitating the response process in the form of time spent per question.

Some of the pre-test respondents raised concerns about how certain statements were expressed. Since our items were collected from previous research, we were not able to make major changes as the documentation would no longer be relevant. As some items were designed during the 1990s, we realized some problems concerning how certain questions were formulated. To the greatest extent possible, we chose to keep the wording, but on some items, we made small changes so we could improve the respondents' understanding without changing meaning. For example, we changed "Others with whom I am close place a high value on donating to charities" to "Other people I am close with place a high value on donating to charities".

Moreover, some of the respondents had an opinion about the 5 and 7-point Likert scales, as they considered it easy to click in the middle, thus, providing a neutral answer. A 4 or 6-point Likert scale could have been more appropriate as it requires respondents to take a stand. But as mentioned before, our scales were adapted from previous research, thus, there was no choice for us other than to stick to the already developed scales. One final action we took based on the test respondents' opinions was to add a note to the section that belonged to trust, where two of the questions were reverse-coded, and which perhaps required a little more thought so that one would not answer contrary to what one had intended to answer.

3.6 Variable Measurement and Scaling

When conducting research, it is fundamental to translate the components of the problem into concepts (conceptual framework) (Burns & Burns, 2008). However, to be able to measure components, they must be converted into measurable variables; in other words, operationalization of the variables (Burns & Burns, 2008). Furthermore, the more abstract concepts need to be converted into specific and concrete ones, otherwise, it would not be possible to measure them, nor, fulfill the purpose of the study. Bryman and Bell (2015) further explain that in order to operationalize the concepts into measurable variables, indicators need to be established. The indicators can be devised in a variety of ways, for example through questions in a questionnaire, recording individual behaviour, statistics, or content analysis. Using multiple-scale item measures deal with advantages such as the ability to make finer distinctions and capture a larger portion of the concept. Therefore, the concepts in this study were measured through a multiple-item scale to capture a broader set of facets. Moreover, it allowed for asking respondents multiple questions concerning the measured concept (Bryman & Bell, 2015). In our questionnaire, we made a conscious choice by only using closed questions. Closed questions facilitate the handling of data. Thus, enabling for an easier process when converting data to SPSS.

3.6.1 Dependent Variable

For the dependent variable: purchase intention, a semantic scale was applied. The semantic differential rating scale is characterized by bipolar rating scales where each scale is portrayed by a pair of opposite adjectives (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). The statement "How much do you agree with the following statements?" was followed by the semantic scales "I am unlikely/likely", "I would not like to have more information/I would like to have more information", and "I am not interested/I am interested" (see appendix 1). In the next chapter, we will describe in detail the operationalization of the six independent variables social motivation, trust in company, guilt-related motivation, enhancement motivation, altruistic motivation, and egoistic motivation, and the dependent variable purchase intention. The semantic scale adopted in this research is of ordinal scale which is the third strongest scale of measurement (Burns & Burns, 2008). This means that we can place the different response alternatives in rank order. However, a ranking order does not indicate the measurement of the difference between the numbers.

The dependent variable was operationalised by asking questions about the respondents' purchase intention of food products where a percentage goes to a specific cause. The statements were adapted from Rodgers (2004) where an ending: "of food products where the company donates money to a cause. For example, coffee brands that allocate a percentage of their profits to deforestation" was added at the end of each statement. The items for 'purchase intention' are shown in table 3 below.

Table 3: Construct 'Purchase Intention'

Construct	Items	Author
Purchase Intention	I am likely/unlikely to make a purchase of food products where the company behind the product donates money to a cause. For example, coffee brands that allocate a percentage of their profits to deforestation I would like/not like to have more information about food products where the company behind the product donates money to a cause. For example, coffee brands that allocate a percentage of their profits to deforestation I am interested/not interested in food products where the company behind the product donates money to a cause. For example, coffee brands that allocate a percentage of their profits to deforestation	Rodgers (2003)

3.6.2 Independent Variables

The Likert scale was employed to measure the items regarding the consumers' motivational factors, and perception about charitable giving, which formed the independent variables. Likert-style rating scale is a method of attitude measurement, used to show how strongly the subjects agree or disagree with a statement (Burns & Burns, 2008; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Furthermore, Likert-scales usually take the form of a four-, five-, six- or seven-point rating scale (Likert, 1932). For this study a 5-point Likert scale where 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree was applied, and a 7-point Likert scale where the statement "How much do you agree with the following statements?" was followed by 1=not at all accurate and 7=extremely accurate (Likert, 1932). As for the dependent variable, so are the independent variables of ordinal scale, which means that we can only rank the response alternatives with a meaningful order, but not the distance between them (Burns & Burns, 2008). However, a ranking order does not measure the difference between the numbers (1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree).

The different motivational factors are the independent variables in this study. This was operationalised by asking questions about the different motivations. For instance, the items for 'Guilt' are shown in table 4, whereas all other items can be found in Appendix 1.

Table 4: Construct 'Guilt'

Construct	Items	Author
Guilt	I often give to charities because I would feel guilty if I did not If I never gave to charities, I would feel bad about myself Guilt often motivates me to give to charity I donate to charity because not helping others who are in need makes me feel bad Donating to charities enables me to seek repentance and forgiveness for my sins	Green & Webb (1997)

The six different motivational factors are developed from previous literature regarding charitable giving. However, the classifications are taken from different sources and to make them more specific to our study we have chosen to adjust the names of some of the constructs. The literature by Clary et al (1998) is referring to 'protective motivation', hence we have adapted the factor to 'egoistic motivation'.

Table 5: Adapted Classifications

Our classification	Classification from literature	Adapted from	Used by other authors
Social motivation	Social motivation	Konrath & Handy (2018)	Jones, Schratter & Kugler, (2000), Radley & Kennedy (1995), Clary & Snyder (1995), Vesterlund (2006), Andreoni (1990), Clary et al., (1998)
Trust in the company	Trust	Konrath & Handy (2018)	Opoku, (2013); Koufaris & Hampton-Sosa, (2003); Kennedy et al (1998), Lerro, Raimondo, Stanco, Nazzaro, Marotta, (2019)
Altruistic motivation	Values motivation	Clary et al (1998)	Bennett, 2003; Amos et al., (2015); Opoku, (2013); Andreoni (1990); Deb, Gazzale & Kotchen (2014); Ribar & Wilhelm (2002); Clary & Snyder (1995)
Egoistic motivation	Protective motivation	Clary et al (1998)	Amos, Holmes & Allred, (2015); Paswan & Troy, (2015); Polonsky, (2002); Clary & Snyder (1995)
Enhancement motivation	Enhancement motivation	Clary et al (1998)	Borowa, Kossakowska, Harmon & Robitschek, (2018); Dawson, (1988); Filo, Frank & O'Brien (2011); Clary & Snyder (1995)
Guilt-related motivation	Guilt	Green & Webb (1997)	Coulter & Pinto, (1995); Dawson, (1988); Sargeant et al (2006)

3.7 Data Analysis Method

3.7.1 Data Preparation

To facilitate the analysis, the data was initially transferred from SoSci Survey to SPSS with already coded variables, where it was subsequently screened. Screening is according to Pallant (2013) used to find missing values, outliers, and errors, such as,values that fall outside the possible values a variable can obtain. With the help of the frequency and descriptive statistics tool in SPSS this could be achieved (Burns & Burns, 2008). As mentioned in chapter '3.3.1 Target Population and Sample', the respondents had to fulfill two criteria to be included in the sample. They must have lived in Sweden at some point during their lifetime, and be older than 17 years.

3.7.2 Descriptive Statistics

After initial screening and cleaning of data had been complete, we chose to execute an analysis based on the participants' demographics. The variables we were concerned about referred to gender, age, the familiarity of the Swedish market, education level, and income before tax. We wanted to get an overview of the collected data, and to ensure that the distribution of the respondents was diverse. Consequently, the descriptive statistics were constituted in order for the data to be organised, and to reveal any underlying patterns. According to Burns and Burns (2008), there are four fundamental measures that should be taken into consideration when doing the descriptive analysis: (1) distribution of frequencies – looking at the frequency of each given value, (2) the central tendency of the data – the average value of each variable, (3) dispersion or variability – the spread of the values below and above the average and lastly (4) skewness – if the distribution of the values attains a normality distribution or a skewed one (Burns & Burns, 2008). Distribution of frequencies is as mentioned how frequent a certain value is. Moreover, it includes the percent, valid percent, and cumulative percent of each value. The central tendency measurement refers to the average, and implies what is typical, usual, representative, normal, or expected in the data. Moreover, the concepts on central tendency are the mode, mean, and median, which all interpret the average in different ways. The mode refers to the observation that occurs most frequently in the given data set. The median is similar to the item in the middle, referring to the point in a distribution below which 50 percent of the scores fall. The mean is what most people believe to be the average since it is the most widely used and familiar measure of central tendency. The mean is calculated by taking the sum of scores divided by the number of scores in the given dataset (Burns & Burns, 2008).

Closely related to central tendency is dispersion or variability, which refers to the degree to which points differ from one another, meaning the spread or scatter. One way to identify variability is by calculating the range between the lowest and highest scores (Burns & Burns, 2008). However, since the range is considerably influenced by extreme scores in the dataset and only takes into account two scores - those at both extremes, it is not a very good method for calculating variability. The variance, on the other hand, is a better measure of variability since it incorporates every score in the distribution rather than just the two end scores, such as in the range (Burns & Burns, 2008). Another measurement of spread is the standard deviation, which is simply calculated by taking the square root of the variance. This measurement reflects the amount of spread that the scores exhibit around the mean. Generally speaking, a high standard deviation indicates a greater dispersal of scores, while a smaller standard deviation indicates a smaller spread of scores. Lastly, dispersion or variability include quartiles and interquartile range (Burns & Burns, 2008). While the median divides a distribution exactly in half, this could also be done using quartiles. The first quartile in a distribution represents the lowest 25 percent, while the second quartile represents exactly 50 percent of the distribution. The third quartile divides the bottom three-fourths of the distribution from the top quarter. Moreover, the interquartile range represents the distance between the first and third quartiles, in other words, the mid 50 percent of the scores (Burns & Burns, 2008).

3.7.3 Regression Analysis - Simple Linear Regression

Regression analysis is according to Sreejesh, Mohapatra and Anusree (2014) a statistical technique that allows for predictions of the likely values of the criterion variable, thus, the dependent variable. Simple linear regression was chosen because of its ability to predict the dependent variable based on a score of the independent variables (Burns & Burns, 2008). Moreover, regression also determines the strength of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent one. With this in mind, the independent variables, whose values are known, are used in this type of analysis to predict the dependent variable, which is unknown. Regression is defined by Gujarati (2003, p.18) as:

"It is concerned with the study of the dependence of one variable, the *dependent variable*, on one or more other variables, the *explanatory variables*, with a view to estimating and/or predicting the (population) mean or average value of the former in terms of the known or fixed (in repeated sampling) value of the later".

The form of the logical extension for the line of best fit is:

$$Y = b_0 + b_1x_1$$

whereas Y = the dependent variable, b_0 = Y intercept which predicts the value of Y, when X is close to zero, x_1 = independent variables, b_1 = slope for each independent variable (Burns & Burns, 2008).

This research was conducted to examine the relationship between six different motivational factors and purchase intention of food products where the company behind the product donates money to a cause. With that said, simple linear regression was chosen to conduct this cross-sectional study.

3.7.4 Correlation

Correlation is a way to measure the relationship between variables (Burns & Burns, 2008). It investigates the strength between, and what direction the relationship between the variables under study has. The three most well-known methods to analyse correlations between variables are Pearson's correlation, Kendall's Tau, and Spearman's rank correlation (Burns & Burns, 2008). For the research being carried out in this thesis, Pearson's correlation and Spearman's rank correlation was employed. The purpose of using these methods is to uncover whether there are significant correlations between the motivational factors previously presented, and purchase intention for cause-related marketing products.

3.7.4.1 Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient

Spearman's rank correlation coefficient represents the monotonic relationship between two variables, its strength, and direction (Hauke & Kossowski, 2011). This means that if one variable in the relationship either increases or decreases, so will the other variable (Hauke & Kossowski, 2011). Spearman's rank correlation is similar to Pearson's correlation coefficient. However, the main difference refers to Spearman's constituting a non-parametric technique, using ranked data rather than raw, which Pearson's do (Gauthier, 2001). When conducting research, it is vital to ensure that the quality is high (Jamieson, 2004). Therefore, it is essential to acknowledge what kind of measurement is the most suitable (Knapp, 1990). Likert scales were employed to collect data in the questionnaire, and the obtained sets of data were of ordinal (ranked) level. Therefore, the most appropriate method for testing the hypotheses of a positive relationship was Spearman's rank coefficient correlations (Burns & Burns, 2008).

Gauthier (2001) argues that in contrast to Pearson's, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient involves various advantages. Firstly, the correlation between variables is not affected by the distribution of the population, hence, the data does not have to be normally distributed. Secondly, this kind of method can be used with small sample sizes, and thirdly, since ranked data is used, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient is moderately insensitive to outliers (Gauthier, 2001).

3.7.4.2 Pearson's Correlation Coefficient

Pearson's correlation coefficient is an additional way to measure the strength of a relationship between two variables (Hauke & Kossowski, 2011). Various statisticians have raised concerns about whether Pearson's correlation is applicable to ordinal data (Jamieson, 2004). However, considering the fact that Likert scale data was later computed to form an overall mean value (Carifio & Perla, 2008), it is an appropriate method to conduct parametric tests into non-parametric (Pell, 2005). Hence, it was appropriate to use Pearson's correlation coefficient as a supporting method for verification in this thesis.

3.8 Research Quality Criteria

3.8.1 Validity

Validity is according to Burns and Burns (2008) a measure of how well the method actually measures what it intends to measure. In other words, the research method is considered to be valid if it actually measures the concept it supposes to measure (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009; Burns & Burns, 2008). Validity is extremely important for the study to ensure quality, both in terms of drawing conclusions about the effects of the independent variables, but also in making valid generalizations about the population (Malhotra, 2010). The former is referring to internal validity, while the latter refers to external validity (Malhotra, 2010; Bryman & Bell, 2015).

Bryman and Bell (2015) argue that studies need a balance between internal and external validity in order to attain an optimal outcome. Internal validity refers to how well the variables in the experiment remain controlled, indicating that the relationship is attributed solely to the independent variable, and does not confound with other factors (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). For this paper, internal validity is demonstrated in the questionnaire, and refers to the ability to measure what is intended to be measured, and that the results reflect the reality (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). Additionally, the scales used for measuring the constructs in this thesis have previously been tested in various studies, thus, the validity within their individual streams of research is high. This level of validity is further recognized for the scales measuring the motivational factors to engage in charity. Table 5 illustrates various authors that have used similar variables to measure motivations for charitable engagement. Thus, the formulation of our research question was well aligned with the items and variables in the questionnaire, since the substance is based on various studies.

3.8.2 Reliability - Cronbach's Alpha

Having provided an overview of the respondents' demographic background, it was of interest to evaluate the internal reliability and consistency of the results by using Cronbach's Alpha (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Cronbach's Alpha is particularly useful in developing questionnaires and scales as the alpha level shows the general correlation between the different items, and whether they measure the same construct. Subsequently, it is therefore possible to eliminate items that do not fit in with the others.

A Cronbach's Alpha test is very useful for this study as it allows parallel measurements of different variables, to determine their correlation to a larger phenomenon (Bell, Bryman & Harley, 2018). In this case motivational factors and the purchase intention of food products where the company behind the product donates money to a cause. In other words, Cronbach's Alpha was used to test if the different items for each motivational factor and purchase intention measured the same construct. Since our items were collected from already existing literature, the items inter-correlated (Burns & Burns, 2008). An alpha level of 0,7 is considered to be the rule of thumb and thus the level of acceptability to fulfill the requirements of internal reliability and consistency of the conceptual constructs that groups all items. Moreover, a level above 0,8 is highly acceptable, whereas a level above 0,9 is considered to be excellent (Bell, Bryman & Harley, 2018; Burns & Burns, 2008; Lance, Butts & Michels, 2006)

Moreover, the alpha coefficient varied between 0 (no internal reliability) and 1 (perfect internal reliability). With this in mind, all multiple-item measures: social motivation, trust in the company, altruistic motivation, egoistic motivation, enhancement motivation and guilt-related motivation were tested for Cronbach's Alpha. The constructs in this study all surpassed the threshold value for measurement, allowing for grouping of all variables (see table 8).

4. Findings

This chapter presents the findings derived from the web survey. Starting with descriptive statistics, including average scores for means and standard deviations. Moreover, the following sections include Cronbach's Alpha, highlighting the reliability of the factors, and the correlations and regressions between the motivational factors and purchase intentions for cause-related marketing products. The chapter concludes with a robustness check, as an additional analysis besides the main method used.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

4.1.1 Demographics

Table 6 presents the summary statistics of the respondents' characteristics. The total number of people who started the survey could be counted to 296. Of those, 198 subjects completed the survey and could be used in our study. In chapter '3.3 Sample Process' a detailed explanation can be found which elaborates on why some subjects were removed from the sample. Of the initial cohort of 198 respondents, 119 (60,1%) were female, and 79 (39,1%) were male. Hence, a greater proportion of the respondents were women. The age of the participants differed, with the largest proportion of respondents (81,8%) being between 18 and 30 years old. A significant portion of the study participants was reported to have a high level of education, with 181 individuals (91,4%) holding a degree from college or university. Thus, the sample consisted of well-educated people. Moreover, the respondents' personal income varied greatly, but the largest group (32.3%) had an income between 10 001 and 20 000 SEK.

Table 6: Demographic Characteristics

Question	Criteria	Frequencies	Percentage
Gender	Male	79	39.9%
	Female	119	60.1%
	Total	**198**	**100%**
Age	18-30	162	81.8%
	31-40	20	10.1%
	41-50	16	8.1%
	Total	**198**	**100%**
Education	Middle School	1	0.5%
	High School	16	8.1%
	Bachelor level	85	42.9%
	Master level or higher	96	48.5%
	Total	**198**	**100%**
Monthly net income	I do not have a personal income	10	5.1%
	Less than 10 000 SEK	24	12.1%
	10 0001 - 20 000 SEK	64	32.3%
	21 001 - 30 000 SEK	30	15.2%
	30 001 - 40 000 SEK	38	19.2%
	40 001 - 50 000 SEK	13	6.6%
	50 001 - 60 000 SEK	9	4.5%
	60 001 - 70 000 SEK	4	2.0%
	70 001 - SEK or more	4	2.0%
	Would rather not say	2	1.0%
	Total	**198**	**100%**

4.1.2 Mean Values and Standard Deviations

One indicator of the central tendency is the arithmetic mean, which has been elaborated upon in chapter '3.6.2 Independent Variables' The arithmetic mean reflects the point of equilibrium in a distribution and determines the average value (Burns & Burns, 2008). The table below illustrates an overview of the respondents' total response options which in turn gives rise to mean and standard deviation. Additionally, the sample has been separated by gender, to investigate whether major differences exist between sex in chapter '4.5 Robustness check'. The questions were formulated in a way, so the respondents were provided the chance to answer the questionnaire by selecting a number from a continuous scale ranging from (1) *Strongly disagree* to (5) *Strongly agree*, whereas a mean value of 3.0 indicated that the participants neither agreed or disagreed to the statement, that they were slightly neutral. While a mean value of 4.0 on the scales ranging from (1) *Not at all accurate* to (7) *Extremely accurate* suggested that the respondents did not find the statement to be either true or false.

Table 7 shows the breakdown of all variables with their corresponding mean values and standard deviations. The means of the concepts that were measured on a 5-point Likert scale differed between 3.14 and 4.14, whereas the ones measured on a 7-point Likert scale had a large dispersion, and ranged between 3.71 and 5.49. From this data, we can see that all mean values in both scales exceed the neutral value, except from egoistic motivation that falls just below the neutral value of 4. The results showed that the means of trust in the company, altruistic motivation and purchase intention for the total sample had the highest adjusted values (73.60, 78.53 and 82.80), denoting that the items within these constructs had the support of most respondents, whereas egoistic motivation was the variable with the lowest adjusted value (53.00) (see appendix 2).

Table 7 shows all the standard deviations. The construct egoistic motivation had the highest standard deviation of the total sample (2.01). This implies that the participants had somewhat different opinions about the items for this construct and that there has not been a continuous pattern of how to answer these questions. The construct trust in the company had the lowest standard deviation. As for egoistic motivation, this implies for the total sample (0.63). Given that five of the seven standard deviations surpassed the value of 1.0, this demonstrated that the participants reacted quite differently to the questions.

Table 7: Variable Construct Frequency Comparisons

Variable	Minimum statistic	Maximum statistic	Mean	Standard deviation
Social motivation	1.00	5.00	3.26	1.13
Trust in the company	2.00	5.00	3.68	0.63
Altruistic motivation	1.80	7.00	5.49	1.31
Egoistic motivation	1.00	7.00	3.71	2.01
Enhancement motivation	1.00	7.00	4.45	1.71
Guilt-related motivation	1.00	5.00	3.14	1.27
Purchase intention	1.00	5.00	4.14	0.90

4.2 Cronbach's Alpha

After reviewing the descriptive statistics, the reliability of the multi-items was tested as a first step in the analyzing process to ensure the accuracy of our measurements. As mentioned previously in chapter '3.7.2 Descriptive Statistics', a Cronbach's Alpha test was conducted to ensure internal consistency, namely reliability. This was executed on all items within each construct to test if the items were measuring the same characteristic. When measuring the internal consistency of trust in the company with eight items, Cronbach's Alpha only reached a result of 0.661. Given that the value was below the threshold value of 0.7, we chose to remove item five which according to SPSS had the most negative impact. After the removal, Cronbach Alpha reached a value of 0.705. The tests revealed satisfying results for all constructs (ranging from 0.705 to 0.951; see table 8) and exceeded the acceptable threshold value of 0.7 (Burns & Burns, 2008). Hence, all constructs were found to be accurate in assessing the evaluation of Swedish consumers' purchase intentions for food products bundled with a designated cause.

Table 8: Cronbach's Alpha

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of items
Social motivation	0.938	5
Trust in the company	0.705	7
Altruistic motivation	0.916	5
Egoistic motivation	0.951	5
Enhancement motivation	0.908	5
Guilt-related motivation	0.920	5
Purchase intention	0.811	3

For each of the independent variables' social motivation, trust in the company, altruistic motivation, egoistic motivation, enhancement motivation, and guilt-related motivation the alpha level was greater than 0.9, which validates that the reliability for all variables was high. One explanation for these positive results could be that the questions used in the questionnaire were derived from previous literature about charitable giving, and had been used in various different research contexts. Thus, the questions had been tested many times and turned out to be reliable measurements. Furthermore, the same holds true for the dependent variable purchase intention which reached a good alpha level of 0.811. Lastly, the variable trust in the company had the lowest alpha value of all concepts referring to 0.705. However, as this still exceeds the threshold of 0.7, one should still consider it to be a valuable measure and use it for the subsequent analysis.

4.3 Analysis of the Findings

The following criteria were implemented in line with the data to ensure that the values adhere to statistical requirements. Hence, it was vitally important to first calculate the statistical significance in order to test the hypotheses. Hypotheses testing requires the set up of two conflicting statements, the null hypothesis, and the alternative hypothesis. Burns and Burns (2008) claim that:

$H0$: The finding was due to chance – nothing really happened (null hypothesis) $H1$: The finding was not due to chance - something beyond chance occurred (alternative hypothesis).

In order to test the conflicting hypotheses, the first step was to try to disprove the null hypothesis. Moreover, a null hypothesis is presumed to be valid as long as the opposite is not proved. If the findings support the null hypothesis, the null hypothesis will be supported, and subsequently, the alternative hypothesis not supported. However, if the findings turn out to be vague, the null hypothesis is not supported and the alternative hypothesis supported. Given this, a significance level of 5% was set in order to make these decisions. A significance level of 5% indicates that there is a 5 percent risk that the wrong decision will be made; either not supporting a true hypothesis (Type 1 error), or supporting a false hypothesis (Type 2 error). When the calculated significance level is 5% or less ($p < 0.05$), the findings are not due to chance and the null hypothesis is not supported. If the p-value is above the significance level of 5% ($p > 0.05$), the null hypothesis is supported and the findings are simply due to chance.

After determining the significance level, the next step was to measure the effect size for the variables that were significant. As mentioned in chapter '3.7.4.1 Spearman's rank correlation coefficient' Spearman was used as the analysis method, since the data was of ordinal scale and non-parametric. However, the coefficients were also developed for Pearson, which was used as an additional tool to further strengthen our hypotheses. The correlation coefficients of both measurement methods contain values from -1 to +1 in order to provide insights about the direction of the relationship, as well as the strength between the variables (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). The former concerns checking whether the correlation coefficient is positive or negative, whereas the latter measure the absolute value. The closer a value is to 1, the stronger the relationship between the variables, indicating that a change in one variable leads to a change in the other (Burns & Burns, 2008). Pallant's (2013) recommended conventions state that: 0.10 - 0.29 indicates a weak relationship, 0.30 - 0.59; moderate relationship, whereas 0.60 - 1.0 indicates a strong relationship.

Furthermore, the strength of the relationship, in other words, the effect size, indicates how much of the dependent variable is explained by the independent variable (Burns & Burns, 2008). Cohen (1992) presents 0.2 to be a small effect size, 0.5 to be a medium effect size, and 0.8 to be a large effect size. In summary, Spearman was used to determine the strength of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable, while the effect size explained the effect of the independent variables in relation to the dependent variable.

4.4 Relationship Between Motivations and Purchase Intention

A Spearman correlation analysis was employed to compute for all of the hypotheses to ascertain the relationship between each construct of the motivational factors, and purchase intention of food products bundled with a cause. Each independent variable was selected from the belonging hypothesis and correlated with purchase intention to obtain the results. The results of the correlation analysis are presented in table 9. It is apparent that the most striking result to emerge from the data is that there is a positive linear correlation between each motivational factor and purchase intention.

Table 9: Spearman Correlation Coefficients

		Spearman's rho Correlations						
		Social motivation	**Trust in the company**	**Altruistic motivation**	**Egoistic motivation**	**Enhancement motivation**	**Guilt-related motivation**	**Purchase intention**
External factors								
Social motivation	Correlation Coefficient	1	.668**	.525**	.766**	.633**	.748**	.437**
	Sig (1-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N		198	198	198	198	198	198
Trust in the company	Correlation Coefficient		1	.695**	.533**	.667**	.638**	.496**
	Sig (1-tailed)			.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N			198	198	198	198	198
Internal factors								
Altruistic motivation	Correlation Coefficient			1	.397**	.530**	.461**	.522**
	Sig (1-tailed)				.000	.000	.000	.000
	N				198	198	198	198
Egoistic motivation	Correlation Coefficient				1	.783**	.846**	.321**
	Sig (1-tailed)					.000	.000	.000
	N					198	198	198
Enhancement motivation	Correlation Coefficient					1	.780**	.517**
	Sig (1-tailed)						.000	.000
	N						198	198
Guilt-related motivation	Correlation Coefficient						1	.367**
	Sig (1-tailed)							.000
	N							198
Purchase intention	Correlation Coefficient							1
	Sig (1-tailed)							
	N							
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed)								

4.4.1 External Factors

Spearman's rank correlation coefficient for the external factors consisting of social motivation and trust in the company demonstrated positive values of 0.437 vs. 0.496. A comparison of these results with Pearson's (r) correlation coefficient confirms the positive values as it generated similar strengths (0.450 vs. 0.522) (see table 10). Furthermore, as seen in the regression model, the significant level of both social motivation and trust in the company attain values below the significant level of 0.05 (Social motivation: $\beta = 0.450$; $t = 7.060$; $p < 0.05$; Trust in the company: $\beta = 0.522$; $t = 8.576$; $p < 0.05$). In other words, the relationship between the variable social motivation and purchase intention of cause-related marketing products are positively correlated, meaning that when social motivation increases, so do purchase intention. The same goes for trust, as trust in the company increases, so do purchase intention. Table 10 below shows the effect size for each variable, whereas 20.3 percent of purchase intention was explained by social motivation, and 27.3 percent were explained by trust in the company.

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between social motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause - **Supported**

Hypothesis 2: There is a positive relationship between trust in the company and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause - **Supported**

4.4.2 Internal Factors

As for the external factors, all correlation coefficients for the internal factors presented positive values, which can be found in table 9. The correlations ranged from .321 to 0.522 which indicated relationships of medium strength. Moreover, compared to the Pearson correlation coefficients, we can observe that the results were very similar, with a slight increase, except for enhancement motivation showing lower values for Pearson compared to Spearman (see table 10). Surprisingly, the regression model showed that all relationships were statistically significant with a p-value of 0.00 (Altruistic motivation: $\beta = 0.582$; $t = 10.028$; $p < 0.05$; Egoistic motivation: $\beta = 0.375$; $t = 5.639$; $p < 0.05$; Enhancement motivation: $\beta = 0.482$; $t = 7.693$; $p < 0.05$; Guilt-related motivation: $\beta = 0.380$; $t = 5.757$; $p < 0.05$). In other words, the relationship between the variable i.e. altruistic motivation and purchase intention of cause-related marketing products are positively correlated, meaning that when altruistic motivation increases, so do purchase intention. The same goes for the other variables. The effect sizes presented in table 10 demonstrated quite different results where altruistic motivation had the greatest effect size of 33.9 percent while egoistic motivation had the lowest of only 14 percent. So in other words, 33.9 percent of purchase intentions of cause-related marketing products were explained by altruistic motivations, and only 14 percent were related to egoistic motivation.

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between altruistic motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause - **Supported**

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive relationship between egoistic motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause - **Supported**

Hypothesis 5: There is a positive relationship between enhancement motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause - **Supported**

Hypothesis 6: There is a positive relationship between guilt-related motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause - **Supported**

In addition, all correlation coefficients appeared to be greater than 0.3, which not only confirmed the moderate relationship between the different motivational factors and purchase intention but also indicated a positive direction of the relationship.

Table 10: Pearson and Effect Size

	Simple Linear Regression	
	Pearson (R)	**R^2**
Social motivation	.450**	.203
Trust in the company	.522**	.273
Altruistic motivation	.582**	.339
Egoistic motivation	.374**	.140
Enhancement motivation	.482**	.232
Guilt-related motivation	.380**	.145

Dependent Variable: Purchase Intention
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed)

4.5 Robustness Check

Lastly, we wanted to see if differences between gender existed, and we could deduce that women had higher mean values of five out of seven constructs, whereas men had higher mean values of social motivation and egoistic motivation. Closer inspection of the table shows that for the constructs where men have a higher mean value, women have slightly similar values. However, for the constructs where women have higher mean value, men have significantly lower values, thus, the difference here is larger.

Table 11: Variable Construct Frequency Comparisons - Total and Divided by Gender

Variable	Total Sample		Female		Male	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Social motivation	3.26	1.13	3.25	1.11	3.28	1.17
Trust in the company	3.68	0.63	3.74	0.55	3.59	0.73
Altruistic motivation	5.49	1.31	5.65	1.19	5.26	1.45
Egoistic motivation	3.71	2.01	3.69	1.98	3.73	2.08
Enhancement motivation	4.45	1.71	4.61	1.63	4.22	1.80
Guilt-related motivation	3.14	1.27	3.20	1.24	3.04	1.33
Purchase intention	4.14	0.90	4.22	0.82	4.01	1.00

4.6 Summary of the Results

An overview of the results is presented below. Based on these results, we could conclude that all hypotheses were supported and that all motivational factors were positively correlated to the purchase intention of cause-related marketing products. However, the effect size was quite weak for all of the motivations, whereas the strength of the relationship between each variable and purchase intention was moderate. Table 12 displays a summary of the hypotheses tests.

Table 12: Summary of the Hypotheses Tests

Hypotheses		Results
H1	There is a positive relationship between social motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause There is a positive relationship between trust in the company and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause	Supported

H2	There is a positive relationship between trust in the company and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause	Supported
H3	There is a positive relationship between altruistic motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause	Supported
H4	There is a positive relationship between egoistic motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause	Supported
H5	There is a positive relationship between enhancement motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause	Supported
H6	There is a positive relationship between guilt-related motivation and purchase intention of food products related to a social cause	Supported

5. Discussion

This chapter will provide the reader with an in-depth discussion about the findings in this thesis. Previous literature and studies highlighted in chapter two will be used to analyze the results, and identify similarities and differences, hence, how this paper fills potential research gaps. Additionally, this chapter will present the main theoretical implications for the two research streams, practical implications as well as potential limitations and suggestions for future research.

The main findings of this thesis showed satisfactory results for consumers' intentions to purchase cause-related marketing products. The outcomes of Cronbach's Alpha analysis as well as the hypotheses tested with correlation and regression were pleasant. The first hypothesis referring to social motivation was supported. Moreover, the relationship between social motivation and purchase intentions of food products related to a social cause was positive. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient for social motivation indicated a value of 0.437, thus, a positive yet moderate relationship. Furthermore, the R^2 for social motivation indicated a low effect size, whereas 20.3 percent of purchase intentions of food products related to a cause was explained by social motivation. These results correspond with other studies of social motivations which show for instance that meeting the expectations of other people influences one's motivation to engage in charity (Radley & Kennedy, 1995; Callero, Howard & Piliavin 1987). Moreover, previous studies have also shown that peer reference groups such as family and friends have a great impact in making individuals believe that they are violating social norms by not giving to charity (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Radley & Kennedy, 1995; Elster, 2006; Childers & Rao, 1992). Thus, as the results indicate, it is possible that Swedish consumers' were affected by peer pressure to play a part in their intentions to purchase cause-related marketing products.

The second hypothesis related to trust in the company was also supported. The correlation between an individual's trust in the company and the purchase intentions for cause-related marketing products was positive. Moreover, the Spearman's rank correlation coefficient indicated a value of 0.496, thus, a moderate relationship. The R^2 for trust in the company indicated just as for social motivation, a low effect size with a value of 0.273, indicating that 27.3 percent of purchase intentions of food products related to a cause was explained by trust in the company. The significant results for trust in the company has previously been acknowledged by various researchers within this field. Lafferty, Goldsmith & Newell (2002) argue that brand trust is vital for consumers' to decide to purchase a certain product, and various authors believe this factor to be one of the key motivational factors behind charitable giving (Van Iwaarden et al., 2009; Ranganathan & Sen, 2012). When consumers' trust a brand, it is more likely that they will hinder themselves from negative evaluations of that particular brand (Godfrey, 2005), and perceive their actions towards social responsibility to be accurate (Torres et al., 2012). That said, trust in the company is highly crucial to consider when implementing cause-related marketing, as it contributes towards increasing consumers' purchase intentions.

Moving forward to the third hypothesis, concerning altruistic motivation, which also showed significant results. These results were expected, considering that previous literature has highlighted that one reason why people donates to charity is that they have abilities to ignore potential benefits of donating, resulting in a truly unselfish act (Andreoni, 1990; Clary & Snyder, 1995; Bennett, 2003; Harbaugh, Mayr & Burghart, 2007; Deb, Gazzale & Kotchen, 2014). Moreover, altruistic behaviour also refers to the act of donating being perceived as enlightening for the donor (Keim, 1978), and that by sacrificing something, one will experience hedonic feelings and perceived personal growth (Cialdini, Darby & Vincent, 1973). The Spearman's rank correlation coefficient indicated a value of 0.522 for altruistic motivation, and the R^2 indicated a value of 0.339. Thus, these values indicated a positive relationship between altruistic motivation and purchase intentions for cause-related products. These scores were also the strongest of all factors included in the study, indicating that altruistic motivation had the strongest effect on purchase intentions. Additionally, the effect size for purchase intentions, which was between low and moderate, indicated that 33.9 percent of purchase intentions for cause-related marketing products was explained by altruistic motivation. This score was also the highest among the other factors in the study. These results could indicate that empathic thinking and feelings of selflessness play the most vital part for Swedish consumers' when considering adhering to some kind of charitable behaviour.

Hypothesis four, which investigated if enhancement motivation was positively correlated to purchase intentions for cause-related marketing products, was supported. In contrast to altruistic motivation, the other construct within development motivation, enhancement motivation had not as high correlation nor effect size. The Spearman's rank correlation coefficient for enhancement motivation was 0.517, indicating a moderately strong relationship. Whereas for $R^{2,}$, which showed a score of 0.232, indicated that 23.2 percent of purchase intention was explained by enhancement motivation. Previous research has highlighted that individuals are likely to engage in charitable giving when they are confident that the outcomes are related to enhanced feelings of doing something good (Chaudhuri, Mazumdar & Ghoshal, 2011; Wallace, Buil & de Chernatony, 2017), and to enhance positive strings of the ego (Clary & Snyder, 1999) such as increased self-esteem (Jenner, 1982). Moreover, when individuals perceive their contributions as meaningful, they experience a feeling of self-worth and competence (Anderson & Moore, 1978). Likewise, engaging in charity has proved to contribute to feelings of belongingness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), given the fact that people seek to fulfill beliefs and values that are shared with other people (Crocker & Wolfe, 2001; Pyszczynski, Greenberg & Solomon, 1997). That said, Swedish consumers' might be influenced by for instance enhanced feelings of personal development, self-worth and belongingness when they decide whether they would like to purchase a product that is bundled with a charitable cause.

Hypothesis number five, egoistic motivation was supported. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient showed a correlation of 0.321 indicating a positive, yet, a rather weak relationship. Moreover, the R^2 implied that 14 percent of purchase intentions for cause-related marketing was explained by egoistic motivations. In contrast to hypothesis three, the respondents in this study seemed to be more driven by selflessness than by self-fulfilling acting. This corresponds with Yamamura, Tsutsui and Ohtake (2017) who believe that as individuals start to seek tangible rewards from donating to charity, they are likely to shift from being purely altruistic towards more selfish. Moreover, egoistic motivation can be explained by individuals' persuasion for rewards as they contribute to a charitable cause. These rewards could among others be improvements in personal welfare (Batson, Ahmad, Tsang, 2002; Bendapudi et al., 1996; Kim et al., 2011; Kottasz, 2004), and increased social recognition and prestige (Paswan & Troy (2004). On the other hand, as the results for egoistic motivation indicated rather weak relationships, one could argue that Swedish consumers' are less concerned about self-fulfilling factors when purchasing cause-related marketing products.

Lastly, hypothesis six which related to whether purchase intentions for cause-related marketing products was positively affected by guilt-related motivations, was supported. Similar to hypothesis five, regarding egoistic motivation, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient indicated a slightly lower, yet, positive score of 0.367 while the R^2 reached a level of 0.145. Thus, purchase intentions for cause-related marketing products were only explained by 14.5 percent by guilt-related motivation. As previous literature has emphasized, feelings of guilt in relation to charitable giving arise from perceived wrongdoing (Tracy & Robins, 2007; Zimmermann, et al., 2011), and a feeling of violating moral standards (Mosher, 1980, Kugler & Jones, 1992). Moreover, as the results in this study indicated a rather weak relationship, one could interpret it as if the respondents did not consider these factors to a large extent. Moreover, as noted by Chang (2014) when people experience a negative state of emotions, such as guilt, they seek to reduce those feelings by doing something good. Thus, "good" could refer to purchasing cause-related marketing products. On the other hand, the results of this study did not correspond with some parts of previous research. For instance, authors such as Smith and McSweeney (2007) and De Luca, Ferreira & Botelho (2016) believe that acknowledging a negative state of emotions is more positively influenced by engagement in charity in comparison with positive feelings such as empathy. As the results indicated, the motivational factor of altruism indicated higher scores for purchase intentions than guilt-related motivation, nonetheless, the highest of all factors. On the contrary, the results for guilt-related motivation show the opposite.

5.1 Theoretical Implications

Cause-related Marketing

By examining the purchase intention phenomenon through the food industry, a novel perspective upon what motivates consumers' to purchase cause-related marketing products has emerged.

Hence, this thesis aims to contribute to and build upon research carried out in the research streams of cause-related marketing and consumer behaviour. Three main theoretical implications for the research stream of cause-related marketing were found. Firstly, the research carried out in this paper expands the knowledge of motivational factors that influence people to donate to charity. To the authors' knowledge, current literature has mostly focused on motivational factors to donation but left out the phenomenon of purchase intentions for products that are related to a designated cause. Thus, this area of research is limited. This study has succeeded to contribute by showing that motivational factors for donating to charity could be further applied to new contexts; purchase intentions for cause-related marketing-products. Furthermore, it was found that all motivational factors under examination were positively correlated with purchase intentions for cause-related marketing products, thus, this demonstrates a contribution to the current field of research.

Secondly, previous authors have highlighted that individuals are motivated by various factors when it comes to donating money to charities. Specifically, these motivational factors have been distinguished between benefitting an external audience versus benefitting the individual in question donating (Bock, Eastman & Eastman, 2018; Bodner & Prelec, 2003; Konrath & Handy, 2018; White & Peloza, 2009). By extending the framework cultivated by Konrath and Handy (2018), this thesis has successfully shown that factors of similar nature affect purchase intentions for cause-related marketing products. Moreover, the authors of this thesis believe that previous categorisation of motivational factors are better designated to be entitled internal and external factors, referring to if the factors stem from the consumers' outside or inside environment. Thus, this thesis has contributed to this area of research by adding a holistic structure with a different scope, and showing that motivations for donating to charity could be applied in new contexts.

Thirdly, various authors have stressed that the central element in cause-related marketing refers to the for-profit corporation and the cause mutually benefitting from the partnership (File & Prince, 1998; Adkins, 1999; Pringle & Thompson, 1999; Papasolomou & Kitchen, 2011). Thus, the concept of cause-related marketing is two-fold. This means that the primarily objectives of cause-related marketing are to improve the performance for the company, while simultaneously supporting the cause (Ross, Stutts & Patterson, 1991; Varadarajan & Menon, 1988; Yang & Yen, 2018). However, this thesis has contemplated cause-related marketing from the perspective of consumers' purchase intentions. Therefore, within the phenomenon of purchase intention, the authors suggest that the perception of cause-related marketing should be shifted from two-fold to three-fold; whereas the consumer is the third part involved in the partnership. To further illustrate for the reader what this means, the authors suggest an establishment of a theoretical framework (figure 5). Previous literature has presented the exchange of direct benefits between the for-profit company and the NPO. The company provides resources in terms of money and receives an enhanced corporate reputation as an exchange (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Drumwright, 1994; Meyer, 1999). Moreover, the NPO receives resources aimed for the cause, and allows the company to be tied to the cause, enhancing a positive corporate image (Webb & Mohr, 1998). Hence, there is a gap in the literature concerning the consumer's role within cause-related marketing. Therefore, the authors of this paper suggest that the consumer is the starting point of the process. Firstly, the consumer is influenced by for instance guilt-related motivation to purchase a product bundled with a philanthropic act. The consumer provides a direct benefit to the company in terms of monetary resources whilst purchasing a product. In turn, the company donates a part of its profit of that particular product to the NPO, which directly benefits the cause. The NPO directly benefits the company by enhancing corporate image and reputation, whereas the company provides a direct benefit for the consumer; the product. Additionally, the consumer provides the NPO (the cause) with indirect benefits in terms of money and receives indirect benefits back; a positive feeling which cultivates from providing aid to the cause, thus, reducing the negative emotions of guilt.

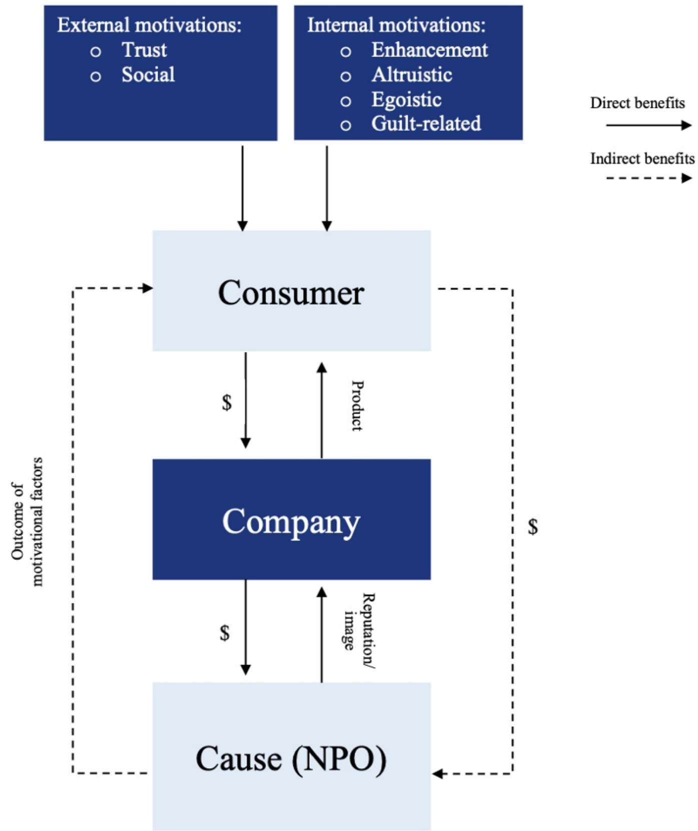

Figure 5: New Theoretical Framework

Consumer Behaviour

Three main theoretical implications for the research stream of consumer behaviour were found, referring to the importance of understanding consumers' motivations to purchase, and that the phenomenon of consumer-behavior can be portrayed from a cause-related marketing point of view. Firstly, Solomon, Bammossy and Askegaard (1999) stressed that to satisfy consumers' desires, companies must invest time and resources to understand how consumers' act and resonate about consumption. The research carried out in this thesis has indeed proved that by examining motivational factors towards donating money to charity, an understanding for purchase intentions for products bundled with a cause was established. Hence, by understanding purchase intentions, one will understand consumers' conscious plan to perform a specified behaviour in the future (Warshaw & Davis, 1985).

Various authors believe that the act of acquiring or obtaining a good is vital for the conceptualization of purchase intentions (Jacoby, 1976; Engel, Blackwell & Miniard, 1986; Blackwell et al., 1999). Furthermore, previous literature have stressed that cause-related marketing is an effective marketing strategy (Smith & Alcorn, 1991) which prompts consumers' purchase intentions (Lafferty & Edmondson, 2009; Olsen, Pracejus & Brown, 2003; Berger, Cunningham & Kozinets, 1999; Yechiam et al, 2003). The results carried out in this thesis support this relationship, and further contributes to this area of research by highlighting a handful of motivational factors which positively affect this correlation. Hence, there is a gap in the literature concerning what was underlying purchase intentions for cause-related marketing, and the results of this thesis partially fill this gap.

Secondly, the findings in this thesis show that the motivational factors with the highest correlation with purchase intentions were development factors, including altruistic and enhancement motivation. Thus, the authors suggest that consumers' are influenced to purchase cause-related marketing products because they seek to gain rewards in terms of for instance internal development, personal growth and self-esteem. Furthermore, considering that these factors were the ones with the highest correlation, it seems that consumers' intend to purchase a cause-related marketing product because they are more benevolent than selfish in nature.

Thirdly, part of the research stream of consumer behaviour, are processes that affect consumer choice, such as the SOR process (Bagozzi, 1983). The authors of this thesis believe it is particularly interesting to highlight the external factors in stimulus and affective processes in the organism. The external factors include among others a company's advertising, whereas affective processes include among others arousal and motivations (Bagozzi, 1983). Indeed, various authors have characterized cause-related marketing as a marketing activity and promotional strategy with a specific message; to sell a product that is bundled with a particular cause (Beise-Zee, 2013; Van den Brink, Odekerken-Schröder & Pauwels, 2006; Larson, et al., 2008). Considering that external factors in the SOR process include among other companies advertising activities, one could construe it from a cause-related marketing point of view. Furthermore, the motivational factors used in this research could be reinterpreted as being part of the affective processes in the organism. Thus, the authors suggest cause-related marketing to be an external factor in the stimulus, which affects consumers' choice. Moreover, the motivational factors are an individuals' internal processes to regulate choice. Lastly, an outcome of stimuli and organism is consumers’ purchase intentions of cause-related marketing products, referring to the response in the SOR-process. In brief, this thesis contributes to the research stream of consumer behaviour by suggesting that the SOR-process by Bagozzi (1983) could be interpreted from a cause-related marketing point of view.

Besides the SOR-process, the authors of this thesis believe the concept of WOM to play a noteworthy part within the context of cause-related marketing. Except for stimulus stemming from a company's advertising activities, WOM has been highlighted by previous literature to be a trustworthy source of information (Le, Dobele & Robinson, 2018; Sweeney, Soutar & Mazzarol, 2008; Hovland, Janis & Kelley, 1953). Furthermore, WOM is believed to be particularly influential due to its non-commercial nature (Goldsmith & Horowitz, 2006; Mangold, 1987) and a voluntary kind of extra-role behaviour (Groth, 2005). That said, if a consumer is influenced by WOM, it is possible that it will have just as a positive effect as other kinds of stimulus on the intention to purchase a product bundled with a designated cause. Moreover, cause-related marketing is generally perceived as something positive (Brown & Dacin, 1997), and previous research has highlighted that people are more willing to convey positive opinions to others when they perceive a company to do good (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004). Thus, the authors of this thesis believe that WOM should be perceived as positively endorsing purchase intentions for cause-related marketing products.

5.2 Practical Implications

In addition to theoretical implications, this thesis provides various practical implications. Firstly, since all hypotheses were supported, it indicates that all motivational factors examined in this research positively affects purchase intentions for cause-related marketing products. In the authors opinion, these insights could be of great value for managers, marketers and companies currently undertaking or aiming to undertake cause-related marketing activities. This is because individuals are influenced by various motives, and even though the factors highlighted in this thesis only refers to a handful, they indicate how consumers' resonate about purchase intentions for products related to a charity cause. Secondly, by being aware of consumers' motivations to purchase cause-related marketing products, the authors believe that practitioners could develop more efficient promotions and campaigns within this context, which could enhance better shopping experiences. Furthermore, it could lead to increased salers given that companies become aware of what prompts consumers' to purchase certain goods.

Thirdly, the authors believe that practitioners who consider implementing cause-related marketing should be aware of the two sides of the coin of this concept. It could include high risks if not done properly, such as a damaged reputation, but also high rewards if done correctly, such as strong stakeholder relationships, enhanced corporate image, and competitive advantage. Therefore, it is of utmost importance to understand what motivates people to purchase cause-related marketing products, in order to use the concept to its full potential, and form successful campaigns. As for Swedish consumers', these factors are social motivation, trust in the company, altruistic motivation, egoistic motivation, enhancement motivation and guilt-related motivation.

5.3 Limitations and Future Research

The following sections present the limitations of this thesis. The aim of presenting limitations is not to refute the research but rather to present valuable lessons as a result of the study's completion. In addition, the purpose of this section is to present constructive criticism of the research being conducted, which could lead to improved studies being conducted in the future by other researchers.

Sampling method

The first limitation was the sampling method chosen for this thesis. As previously mentioned, the sample of 198 respondents was obtained through a non-probability, convenience sampling, whereas the survey was posted on pages where there was a strong likelihood of targeting the respondents. Moreover, another criterion for the sample concerned identifying respondents of age 18 and above, who lived or have previously lived in Sweden. Due to time constraints, the authors of this thesis believed convenience sampling to be the most effective way to obtain the desired sample size, whilst also meaning that the authors were unable to determine sampling error (Burns & Burns, 2008). Furthermore, this lead to a limitation concerning fewer abilities to generalise the results to the entire Swedish population or other contexts (Burns & Burns, 2008; Easterby-Smith, 2018).

Moreover, considering that the age span for this study concerned people between 18-50, differences in demographics might have an impact on the results. For instance, the authors of this thesis noticed that a greater proportion of the respondents were women between 18-30 years old, who currently studied or had completed a higher level of education, and had a monthly net income of 10.001 - 20.000 SEK. These results could be a consequence of the chosen sampling method. Thus, the authors suggest that this study could be made more generalizable to different populations and contexts in the future by using a probability sampling method and a larger sample size.

Time and budget constraints

As highlighted in the previous section, this thesis was limited due to time and budget. If more time had been given, it would probably have been possible to conduct a study using probability sampling, and a larger sample size could have been obtained. Additionally, more time could also allow for including qualitative interviews which could have provided an in-depth understanding of the respondents' reasoning. Furthermore, with a greater budget, it might allow for offering respondents a small reward or gift to show our appreciation for their participation, which could have prompted them to answer more honestly or spread the survey through WOM. A greater budget could also open up for using specialised statistics software such as Qualtrics, which could have increased the flexibility of the study and provide an improved visual design of the survey (Qualtrics, 2020)

Industry selection

This thesis focuses on purchase intention for food products bundled with a designated cause, therefore, the findings and results might not be relatable to other industries, for example, the fashion industry. As mentioned in the introduction of this thesis, the food industry is characterized by mass production and industrialization (Manning, Baines & Chadd, 2006; Roth et al., 2008; Trienekens et al., 2012), and consumers' are becoming increasingly aware of negative consequences stemming from food production (Cross et al., 2009; Trienekens et al., 2012). Thus, the threshold for consumers' perceptions of food companies doing good and bad is low. That said, the risks of consumers' switching brands and products easily are high, and companies must invest extensive resources in sustaining their positive reputation and image. Moreover, the food industry is a sector that (almost) all people in the world are dependent on and affected by. This is mainly due to humans' fundamental physiological needs, and the fact that food consumption by individuals constitutes for 15 to 40 percent of environmental impacts (Seppälä et al., 2011). Consequently, people have emotional bonds to different extents with the food industry. Therefore, using the food industry as an example in this research could have been a limitation due to people's previous experiences and attitudes. Hence, the authors of this thesis believe that other authors should be aware of these insights, and suggest that future research could be conducted in other industries which are less volatile.

Items for measuring motivational factors

As mentioned in previous chapters of this thesis, the items in the questionnaire which were used for measuring the motivational factors were drawn from work conducted by previous researchers. Moreover, the authors experienced that some items were slightly harder to interpret than others, and this could also have been the case for the respondents. Hence, the authors experienced slight inflexibility with the items, as they could not be revised or reformulated to a great extent. Thus, suggestions for future research concerns formulating new items when examining similar research as this thesis, since it allows for more flexibility in formulations and interpretations.

Lastly, this thesis has examined purchase intentions, which differs from actual purchase behaviour. Hence, it is suggested that future research upon similar contexts could examine the relationship between cause-related marketing and purchase behaviour. This could allow for highlighting more concrete findings within the stream of consumer behaviour, and cause-related marketing.

6. Conclusion

This thesis has drawn upon six motivational factors that hypothetically could influence purchase intentions for food products bundled with a charitable cause. By studying previous literature and research conducted within the field of cause-related marketing, the authors of this thesis identified a clear gap. The research gap concerned the limited research carried out for the combination of cause-related marketing, purchase intentions, consumers' motivations to engage in charitable giving, and food products as an exemplified context. Thus, this lead to the formulation of the following research question:

"What motivates consumers' to purchase food products that are marketed through a cause-related marketing campaign?"

By collecting data from 198 Swedish consumers', and using correlation and regression as the chosen methods for data analysis, the findings of the research carried out in this thesis indicated satisfactory results for answering the research question. The motivational factors referred to social motivation, trust in the company, altruistic motivation, egoistic motivation, enhancement motivation, and guilt-related motivation were all positively correlated with purchase intentions for cause-related marketing products. Despite all correlations between motivational factors and purchase intentions being moderate or weak, the direction of the relationship indicates a positive relationship. Thus, this thesis has successfully fulfilled its purpose.

Moreover, building upon the findings, this thesis has successfully contributed to the research streams of cause-related marketing and consumer behaviour. This has been achieved by clearly presenting results that add to previous researchers' work, and merges knowledge withdrawn from both streams to develop a holistic approach towards cause-related marketing. This thesis contributes to the research stream of cause-related marketing by presenting that motivational factors that influence individuals to donate money to charity, could be applied to new contexts. This thesis has extended previous researchers' conceptual frameworks, referring to either the self or others benefiting from charity donations. By integrating the fundamental idea of the existence of different audiences, this thesis builds upon previous research by proposing that influences for purchasing cause-related marketing products either stem from an individual's external or internal environment. Furthermore, this thesis contributes to existing knowledge of cause-related marketing by proposing a theoretical framework that suggests that cause-related marketing should be perceived as three-fold, and not two-fold. This means that the consumer is the extended element taking part in the interchange of the direct and indirect benefits that cause-related marketing concerns.

Next, the findings reported in this paper have shed new light on the research stream of consumer behaviour. Various authors within this context have stressed the importance of companies to understand how consumers' function. By succeeding with showing that the six motivational factors examined in this paper were significant to influence purchase intentions, the authors believe to have partially filled a gap concerning how consumers' resonate concerning cause-related marketing. Furthermore, to strengthen this contribution even more, the authors found that altruistic motivation was the factor with the highest correlation with purchase intentions. Thus, this finding suggests that consumers' are more philanthropic than selfish, and are motivated by attaining feelings of self-esteem and personal growth. Lastly, this study adds to the growing body of research by suggesting that concepts such as WOM and the SOR-process could be extended by adding cause-related marketing as a layer. Thus, consumers' could be further influenced by personal recommendations, external stimuli and affective processes to purchase products that are bundled with a designated cause

Lastly, the authors of this thesis believe that the research carried out provides a solid base, and addresses proper prerequisites for future researchers in order to build on the knowledge that has been discovered. Thus, there is room to further elaborate on for instance the effect of cause-related marketing on actual purchase decisions, possible incorporation of a qualitative research approach to gain in-depth insights into consumers' reasoning, and alternatives on other contexts and sectors to operate within.

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Appendix

Dear respondent,

Thank you for your participation in this survey.

Our names are Anja Wallén and Sigrid Green Salmonson. We are two master students from Lund University School of Economics and Management writing our master thesis within the area of International Marketing and Brand Management.

The aim of this study is to get insights into consumers' perceptions of cause-related marketing in relation to food products. Cause-related marketing is an activity in which a company donates a part of the profit to a specific charity-cause for each sold product or service. The survey will take approximately five to ten minutes. This study is directed towards people aged 18 and above, who are currently living in Sweden or have lived in Sweden before. In case you do not fulfill these requirements, we kindly ask you to end this survey.

Your responses will be treated with confidentiality and your anonymity is ensured. The data in this survey will not be used for other purposes than this thesis. If you have any further questions do not hesitate to reach out to us by clicking on our names at the end of each page.

Thank you in advance!

Best Regards,

Anja Wallén and Sigrid Green Salmonson

1. Have you ever lived in Sweden?

If your answer is "No", you do not need to answer this questionnaire

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No

2. What is your gender?

- ◯ Female
- ◯ Male
- ◯ Would rather not say

3. How old are you?

- ◯ younger than 18 years old
- ◯ 18 to 30 years old
- ◯ 31 to 40 years old
- ◯ 41 to 50 years old
- ◯ 51 to 60 years old
- ◯ 61 to 70 years old
- ◯ 71 to 80 years old
- ◯ 81 to 90 years old
- ◯ Above 90 years old
- ◯ Would rather not say

4. What is the highest level of education you have completed (or are currently studying)?

- ◯ Middle school
- ◯ High school
- ◯ Bachelor level
- ◯ Master level or higher
- ◯ Would rather not say

5. What is your monthly net income?

Net income is defined as your total income after tax and social security deductions.

- ◯ I do not have a personal income
- ◯ less than 10 000 kr
- ◯ 10 000 kr – 20 000 kr
- ◯ 20 001 kr – 30 000 kr
- ◯ 30 001 kr – 40 000 kr
- ◯ 40 001 kr – 50 000 kr
- ◯ 50 001 kr – 60 000 kr
- ◯ 60 001 kr – 70 000 kr
- ◯ 70 001 kr or more
- ◯ Would rather not say

6. How much do you agree with the following statements?

Other people I am close with place a high value on donating to charities	Strongly disagree	◯ ◯ ◯ ◯ ◯	Strongly agree
People I know share an interest in financially supporting charitable organizations	Strongly disagree	◯ ◯ ◯ ◯ ◯	Strongly agree
My friends donate to charities	Strongly disagree	◯ ◯ ◯ ◯ ◯	Strongly agree
Donating to charities is an important activity to the people I know best	Strongly disagree	◯ ◯ ◯ ◯ ◯	Strongly agree
People I am close to want me to make charitable donations	Strongly disagree	◯ ◯ ◯ ◯ ◯	Strongly agree

7. How much do you agree with the following statements?

Note: Please read the questions carefully and be aware of the formulations

Charities do a good thing for the community	Strongly disagree	◯ ◯ ◯ ◯ ◯	Strongly agree
Charity organizations perform a useful function for society	Strongly disagree	◯ ◯ ◯ ◯ ◯	Strongly agree
The money given to charities goes to good causes	Strongly disagree	◯ ◯ ◯ ◯ ◯	Strongly agree
My image of charitable organizations is positive	Strongly disagree	◯ ◯ ◯ ◯ ◯	Strongly agree
Much of the money donated to charities is wasted	Strongly disagree	◯ ◯ ◯ ◯ ◯	Strongly agree
I donate to charities to receive informative publications	Strongly disagree	◯ ◯ ◯ ◯ ◯	Strongly agree
Charitable organizations have been quite successful in helping the needy	Strongly disagree	◯ ◯ ◯ ◯ ◯	Strongly agree
Many charitable organizations are dishonest	Strongly disagree	◯ ◯ ◯ ◯ ◯	Strongly agree

8. How much do you agree with the following statements?

I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate
I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am supporting	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate
I feel compassion towards people in need	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate
I feel it is important to help others	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate
I can do something for a cause that is important to me	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate

9. How much do you agree with the following statements?

No matter how bad I have been feeling, donating helps me to forget about it	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate
By donating I feel less lonely	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate
Donating relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate
Donating helps me work through my own personal problems	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate
Donating is a good escape from my own troubles	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate

10. How much do you agree with the following statements?

Donating makes me feel important	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate
Donating increases my self-esteem	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate
Donating makes me feel needed	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate
Donating makes me feel better about myself	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate
Donating is a way to make new friends	Not at all accurate	○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Extremely accurate

11. How much do you agree with the following statements?

I often give to charities because I would feel guilty if I did not	Strongly disagree	○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Strongly agree
If I never gave to charities I would feel bad about myself	Strongly disagree	○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Strongly agree
Guilt often motivates me to give to charity	Strongly disagree	○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Strongly agree
I donate to charity because not helping others who are in need makes me feel bad	Strongly disagree	○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Strongly agree
Donating to charities enables me to seek repentance and forgiveness for my sins	Strongly disagree	○ ○ ○ ○ ○	Strongly agree

12. The following statements will ask about your purchase intentions regarding food products

How much do you agree with the following statements?

I am unlikely to make a purchase of food products where the company behind the product donates money to a cause. For example, coffee brands that allocate a percentage of their profits to deforestation	○	○	○	○	○	I am likely to make a purchase of food products where the company behind the product donates money to a cause. For example, coffee brands that allocate a percentage of their profits to deforestation
I would not like to have more information about food products where the company behind the product donates money to a cause. For example, coffee brands that allocate a percentage of their profits to deforestation	○	○	○	○	○	I would like to have more information about food products where the company behind the product donates money to a cause. For example, coffee brands that allocate a percentage of their profits to deforestation
I am not interested in food products where the company behind the product donates money to a cause. For example, coffee brands that allocate a percentage of their profits to deforestation	○	○	○	○	○	I am interested in food products where the company behind the product donates money to a cause. For example, coffee brands that allocate a percentage of their profits to deforestation

Hereby I confirm that I have understood what this survey is about and that the data I have given will be used only for the purpose of this thesis

○ Yes

Appendix 2

Mean value/maximum statistic to get the adjusted value so we could compare the different means since they were measured on different scales.

Variable	Mean value			Maximum statistic	Adjusted value		
	Total	Female	Male	Total	Total	Female	Male
Social motivation	3.26	3.25	3.28	5.00	65.20	65.00	65.60
Trust in the company	3.68	3.74	3.59	5.00	73.60	74.80	71.80
Altruistic motivation	5.49	5.65	5.26	7.00	78.43	80.71	75.14
Egoistic motivation	3.71	3.69	3.73	7.00	53.00	52.71	53.29
Enhancement motivation	4.45	4.61	4.22	7.00	63.57	65.86	60.29
Guilt-related motivation	3.14	3.20	3.04	5.00	62.80	64.00	60.80
Purchase intention	4.14	4.22	4.01	5.00	82.80	84.40	80.20