NONPROFIT ADVERTISING AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTION: THE EFFECTS OF PERSUASIVE MESSAGES ON DONATIONS AND VOLUNTEERISM

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Nonprofit organizations are dependent on donations and volunteers to remain operational. Most rely on persuasive communications to inform, educate, and convince recipients of their messaging to respond in order to raise funds and generate volunteers. Though the marketing and psychology literature has examined charitable giving and volunteerism, the effectiveness of persuasive messages to affect philanthropy, gift-giving, and fundraising is a gap in the cause marketing literature (Dann et al. 2007).

Because consumers rarely enter a situation without preexisting attitudes or beliefs, it is expected that individuals exposed to an advertisement by a nonprofit organization will look for ways to compare the messages within the ad to their own beliefs and attitudes. Two theories help explain the processing that takes place in relation to attitudes, beliefs, and persuasive communications – elaboration likelihood model (ELM) and the theory of planned behavior (TPB). The research presented here combines these theories to answer questions regarding behavioral intention related to donating and volunteering when individuals are exposed to certain persuasive messages from a nonprofit organization.

Results show that one's involvement with the advertisement combines with one's attitude toward donating to help determine propensity to donate and the amount of the donation. However, this is dependent upon the message in the ad. When messages indicate that others are supportive of the cause, donations increase when one is more involved with the ad and is generally agreeable to donating. But these messages have the opposite effect when one is not involved with the ad – donations decrease when the message indicates others support the cause. And when messages indicate that even a minimal donation is possible, the attitude driver has no

effect on donation behavior. However, when involvement is low, one's age plays a role in driving individuals toward action, with older people more driven to give when exposed to supportive messages under low involvement conditions than younger groups.

For individuals who tend to rely on referents for their own actions, differing messages in advertisements have little effect whether they are involved with the ad or not. That is, in most cases, only their involvement with the ad seems to be the real indicator of behavior. That said, the message that indicates that minimum giving is acceptable seems to affect donations, as individuals more prone to seek referent input rely on this message to help direct behavior, but not volunteerism. But, the cues were more readily adopted by those who were not highly involved.

This research contributes to the field of cause marketing in several ways. First, it exposed involvement with the advertisement as the primary driver for behavioral intention in a nonprofit context over one's preexisting attitudes and beliefs. Second, it identified varying response patterns that individuals have to specific advertising messages based on their level of involvement and strength of those beliefs and attitudes. Third, it augmented the integrated ELM-TPB theoretical model by demonstrating that attitude toward the ad can play a role in consumer decision making. Fourth, it identified age as a factor in behavioral intention related to nonprofit organizations in two specific instances: 1) when attitude and involvement combine for older individuals exposed to normative messages, and 2) when subjective norms and involvement combine for younger individuals exposed to messages that legitimize minimal effort. And fifth, it uncovered implications for managers to develop strategic messages that can increase target audience involvement and positively affect donations and volunteerism.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Nonprofit organizations make up a substantial part of the United States economy, and thus are a significant component of today's business world. For example, there are more than 1.5 million organizations with nonprofit status in the United States (Internal Revenue Service 2012) that accounted for 5.4% of the Gross Domestic Product in 2009 and 9% of all wages and salaries paid to employees (Wing, Roeger, and Pollak 2011). Nonprofit organizations employ 10.5 million people in the United States, making its workforce the third-largest of all U.S. industries, behind only retail trade and manufacturing (Salaman, Geller, and Mengel 2010).

Charitable contributions totaled more than $290 billion in 2010, an increase of 2.1% over the previous year, with individual giving making up 73% of that total (Giving USA 2011). Individuals may support nonprofit organizations for reasons including social norms, religious convictions, and personal relevance (Kogut and Ritov 2011; Ratner, Zhao, and Clarke 2011). However, the primary reason may simply be to help.

But financial contributions are not the only way Americans are giving to nonprofit organizations. In the U.S. government's fiscal year ending September 2011, volunteer rates rose to 26.8% as 64.3 million people volunteered for a nonprofit organization (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2011). This coincides with a greater acceptance, and perhaps an expectation, of experience in volunteer work in order to be a well-rounded employee. LinkedIn, the online networking site for business professionals, added a field for its members to list their volunteer work following a survey that indicated 41% of employers said they consider volunteer work as important as paid work experience, and 20% said they made hiring decisions based on it (Leland 2011).

Despite the upswing in charitable giving and volunteerism, 46.2 million Americans live below the poverty line, the largest number since the Census Bureau started gathering such data. Median incomes are declining, and government budgets for assistance programs are being cut (Strom 2011). Therefore, it has become even more important for a nonprofit organization (NPO) to implement effective marketing.

The Nonprofit Industry Today

Nonprofit organizations tend to be counter-cyclical in terms of employment when it comes to the state of the economy. When economic times are difficult, as was the case in 2009 and 2010, and the private sector is making payroll reductions, the nonprofit sector typically increases its workforce. For example, according to an April 2010 survey by the Center for Civil Society Studies at the Johns Hopkins Institute for Policy Studies, from October 2009 to March 2010 employment decreased 0.4 percent among the private sector, and 0.1 percent for service firms. At the same time, nonprofit sector employment grew 0.4 percent, (Salaman, Geller, and Mengel 2010). Almost half of the nonprofit organizations that responded to the survey reported no job losses, and some even reported job gains since the economic downturn in 2008 (Salaman, Geller, and Mengel 2010). However, 4 out of 10 nonprofits also said they did not have the staff size required to provide their organization's services or programs (Salaman, Geller, and Mengel 2010), putting a premium on acquiring additional volunteer hours just to keep pace with demands.

NPOs that cannot rely on public (i.e. government) grants are dependent on donations and volunteers to remain operational. Most rely on persuasive messages to inform, educate, and convince recipients of their messaging to raise funds and generate volunteers (Bendapudi, Singh,

and Bendapudi 1996). But the effectiveness of these efforts to affect philanthropy, gift-giving, and fundraising is a gap in the cause marketing literature (Dann et al. 2007). In developing their proposed cause marketing research agenda, the authors were careful to point out that "further research is needed to understand the dimensions of sustainable giving" (Dann et al. 2007, p. 297).

Research has found that individuals want to donate in ways that maximizes welfare, but often experience mental challenges in trying to determine how to accomplish this (Baron and Szymanska 2011). This happens because some donors are not well informed, my overgeneralize the information they've been given, or simply make simplistic decisions based on rules adopted from other situations that may or may not be transferrable. As a result, they often struggle to determine if a donation will be an efficient use of their contribution, and over how much that contribution should be to maximize its efficiency. Therefore, individuals use mental shortcuts to simplify donation decisions (Baron and Szymanska 2011). It makes sense, then, that researchers specializing in human decision making may be in the strongest position to improve our understanding of what makes individuals give to nonprofit organizations (Oppenheimer and Olivola 2011).

Challenges of Conceptualization

Before a thorough discussion of nonprofit marketing can take place, it is important to clarify what one means by that term. Too often, terms such as cause marketing, sustainability, green marketing, cause relation marketing, corporate social responsibility, and social marketing are inadvertently used in place of one or the other that would be a more accurate descriptor. For example, a guest on a nationally broadcast radio program recently said that "cause marketing is

when a corporation or consumer good ties their sales agenda to a charitable organization" (The Diane Rehm Show 2012), a definition more akin to cause related marketing (Kotler and Lee 2005). Therefore, current conceptualizations of each must be agreed upon in order to continue the discussion, and improve the research, on each.

According to the American Marketing Association's 2007 definition of marketing, cause marketing encompasses three applied disciplinary areas within the field of marketing – nonprofit marketing, social marketing, and political marketing (Dann et al. 2007). According to Kotler and Andreasen (2007), nonprofit marketing is the use of marketing techniques to provide service, maintain the existence of the organization, and affect any related behaviors that benefit the organization.

Social marketing, on the other hand, is the use of marketing to effect social change, and has been defined as applying marketing principles and techniques to create, communicate, and distribute value in order to influence behavior that benefits society and the individuals being targeted (Kotler and Lee 2007). First defined by Kotler and Zaltman (1971), social marketing takes the flow of benefit that had gone from the customer to the organization and replaces it with a broader societal gain (Andreasen 2006). The primary difference between nonprofit marketing and social marketing, then, is the provision of service delivery by the former, and the goal of societal gain by the latter.

Social marketing has often been applied to marketing by a firm in a strategy called corporate social marketing, where marking principles and techniques are again applied to foster change in a specific audience segment and improve society, but also build markets for products or services (Kotler and Zaltman 1971; Andreasen 2006). Corporate social marketing (CSM) is also often confused with other corporate social initiatives. These include:

- Cause promotion (also sometimes called cause marketing) – Support of social causes by the firm through paid sponsorships or promotions (Kotler and Lee 2005).

- Cause related marketing – Involves donating a percentage of revenue from the sale of specific items during a specific period (Kotler and Lee 2005). One of the most widely remembered examples of CRM was the campaign American Express implemented to support the refurbishment of the Statue of Liberty in 1983.

- Corporate philanthropy – Typified by a gift of cash or a grant directly to an NPO (Smith 1994). One of the largest gifts ever was $424 million from *Reader's Digest* to the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York. However, charitable giving on the corporate front may be more about legitimization than philanthropy (Chen, Patten, and Roberts 2008).

- Community volunteering – When a firm's employees are encouraged to engage in volunteerism (Kotler and Lee 2005).

- Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) – These include business practices by a firm that are designed to align its conduct with a generally perceived social good (Carroll 1999). Examples include implementing recycling programs and using recycled paper, reducing emissions, reducing packaging, and making changes to cut back on the use of petroleum products.

The difference between these and CSM is that while the others may have a goal of raising money or increasing awareness of a cause, and then indirectly, the corporate brand, CSM's goal is also to change individual behavior (Andreasen 2002).

The final applied discipline within the cause marketing umbrella as defined by the AMA is political marketing. Dann et al. (2007) defined it as trading support for hope in that a voter performs the behavior (i.e. voting for a political candidate) in exchange for the potential outcome

of a certain individual being elected who will deliver on the promises he or she made to the voter during the electoral process. The primary difference between political marketing and the other two cause marketing disciplines is the absence of any certainty that tangible goods or services will be delivered to the consumer (Dann et al. 2007).

Because some have argued that humanity is on the verge of overconsumption (Achrol and Kotler 2012), another marketing discipline that has received considerable attention lately is sustainability marketing. Sustainability marketing is defined as "building and maintaining sustainable relationships with customers, the social environment and the natural environment [by] creating social and ecological value … to deliver and increase customer value," (Belz 2006, p. 139). Also known as sustainable marketing, it begins with product development and ends with product disposal (Achrol and Kotler 2012), with the goal of creating customer value, social value, and ecological value by developing superior products and providing them cost-effectively through effective distribution and promotion to specific target segments (Belz 2006). The differences between traditional marketing and sustainability marketing are the latter integrates the social and environmental aspects into the entire process, and may lead to a reduction in sales growth and market size (Achrol and Kotler 2012).

Sustainable marketing is based on the idea of a shift in focus from the human-centric approach to marketing and society to a natured-centric approach (Achrol and Kotler 2012). The driving force behind sustainable marketing is that consumption levels in society today is at a level too high to allow future generations to have the same level, with possible consequences ranging from the depletion of important resources, ecological ruin, proliferation of environmental pollutants, and mass creation of waste products (Achrol and Kotler 2012). A subset of sustainable marketing, green marketing is defined as marketing activities which attempt

to reduce the negative social and environmental impacts of existing products and production, and promote less environmentally damaging products and services (Peattie 2001). Where sustainable marketing attempts to build and maintain relationships with customers and the environment, green marketing's focus is on the environmental impact of the products and production.

Because this research focuses on nonprofit marketing rather than any of the other related disciplines, the emphasis will be on consumer behavior as it relates to persuasive communications to effect donation and volunteer intention. Therefore, a brief review of behavioral aspects of these two outcomes is warranted.

Marketing of Nonprofit Organizations

Marketers and fundraisers have common goals, namely, to attract new customers and retain old ones (Strahilevitz 2011). Donating is a consumer behavior, and nonprofit organizations can benefit from knowing what affects donor satisfaction. That is why researchers and practitioners need to understand the implications of various underlying processes in order to develop campaigns and programs that translate into long-term behavioral changes (Smith, Haugtvedt, and Petty 1994).

The difference between consumption and donating, however, demonstrates the difficulties that NPOs face. When consumers purchase a product, they have tangible evidence of the transaction. They can choose to use the product or service, and can evaluate their purchase decision. The donation transaction with a NPO is much more subtle because of the intangibility of the exchange, and the difficulty the donor has in evaluating the donation decision (Strahilevitz 2011). Volunteers, of course, have a much more tangible exchange with a nonprofit organization. How, then, can donating to a NPO be similar to a consumption experience? Customer loyalty

strategies such as soliciting feedback, providing updates, and offering value to donors (such as through a participatory fundraising event) have proven to improve donations and long-term donor relationships (Strahilevitz 2011).

For example, research has found that donation decisions depend on the salience of the beneficiary (Cryder and Loewenstein 2011) and that individuals prefer to donate to a single, identified victim rather than to a group of victims (Kogut and Ritnov 2011). Mood has also been examined, with results showing happier people donate more money, and donating makes people happier, with the two functioning in what is described as a continual loop (Anik et al. 2011). However, when NPOs inform potential donors that giving makes people happy, donations do not increase because that type of information acts only as an incentive and therefore effects just short-term giving (Anik et al. 2011). Still playing on emotions in advertising by NPOs is a strategy that has proven successful, as the emotional benefits of prosocial behavior actually increase donations (Anik et al. 2011).

Donations can increase if nonprofits offer donor opportunities to make regular, smaller donations rather than one large donation once – a model that has been implemented effectively by the presidential election campaigns of Barak Obama – a strategy that also effects the relationship between how much a donor gives and how good they feel about donating (Strahilevitz 2011). And in what is known as the time-ask effect, individuals are more responsive to donating money or volunteering if they are first asked to volunteer (Liu 2011). Asking individuals first how much time they would like to donate instead of how much money they would like to give strengthens the organization-donor relationship and increases the amount of money they donate over time (Liu and Aaker 2008).

Volunteering is also a consumer behavior and should be studied as such by marketers (Wei, Donthu and Bernhardt 2012) because it impacts an individual's discretionary time and is a type of symbolic consumption that helps shapes one's values and self-identity (Belk 1988; Reid et al. 2007; Wymer and Samu 2002). Therefore, volunteering is another behavior that nonprofit marketers must attempt to affect through strategic marketing communications.

In addition, nonprofit organizations not only need to persuade individuals to spend their money, time, or both rather than spend it on a consumer goods and leisure activities, but also must persuade individuals to direct their contribution to a specific NPO rather than another one (Strahilevitz 2011). That is why a great deal of time, effort, and money is invested in the creation of public service announcements (Rucker and Petty 2006) and other elements of the marketing mix. Initial efforts to better understand the link between marketing elements and donor or volunteer behavior has been revealing as well as useful.

When it comes to choosing whether to make a donation or not, research found that donors read signs, and the effect of the signs is due to the message on the sign rather than simply the sign's presence (Martin and Randal 2011). However, message differences did not factor into donation amount. The amount people give also is not based on the amount of number of individuals in need nor how efficiently donated funds are spent by the NPO asking for the contribution (Oppenheimer and Olivola 2011). This has led some to wonder whether social norms play a significant role in donation and volunteer behavior.

Croson and Shang (2011) found the size of a potential donation is influenced by the size of a previous contributor's donation, and the impact is affected by the perceived similarities of the donor to the individual who gave just before them. However, the norm of self-interest, in

which people feel it is only important to donate when the cause is of personal interest, keeps some people from giving (Ratner, Zhao, and Clarke 2011).

The Proposed Research

Despite all these findings, there is much more to be learned about consumer behavior in a nonprofit context. Because consumers rarely enter a situation with no preexisting attitudes or beliefs (Mowen and Minor 2006), it is expected that individuals exposed to an advertisement by a nonprofit organization will look for ways to compare the messages within the advertisement to their own beliefs and attitudes. Two theories that help explain the processing that takes place in relation to attitudes, beliefs, and persuasive communications – elaboration likelihood model (ELM) and the theory of planned behavior (TPB) – are well-established foundations for both academic research and practitioner implementation. Rarely have they been joined to explain intention and behavior. When they have, results have been promising for both researchers and managers.

Both theories are applicable to research in nonprofit context because each attempts to explain how beliefs and attitudes can affect behavior. TPB relies on direct measures of attitudes and, when desirable (Ajzen 1991), indirect measures of beliefs to predict behavioral intention, which has been found to be significantly related to behavior. In applying TPB to determine if specific concepts affect behavior, researchers often introduce a treatment, called an intervention in TPB research, in a test-retest methodological approach to explore the effects of the intervention (e.g. a brochure on the benefits of donating to determine if it changes individual's donation behavior). In ELM research, it has been shown that beliefs, attitudes, and behavior can change based on how well an individual's cognitive responses align with a message being

communicated (Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983). Marketers are best served when developing persuasive messages that target beliefs. When consumers process the message, they attempt to match its argument to their existing beliefs, which ultimately helps shape attitudes and, in turn, affect behavior. For NPOs, therefore, applying principals of marketing related to persuasive messages may be able to shape donation and volunteer behavior.

However, ELM (Petty and Cacioppo 1986) and TPB (Ajzen 1991) have not been examined in tandem in an experimental design-based marketing study to explain changes in attitude and behavioral intention through exposure to persuasive messages. Experimental design would allow researchers to isolate and understand factors that lead to giving behavior and make causal attributions about each variable's effect (Oppenheimer and Olivola 2011). To date, research has demonstrated that individuals approach a specific topic with pre-determined beliefs that, when combined with their innate message processing abilities, affect change in behavior. Research in this area has focused on attitudes and beliefs in such topics as affirmative action (White, Charles, and Nelson 2008), organ donation (Bae 2008; Reid and Wood 2008), and e-commerce (Lim and Dubinsky 2005).

Social issues have also been a focus of such research, with studies examining attempts to change attitudes and behavior related to exercise (Boer and Westhoff 2006; Jones et al. 2004; Maddock, Silbanus, and Reger-Nash 2008; Rosen 2000), healthy eating (Chan and Tsang 2011), and transportation options (Beale and Bonsall 2007; Stead et al. 2005). Yet none have examined the effects of advertising by nonprofit organizations to change attitudes and behaviors related to support for the cause. The research being proposed here will investigate such an effect and answer the following questions:

1. How do preexisting attitudes and beliefs toward donating or volunteering affect an individual's attitude toward a nonprofit advertisement?

2. How do preexisting attitudes and beliefs toward donating or volunteering affect an individual's involvement with a nonprofit advertisement?
3. What effects does the interplay between involvement with the advertisement, perceived norms, and preexisting attitudes and beliefs have on intent to donate or volunteer?

This research will examine TPB in the context of nonprofit attitudes and beliefs, and discover how individual process mechanisms related to ELM – central and peripheral routes based on high and low involvement – affect outcome variables that are vital to nonprofit survival, including donation intention, donation amount, donation range, and volunteer intention. Attitude toward the advertisement will also be measured in relation to TPB for the first time.

Managerial and Academic Contributions

Implications for the research include ability to craft advertising messages that increase donations, donation amounts, and volunteerism, and positively affect attitudes toward an NPO's cause and its advertisements. Future research includes various manipulations of the elements within the experiment's design, as well as application to the other disciplines of cause marketing – political marketing and social marketing. Contributions to the literature will be an extension of the integrated ELM-TPB theoretical model to include attitude toward the ad, analysis of attitude toward the behavior and perceived behavioral control as mediating actors on a subjective norms moderator, and, for the first time, application of the integrated theoretical model to the two aspects unique to nonprofit organizations and that are critical to survival – donations and volunteers.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

The following chapter takes a closer look at the two theories that provide the foundation for the research – the theory of planned behavior (TPB) and the elaboration likelihood model (ELM). Both with be discussed in detail, including construct conceptualizations and previous research efforts. ELM will also be discussed in terms of decision making and persuasive communications – two key aspects to the dual-process model consumers follow when processing advertising messages. However, a discussion of TPB and its constructs will be done first.

Theory of Planned Behavior

The theory of planned behavior is a valuable model used by researchers to predict behavioral intention, which is considered a summation of the motivations necessary to perform a specific behavior (Armitage and Christian 2003). An extension of the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Fishbein 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975), the theory of planned behavior has demonstrated to be effective in predicting consumer behavior, or more specifically, the intentions of the individual (Ajzen 1985; 1991). For this reason, the theory of planned behavior and its predecessor have been found to be better at predicting behavior than models that measure just attitudes (Armitage and Christian 2003).

While the theory of reason action (TRA) contains two constructs that predict intention – subjective norms and attitude toward the behavior – the theory of planned behavior adds a third construct, perceived behavioral control, that makes it a more robust model for predicting intention (Ajzen 1991; Madden, Ellen, and Ajzen 1992; Norman and Hoyle 2004), behavior (Giles and Cairns 1995; Millstein 1996) and goal attainment (Ajzen and Madden 1986). In

addition, perceived behavioral control can act as a proxy measure for actual behavioral control (see Figure 1) and either effect behavior directly (Armitage and Christian 2003) or as a moderator between intention and behavior (Sheeran, Trafimow, and Armitage 2003).

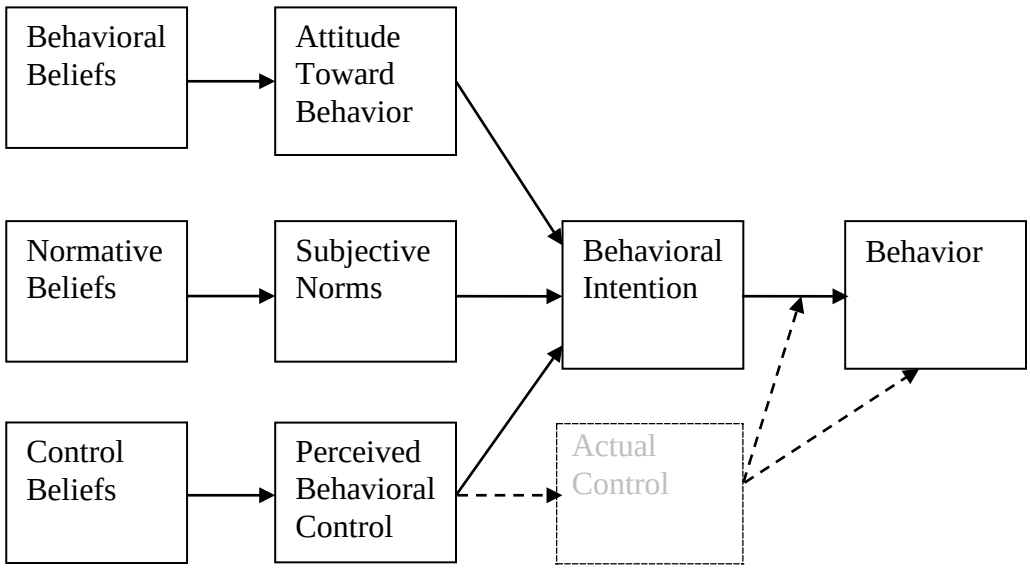
In the theory of planned behavior, the importance of each construct – attitude toward the behavior, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control – and their antecedents are expected to vary across situations and between individuals (Ajzen 1991). That is, in some studies, only attitude will be significantly related to intention, or perceived behavioral control will be the only one strongly related to intention. Or it could be a case where two of the three are significant with intention, and sometimes all three.

Intentions are considered the motivating factors that influence behavior (Ajzen 1991). However, in order to implement the intended behavior, an individual must consider himself or herself to be in control of the action to perform the behavior (Azjen 1991). Whether or not an individual believes they have control over performing the behavior may depend on factors including individual skills, time available, support from others, and financial means (Azjen 1985) as well as their motivation. It is the perception the individual has over their control to perform the behavior that makes TPB different from, and better at predicting intention than, the theory of reasoned action (Hunt and Gross 2009; Millstein 1996; Netemeyer, Andews, and Durvasula 1993).

According to TPB, intention is the antecedent of behavior, but is also related to the individual's attitude toward the behavior (Ajzen 2012), as well as to subjective norms and perceived control. TPB has shown that individuals consider the consequences of the behavior, evaluate what they believe others expect them to do, and weigh whether or not they believe they have the ability to adopt that behavior. Behavioral control is different in TPB than the commonly

understood locus of control (Rotter 1966), in which individuals tend to interpret events by believing they are either dependent on the forces that surround them (external control) or are determined by their own actions (internal control). Rather than remaining consistent across situations, as an individual expects their perceived locus of control to be, perceived behavioral control varies based on the situation presented and the potential behavioral outcomes perceived by the individual (Azjen 1991).

FIGURE 1
Model of the Theory of Planned Behavior



For example, an individual may believe that everyone has the same chance to win a lottery, and whether or not they win depends solely on if they purchase a lottery ticket. Because they feel the chance of winning is up to them, this individual has an internal locus of control. However, they may also think they do not have time to get to the store to make the purchase before the deadline, which shows that their perceived behavioral control is quite low. Comparatively, a similar individual who has the same internal locus of control but believes they can purchase the lottery ticket prior to the deadline not only has a higher perceived behavioral

control, but research has shown they are more likely to have a greater intention of purchasing a ticket and therefore a greater likelihood of performing that behavior (Sheeran and Orbell 1999).

There has been extensive empirical support for the effectiveness of TPB in predicting intention and behavior. For example, its superiority over TRA was recently demonstrated by Hunt and Gross (2009) in their research on exercise, which also showed both attitude toward the behavior and subjective norms had stronger associations with the intention to exercise and the self-reported behavior than previous studies. Netemeyer, Andews, and Durvasula (1993) found that TPB was a better predictor of intention to give gifts than both TRA and the behavioral model developed by Miniard and Cohen (1983) which separates the personal and normative reasons for engaging in behavior. TPB has also been used extensively to predict intention and behavior in the healthcare industry (e.g. Bonetti and Johnston 2008; Hunt and Gross 2009; Millstein 1996; Sieverding, Matterne, and Ciccarello 2010; Tsorbatzoudis 2005), with results demonstrating that through messaging (Brubaker and Fowler 1990) or interventions (Sniehotta 2009) it can be used to change health behavior (Quine, Rutter, and Arnold 2001).

A meta-analysis conducted by Armitage and Conner (2001) of 185 studies found TPB accounted for 39% of the variance for intention and 27% of the variance for behavior. The analysis also found that perceived behavioral control accounted for more variance than social norms or attitude toward the behavior (the two constructs from TRA) for both intention and behavior, confirming a result that had been previously discovered by Millstein (1996), Madden, Ellen, and Ajzen (1992), and Ajzen and Madden (1986).

The theory of planned behavior has also been examined in conjunction with an individual's past behavior and found to explain additional variance in behavioral intention (Norman and Hoyle 2004) particularly when subjects are in the decision-making process

(Kidwell and Jewell 2008). These results demonstrate the importance of individual experiences on future behavior. However, it has been argued that past behavior should not significantly improve the prediction of future behavior (Ajzen 1991), thus making any significance found for past behavior in a TPB study an indicator of factors that have not been accounted for. The only exception may be when behavior is observed while other variables are still being assessed (Ajzen 1991).

Extended models of TPB have also been empirically tested, with Rodgers, Conner and Murray (2008) finding that anticipated regret, in conjunction with attitudes, social norms, and perceived control, improved the predictive power of TPB and demonstrated a link between the regret construct and behavior. Sheeran, Trafimow, and Armitage (2003), meanwhile, tested what they termed a proxy measure of actual control and found that it moderated the relationship between intention and behavior.

Still, some research has demonstrated flaws with the theory of planned behavior, ranging from poor operational definitions of attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and their outcomes (Gagne and Godin 2000) making it impossible to develop hypotheses (Ogden 2003), to various constructs within the model failing to predict either outcome (e.g. Bagozzi and Kimmel 1995; Sideridis, Kaissidis, and Padeliadu 1998). For their part, Armitage and Christian **(**2003) found little correspondence between attitude and behavior, forcing them to search for and test both moderating variables on behavior and mediating variables on intention in an effort extend the model and improve the variance for the ultimate outcome.

In comparing TPB with is precursor, TRA, and theories related to self-regulation as well as an individual's attempt to try (the theory of trying), Bagozzi and Kimmel (1995) showed that attitudes were significant in predicting outcomes for each theory, but subjective norms were only

significant when tested in conjunction with the theory of trying. Moreover, they found that past behavior was not related to any of the three constructs within TPB, but was only directly related to intention and behavior, with the latter relationship mitigating the effects intention had on behavior. When beliefs were measured in three dimensions (behavioral, normative, control) and manipulated through experimental design, of the three groups that saw the same message manipulations encouraging them to participate in an activity, only the control group had a significant relationship with behavior, leading the researcher to question the overall importance of TPB in behavioral research (Sniehotta 2009).

Stronger criticism came from Ogden (2003) and Hobbis and Sutton (2005), with the former arguing that TPB's focus is on analytic truths that were "true by definition rather than by observation" (pp. 426-427) leading to conclusions that support the theory's conceptualizations rather that actual behavior, and the latter challenging its ability to create changes in behavior. Specifically, it was suggested that TPB might create cognitions in study participants and therefore lead to behavior (Ogden 2003), lending some support to the argument that cognitive behavior therapy (CBT) might be a more reliable model to effect changes in health behavior (Hobbis and Sutton 2005).

In defense of TPB, Ajzen and Fishbein (2004) argued that the model can be empirically tested, thus satisfying the criterion of falsifiability that suggests statements or systems of statements, in order to be ranked as scientific, must be capable of conflicting with possible, or conceivable, observations (Popper 1962), and therefore providing ample evidence of the constructs' validity. Further, they argued that CBT is just one method for affecting beliefs, thereby changing behaviors (Fishbein and Ajzen 2005). Furthermore, they argued CBT is

designed to help individuals follow through on behaviors, not influence intentions, as TPB is capable of doing through interventions on a larger scale than CBT can accommodate.

Still, a persistent question of perceived behavioral control possibly containing multiple factors has remained. These factors, it has been argued (Armitage and Connor 1999; Manstead and van Eekelen 1998; Tavousi et al. 2009), should be differentiated from one another within the model because of their unique effects on intention and behavior. Yet this is representative of just one side of the debate. Therefore, a detailed review of perceived behavioral control is warranted, as are examinations of previous research of the other two constructs within the model.

Perceived Behavioral Control

Perhaps the most questioned and investigated aspects of TPB, perceived behavioral control (PBC) refers to the perceived ease or difficulty of performing a behavior, and includes past experiences in addition to the individual's anticipated obstacles to behavior achievement (Ajzen 1991). It was the construct added to TRA to extend that model (Ajzen 1991) and acts as a proxy measure for actual control as well as the confidence an individual has in their ability to perform a specific behavior (Armitage and Christian 2003). The antecedent to perceived behavioral control is control beliefs, which act as "the perceived frequency of facilitating or inhibiting factors multiplied by the power of those factors to inhibit/facilitate the behavior in question" (Armitage and Christian 2003, p. 191). Therefore, control beliefs, combined with an individual's perceived power of each control factor, can determine PBC in the amount that an individual perceives that the control factor is present.

Though differing from locus of control (Rotter 1966), perceived behavioral control is in many ways akin to perceived self-efficacy, in which an individual's behavior is based on how

well they can follow a particular course of action for a specific situation (Bandura 1977). Self-efficacy can influence activities, effort, thoughts, and emotions (Bandura 1982). In TPB, self-efficacy is captured within the PBC construct, and together with attitudes and social normative beliefs, provides a more general model for assessing intention and behavior (Ajzen 1991). However, the relationship between self-efficacy and perceived behavior continues to be studied under the TPB model (e.g. Anker, Feeley, and Kim 2010; Bonetti and Johnston 2008; Brubaker and Fowler 1990; Kraft et al. 2005; Manstead and van Eekelen 1998; Norman and Hoyle 2004; Povey et al. 2000; Tavousi et al. 2009) with researchers somewhat divided on whether one or the other provides a better predictor of behavioral intention.

When assessing the predictive validity of the constructs within TPB, research has led some (e.g. Armitage and Connor 1999; Manstead and van Eekelen 1998; Tavousi et al. 2009) to call for distinct and separate measures for PBC and self-efficacy. Armitage and Connor (1999) found that self-efficacy and perceived control were two separate processes of PBC, with the strongest effect for self-efficacy on intention, leading to a conclusion that self-efficacy must be included in the TPB model. When done so, the influence of self-efficacy on behavior was found to be mediated by the strength of behavioral intentions (Rise, Sheeran, and Hukkelberg 2010)

These results echoed similar studies that found perceived behavioral control and self-efficacy can be differentiated through empirical evidence (Bonetti and Johnston 2008), effecting intention and behavior differently and requiring two distinct measures when making predictions using the model (Manstead and van Eekelen 1998). In fact, Povey et al. (2000) discovered that self-efficacy was more predictive on a consistent basis than perceived control. Similarly, Terry and O'Leary (1995) found separate measures for self-efficacy and PBC, with self-efficacy

significantly related to behavioral intentions but not behavior, and PBC a significant predictor of behavior but not intention.

Recent research went even further, finding that PBC was three separate factors – perceived control, perceived confidence, and perceived difficulty – that are strongly interrelated with every aspect of TPB but not equally predictive of its outcomes (Kraft et al. 2005). For example, perceived confidence predicted intention to exercise, but not intention to recycle, while perceived control was the opposite. Perceived difficulty, on the other hand, was a relatively weak predictor of either outcome, leading the authors to question the overall strength of perceived behavioral control as a predictor of intention. It may be best, they concluded, to measure perceived behavioral control as two factors: 1) self-efficacy, with elements of perceived confidence and perceived difficulty, and 2) perceived behavioral control (Kraft et al. 2005). Similar results found that perceived difficulty and perceived behavioral control were different components (Sparks, Guthrie, and Shepherd 1997) supporting a distinction between the two (Trafimow et al. 2002), with perceived difficulty a better predictor of behavioral intention.

Still other efforts found that PBC was key to the theory of planned behavior because it improved the prediction of intention above simply measuring attitude toward the behavior and subjective norms (DeVellis, Blalock, and Sandler 1990), and specifically influenced behavior through intention (Godin, Valois, and Lepage 1993). Additional findings suggested that the relationship between perceived behavioral control and intention not only depends on the type of behavior, but the individual involved (Sheeran et al. 2002). And research has found that when the perceived control is realistic, it is successful in predicting intention and behavior (Ajzen 1985).

A meta-analysis of TPB initiated to assess the model's robustness found that perceived behavioral control should not be considered homogeneous across studies, and that it is a better

predictor when it is operationalized in a more global context and conceptualized to reflect control over factors that an individual can internalize (Notani 1998). In echoing other results (Ajzen 1985; Sheeran et al. 2002), the meta-analysis by Notani (1998) found PBC to be a good predictor when behaviors were familiar to the subjects.

In an effort to clarify aspects of perceived behavioral control, Ajzen (2002) demonstrated that while the construct is comprised of components that reflect beliefs of self-efficacy as well as perceived control, measurements in a hierarchical factor model can be developed to capture a single latent variable related to the construct. Therefore, it is vital that researchers include items of self-efficacy and controllability within their perceived behavioral control measures.

The present research adopts the empirical support for the argument that perceived control over a behavior as a construct contains elements of both self-efficacy and controllability in a single variable within the TPB model (Armitage and Conner 1999; Povey et al. 2000) and reflects both internal and external relationships between the individual and the behavior (Ajzen 2002). Therefore, efforts will be made (and discussed in the chapter on methodology) to incorporate self-efficacy and controllability within the perceived behavioral control measures to ensure high internal consistency.

Attitude Toward the Behavior

Perhaps because researchers have been measuring individual attitudes for so long to determine if attitudes predict behaviors or behaviors predict attitudes, the attitude toward the behavior (ATB) construct within the theory of planned behavior is much less controversial today. In addition, measuring attitude toward the behavior has proven to be a superior method for understanding consumer behavior (Cialdini, Petty, and Cacioppo 1981) than simply assessing

attitudes toward a product, service, company, or brand (Mowen and Minor 2006). Attitude is the strongest predictor of consumer buying decisions relative to the other constructs with the theory of planned behavior (Lim and Dubinsky 2005).

Attitude toward the behavior refers to the degree to which an individual "has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation or appraisal of the behavior in question" (Azjen 1991, p. 188). The more favorable the attitude, the more likely the individual will have a strong intention to perform the behavior in question. Here the focus is on what the perceived consequences of the behavior will be in the mind of the individual, rather than attributes of the object of interest. This helps researchers better understand what factors are assisting, or impeding, the prescribed behavioral intention. Measuring only the attitude toward the object eliminates this important dimension.

Humans form beliefs about an object through association (Ajzen 1991). Those associations may be in terms of attributes, characteristics, or events. When attitudes toward a behavior are considered, beliefs are linked between the behavior and an outcome, or between the behavior and the anticipated costs of performing that behavior. These links are either positively or negatively associated to the behavior, giving the individual an ATB. People tend to prefer behaviors in which the outcomes are desirable, making the subjective outcome directly related to the strength of the belief one holds toward the behavior (Azjen 1991).

In the theory of planned behavior, behavioral beliefs are an antecedent to the attitude toward the behavior. Behavioral beliefs represent the perceived probability of an individual that the behavior will produce a given outcome, and therefore connect the behavior being investigated to intention (Ajzen 1991). Even though people have countless beliefs regarding specific behaviors, only a few are able to be accessed when an individual assess a situation. The

beliefs accessed, combined with the perceived values of the expected outcomes, shapes the ATB (Armitage and Christian 2003).

Research measuring the predictive power of attitude in the theory of planned behavior has found strong associations between attitude and intention (e.g. Armitage and Christian 2003; Cooke, Sniehotta, and Schuz 2007; Lim and Dubinsky 2005; Rosen 2000; Tuu et al. 2008). In fact, Kraft et al. (2005) found that the role of attitude may actually be underestimated in the TPB model. More specifically, in a study exploring the dimensional structure of perceived behavioral control, research discovered that affective attitudes, rather than instrumental attitudes, were significantly related to behavioral intention (Kraft et al. 2005). However, the relationship between attitude and actual behavior has not demonstrated to be as strong (Anker, Feeley, and Kim 2010). This may be due to a lack of detailed investigation into the affective and cognitive components of attitude when investigating the validity of the theory (Anker, Feeley, and Kim 2010).

Subjective Norms

Subjective norm (SN) measures what individuals believe others think about how they should behave and refers to "the perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behavior" (Azjen 1991, p. 188). Like attitude toward the behavior, the more favorable the subjective norm with respect toward the behavior, the stronger the intention to perform the behavior being considered (Ajzen 1991) because individuals tend to believe that they should do what others like them do (Cialdini, Reno, and Kallgren 1990). This has the effect of adding opinion leaders, reference groups, early adopters, and influencers to the overall consideration of behavioral intention.

The antecedent to subjective norms in the theory of planned behavior is normative belief, which is the perceived behavioral expectations of important referent groups (e.g. co-workers, schoolmates), or people (e.g. parents, spouse) in an individual's life, and whether the referents approve or disapprove of the behavior being considered by the individual (Ajzen 1991). Referents vary depending on the population and behavior being studied. Normative belief strength is influenced by the individual's motivation to comply (Ajzen 1991) with each referent being considered. This motivation contributes to the SN in direct proportion to the individual's perception that the referent thinks the individual should or should not perform the behavior being considered (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980).

Therefore, taking the wider social context into consideration is a must for those examining behavior through the lens of TPB (Terry and Hogg 2000) because perceived group norms are related to attitude (Terry and Hogg 1996). While some research has called for the removal of norms from TPB analysis because of a lack of influence on individual intentions (Sparks et al. 1995), in investigating the predictive potential of subjective norms within the theory of planned behavior, Lim and Dubinsky (2005) suggest that SN may be understated in consumer research. Latimer and Martin Ginis (2005) found they were significant for predicting individual's intention, but only if the individuals were worried about being met with disapproval from other people. Subjective norms were also significant in research measuring intention of employees to support a corporate objective (Jimmieson, Peach, and White 2008) when employees who associated themselves with a reference group that supported the initiative were more likely to have stronger behavioral intentions, with subjective norms also predicting participation. Godin, Conner, and Sheeran (2005) also found that internalized SN play a significant role in the predictive ability of TPB, particularly when examining motivation to adopt

a behavior. Within the scope of TPB, the influence of parents is also a subjective norm that has been found to effect behavior (White and Wellington 2009; Xiao et al. 2011).

If one were to conclude, then, than norms are an important factor in the prediction of intentions and behavior, it may just be a case that the conceptualizations of subjective norms, in their broad description, require more specificity (Smith and Louis 2008). As a result, the normative concept within TPB has been the focus of numerous research studies, with measures for items such as descriptive norms, injunctive norms, moral norms, and social identity all being investigated. Descriptive norms are what individuals believe is typically done in a given situation, or what they think most people do; while injunctive norms are the behaviors that individuals believe are approved by society, or what people think they should do (Cialdini, Reno, and Kallgren 1990). While both descriptive and injunctive norms are direct perceived social pressure, they are two unique constructs (Manning 2009). The third conceptualization, moral norms, are not related to social pressure, but instead are an individual's internal rules for living and personal feelings of responsibility (Smith and McSweeney 2007). Finally, approaches to social identity research examine the individual's identification with a social group that provides them with a definition of who one is, and information associated with what is required of that group's members (Smith and Louis 208). When one sees himself or herself as being part of that group, he or she often adopts or changes behaviors to be in line with perceived group standards.

Within academic research, results of the influence of each conceptualization within TPB have been mixed. For example, in their meta-analysis on subjective norms tested in the theory of planned behavior, Rivas and Sheeran (2003) found a strong relationship between descriptive norms and behavioral intention, and the addition of descriptive norms increased the variance explained by 5%, improvements that were also echoed by Norman, Clark, and Walker (2005)

and Sieverding, Matterne, and Ciccarello (2010). Other studies found that descriptive norms combine with past behavior to predict intention (Forward 2009) and behavior (Rivas and Sheeran 2003). Descriptive norms have also been measured with anticipated regret to determine if the combination would enhance the predictive ability the TPB. Sheeran and Orbell (1999) found that both contributed substantial variance to behavioral intention to play the lottery, however Cooke, Sniehotta, and Schuz (2007) discovered that anticipated regret combined with attitude toward the behavior to form significant predictors of intention, but descriptive norms did not.

In examining multiple conceptualizations of subjective norms, White et al. (2009) tested the impact of descriptive and injunctive norms – both personal injunctive and social injunctive norms – and their relationship with intention, as well as the effects of group identification. Each study demonstrated support for inclusion of descriptive and personal injunctive norms, but not social injunctive norms as significant predictors of behavioral intention. They argued their results highlight the critical role of social influence processes within the TPB (White et al. 2009). Similarly, Smith and McSweeny's (2010) efforts using TPB tested descriptive and injunctive norms, but the studies also extended TPB by simultaneously examining moral norms for predictive ability. Their results showed significance for injunctive and moral norms, but unlike previous research (e.g. Forward 2009; Norman, Clark, and Walker 2005; Rivas and Sheeran 2003; Sieverding, Matterne, and Cicarello 2010) descriptive norms were not significantly related.

Other research has demonstrated the relationship of moral norms to intention and behavior within the TPB model, as was expected when the theory was initially proposed (Ajzen 1991). For example, a meta-analysis by Conner and Armitage (1998) found that the moral norm construct explained, on average, an additional 4% of variance for behavioral intention. Kaiser (2006) found that moral norms were mediated by attitude toward the behavior prior to the effect

on behavioral intention. Rivas, Sheeran, and Armitage (2009) combined moral norms with anticipated regret and found increase in variance explained of 3% for the former and 5% for the latter on predicting intention, with both being mediated by intention when it came to behavioral outcomes. Specifically, behavior featuring a moral dimension, such as the welfare of others, had an even greater predictive effect (Rivas, Sheeran, and Armitage (2009).

Finally, investigating social identity, Neuwirth and Frederick (2004) discovered that peer influence and perceptions of attitudes by the majority significantly influenced intention and behavior of an individual. In addition, in-group and out-group norms within social identity research under the auspices of TPB showed that in-group norms are a powerful determinant of behavior (Jetten, Spears, and Manstead 1996; Terry, Hogg, and McKimmie 2000).

With discussion of the constructs contained within the theory of planned behavior addressed, one must next concern themselves with the application of the theory to marketing. Accordingly, a brief review of marketing research applying TPB follows.

Theory of Planned Behavior in Marketing Research

It has been argued that the theory of planned behavior provides a conceptual framework that can be used to focus on the specific behaviors performed by consumers, ranging from buying a specific product brand, to searching for information about a product or brand, to shopping at specific retail outlets (Ajzen 2008). As a result, TPB has been the foundation for numerous research efforts in the discipline of marketing, including research in topics such as consumer behavior, marketing strategy, branding, and marketing communications, as well as combining with, and comparing to, other theories and marketing research practices.

Early marketing research using TPB sought to confirm whether or not it was appropriate in such a context. Sahni (1994) relied on TPB to examine consumer behavior in terms of finances by modifying the perceived behavior control construct into perceived financial control. In doing so, he tested the abilities of the theory to predict intention to make a purchase when it came to expensive and inexpensive products, with results showing TPB an accurate predictor of purchase intention (Sahni 1994). Chiou (1998) also examined purchase intention as the outcome variable within the TPB framework, finding that product knowledge worked in conjunction with TPB's constructs to predict intentions, but that purchase intention varies cross situations.

Normative behavior influences were also researched in a marketing context under the TPB framework, and results demonstrated that the TPB construct was effective for predicting intention and behavior. More specifically, Xiao et al. (2011) found that norms directed by parents (as well as socioeconomic status) were significant predictors of risky behavior in credit card use among college students. Similarly, Wankel and Mummery (1993) discovered the normative power of age-specific sub-groups affected behavioral intention when it came to promoting exercise, thus giving credence to the use of social marketing strategies for practitioners. In testing how consumer loyalty and consumption characteristics (e.g. importance of the product) interact, and the effect of normative influences, Lee, Murphy, and Neale (2009) demonstrated that descriptive norms improved the predictive power of TPB overall, and that subjective norms and descriptive norms behaved differently across subject characteristics.

Concepts of the brand as part of the extended self (Belk 1988) have been examined under the auspices of TPB, finding that self-concept congruity and attitude toward the behavior interact to predict the intention of consumers to seek samples (Prendergast, Tsang, and Lo 2008). Marketing messages were also found to be effective in changing beliefs, as TPB predicts, in

research exploring driving behavior (Elliott and Armitage 2009). Here the results showed the most significance for marketing messages on perceived behavioral control, resulting in significance for the relationship with actual behavior.

Recently, TPB has been used to study marketing in an online context, discovering, among other results, that TPB can predict willingness to buy online groceries (Hansen 2008), the intention to use e-coupons (Kang et al. 2006), and engage in negative word-of-mouth (Cheng, Lam, and Hsu 2006). More specifically, Hansen (2008) found that consumers consider their personal values when shaping their attitude toward the behavior of buying groceries online, a relationship that can be moderated by previous behavior.

Just as in other disciplines, marketing researchers have compared TPB with other theories that predict behavior, and extended the model to include marketing-specific concepts. For example, the above mentioned study by Kang et al. (2006) compared TPB with TRA and found that while the former was a better predictor of intention to use e-coupons, the latter was better at predicting intention to use traditional coupons. In their research, Richetin et al. (2008) compared TPB with the model of goal directed behavior (MGB) and an extended model of goal directed behavior (EMGB) to determine which was better for predicting intention and behavioral desire when it came to consumer nondurable items. Their results shows EMGB to be the best at predicting both, but that all three were better at predicting self-reported behavior than actual behavior. And when it comes to common marketing practices, Della, DeJoy, and Lance (2009) examined the theory of planned behavior in the context of VALS, the psychographic market segmentation practice that divides the population into groups based on lifestyles and is embraced by advertising agencies and consumer researchers alike. In their study, they examined how

TPB's constructs varied across five different VALS segments and found variance explained of up to 70% (Della, DeJoy, and Lance 2009)

Despite these efforts, the use of the theory of planned behavior has not been exhaustive in marketing, thus leaving open the possibilities for additional applications of its predictive behavior for researchers. One specific avenue that has scarcely been explored is the use of persuasive communications to affect behavior and intentions. The use of TPB in persuasive communications, then, provides the impetus for initiating a larger discussion on persuasion in marketing research.

Persuasive Communications

When it comes to changing existing attitudes and beliefs, marketers rely on persuasive strategies in the explicit attempt to influence beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors (Mowen and Minor 2006). These beliefs and attitudes are shaped by pervious experiences (Cialdini, Petty, and Cacioppo 1981) that typically create a positive or negative association when exposed to the object, a similar object, or a new object (Petty and Cacioppo 1984). That is why marketers lean so heavily on persuasive communications when introducing new products or services (Mowen and Minor 2006).

In the context of the theory of planned behavior, persuasive communications that are designed to attack a belief about an object have been found to produce changes in attitudes toward the object (Petty and Cacioppo 1986), while ones directed toward normative beliefs can influence subjective norms, and those directed toward control beliefs can influence perceived behavioral control (Ajzen 1991). These have been demonstrated through recent research in which subjects were provided communications messages in an effort to effect behavior.

For example, promotion leaflets designed to stimulate beliefs about condom use were given to teenagers to determine if it could affect behavior, with results positive (Hill and Abraham 2008), while an advertising campaign to educate drivers about the dangers of speeding found a significant relationship between affective beliefs and attitude within the TPB framework (Stead et al. 2005). In other studies, normative beliefs were targeted when participants were given messages regarding exercise from a specific source (Jones et al. 2004) or saw advertisements suggesting others also ate healthy food regularly (Maddock, Silbanus, and Reger-Nash 2008). The latter research also focused on TPB's control beliefs and found that persuasive communications could convince individuals to walk rather than drive, but only if they were led to believe they had more time to get there (Maddock, Silbanus, and Reger-Nash 2008).

Because of their similar approaches to attitudes and beliefs, persuasive messages and the theory of planned behavior have been examined in combination on several occasions. For example, research on suicide intervention found that persuasive messages guided by the content of TPB were more likely to lead to intervention (Shemanski Aldrich and Cerel 2009), while Tsorbatzoudis (2005) found similar results when persuasive messages on posters and through lectures were significant on attitudes and behavior related to healthy eating. However, Sniehotta (2009) did not find significance for TPB on intention or behavior changes after individuals saw persuasive messages related to salient beliefs. Nor were results positive for Welbourne and Booth-Butterfield (2005), who tested message impact through the lens of TPB to determine its effects on recall and attitude/behavior changes.

Persuasion is understood on three levels: 1) experiential, 2) behavioral influence, and 3) decision making. Because this research touches all three levels, an in-depth discussion of each is necessary. In reviewing these, experiential persuasion is examined in terms of attitudes

individuals have toward advertisements – one of the primary persuasive communications tools used by marketers – while behavioral influence is discussed in terms of social legitimization, and decision making is examined under the auspices of the elaboration likelihood model.

Attitude Toward the Advertisement

In the experiential route of persuasion, an attempt is made by the marketer to directly influence attitudes, knowing that preexisting beliefs are in place and cannot be changed prior to exposure to the persuasive communications (Mowen and Minor 2006). One approach that has been found to influence attitudes without changing beliefs is evoking a new and positive attitude toward an advertisement, defined as an individual's general liking or disliking of a particular advertising stimulus during a specific exposure (Lutz 1985).

Because consumers develop attitudes toward ads just as they do attitudes toward objects and behaviors, advertisements may be a factor in shaping attitudes toward an object or behavior. While elements of an ad including content and imagery, as well as consumer aspects such as mood and the external viewing environment can contribute to an individual's attitude toward an advertisement (Brown, Homer, and Inman 1998; Lord, Lee, and Sauer 1994), these factors are not specific to either high- or low-involvement with the ad, nor whether or not the individual is familiar with the object being advertised (Phelps and Thorson 1991; Chattpadhyay and Prakesh 1992). This is not to say that level of involvement with the ad does not affect how the ad is processed, as will be discussed thoroughly within the section on the elaboration likelihood model. In fact, it has been shown that higher ad engagement affects recall, believability, and attitude toward the message (Wang 2006). However, it has been found that content of an advertisement and the consumer's present condition and situation contribute to the attitude

toward the ad independently of involvement and object familiarity (Brown and Stayman 1992; Dimofte and Yalch 2008; Shimp 1981), and that overall attitudes toward advertising do not affect involvement with the ad (James and Kover 1992).

Attitude toward the advertisement (A_{ad}) is simply an individual's favorable or unfavorable evaluation of an ad (Spears and Singh 2004). Creating a favorable attitude toward the advertisement leaves consumers with a positive feeling after processing the ad (Shimp 1981) and affects their beliefs (Mitchell and Olson 1981). Both cognitive and affective dimensions exist in relation to A_{ad}. These dimensions have varying effects on different individuals because of their underlying processing mechanisms (Shimp 1981), which will be discussed in full in the section on elaboration likelihood.

A great deal of research involving attitude toward the brand and purchase intention have been conducted using A_{ad} as a foundation (Spears and Singh 2004), with results showing that attitude toward the ad has an effect on brand attitudes (e.g. Derbaix 1995; Gresham and Shimp 1985; Kahn Niazi et al. 2010; Mitchell and Olson 1981; Spears and Singh 2004), purchase intention (e.g. Clow et al. 2009; McKenzie, Lutz, and Belch 1986; Rossiter and Percy 1978), and purchase behavior (e.g. Clow, James, and Stanley 2008; Hausman 2008). Still, there has been research that indicates the A_{ad} does not have as great an effect on attitude toward the brand when image aspects are portrayed for the branded object more so than utilitarian aspects (Mittal 1990).

It could be argued that attitude toward an advertisement is simply a dimension of an individual's attitude toward the object being advertised, and is therefore just another factor an individual considers. However, combining a persuasive communications execution such as an ad with the actual features of the object would be an over-simplification of the attitude toward the object. Therefore they are distinct constructs worth evaluating. Meta-analyses by Brown, Homer,

and Inman (1998) and Brown and Stayman (1992) provide overviews of research conducted through the end of the 20th century on A_{ad} and its role as the experiential aspect of persuasive communications. Therefore, attention is now turned to the second level of persuasion – behavioral influence.

Social Legitimization of the Minimum

Behavioral influence relies on strong normative behavior to cause individuals to comply with a request. Most behavioral influence techniques, such as ingratiation and reciprocity, have been found to be effective for personal sales (Chakrabarty, Brown, and Widing 2010; Mallalieu and Faure 1998; Mowen and Cialdini 1980), leading to techniques such as "foot-in-the-door" in which agreement by an individual to a small initial request increases the likelihood of agreement to a second, larger request (Cialdini et al. 1978), "door-in-the-face" in which saying no to a large initial request increases compliance to a second, smaller request (Mowen and Cialdini 1980, O'Keefe and Hale 2001), and "that's not all" in which an offer is made at a high price, then a better offer is made before the individual can respond to the first one (Burger 1986). Another technique that has been proven effective is legitimization, a strategy used to justify social norms either through emotions, a hypothetical future, rationality, expertise, or altruism (Reyes 2011) because it acknowledges that what was not acceptable previously is now the social norm. Social legitimization has proven to be effective particularly when used in political discourse (Reyes 2011) and charitable giving situations (Chen, Patten, Roberts 2008; Cialdini and Schroeder 1976; Shearman and Yoo 2007).

Social legitimization of the minimum is also known as the legitimization of paltry favors (LPF) effect (Andrews et al. 2008; Reeves and Saucer 1993), the legitimization of paltry

donation (LPD) strategy (Shearman and Yoo 2007), and the "even a penny" technique (Cialdini and Schroeder 1976). Because of the nomological variances, the present research will refer to the method as social legitimization of the minimum (SLM). Fundamentally, SLM argues the legitimization of small favors increases the likelihood that an individual will comply with the request (Dibble et al. 2011). SLM is based on the idea that individuals have an innate desire to take actions that make them look good (Mowen and Minor 2006) and will not want to be perceived negatively (Dibble et al. 2011). When an individual is asked to perform some task, and the request contains a phrase that indicates that others approve of making even a minimum effort, the total number of people responding favorably to the request increases compared to when the legitimization of the minimum phrase is left out. Another reason is because when an individual is confronted with a small request, it is difficult for them to develop and/or defend a reason not to comply (Dibble et al. 2011; Shearman and Yoo 2007). Small requests are also effective because they make it difficult for the individual to escape looking like an unhelpful person (Dibble et al. 2011; Mowen and Minor 2006).

The challenge inherent within the strategy of simply making minimum requests is that while it leads to a higher percentage of compliant individuals, the outcome per individual is usually diminished from what it would be if such a minimum request was not made (Dibble et al. 2011; Reeves and Saucer 1993; Shearman and Yoo 2007). In other words, if a nonprofit organization were to ask two different pools of potential donors to make contributions, the number of individuals who would donate would be higher if the donation request message included some form of minimum giving request. However, the average donation amount per donor would be less than donations by individuals in the group that did not receive the message containing a request for a small gift (Cialdini and Schroeder 1976).

Applying this to the previous example of nonprofit organization asking for a donation, the group receiving the message containing SLM giving would have a higher percentage of individuals complying with the request than the group that does not receive such a message, but the average donation amount per individual also would not be significantly less for the social legitimization group (Shearman and Yoo 2007). In other words, "a solicitor could simply legitimize the receipt of such a favor and thereby reap the benefits but not the disadvantage of minimal requests" (Cialdini and Schroeder 1976, p. 600).

Research investigating SLM has had mixed results. For example, Shearman and Yoo (2007) found significance for the technique in both lab and field experiments, with the former generating a higher donation average, and Dolinski et al. (2005) were able to implement the "even a penny" technique in three field experiments and obtain significance. Reeves, Malconi and Martin (1987) found significance for face-to-face requests using that message, but not when requests that were made via surface mail. Similar results were discovered when subjects were placed in groups that were asked to either donate at the time of the request or later via mail, with those donating immediately after an SLM request were significantly different from those who did not get the SLM message, while there was no effect on those who could donate via mail at a later date (Reeves and Saucer 1993). Signs with the "even a penny" message also did not significantly increase donations for Perrine and Heather (2000) nor did the message significantly increase volunteerism (Dibble et al. 2011; Takada and Levine 2007). However, when social norms dictate that minimum giving is acceptable, research has shown that the number of individuals who comply increases without sacrificing the level of quality of their compliance (Cialdini and Schroeder 1976; Shearman and Yoo 2007).

It is not yet understood why the disparity in results. A meta-analysis by Andrews et al. (2008) suggests that neither moderators such as wording of the request, physical condition at the time of the request (face-to-face vs. other means such as mail), and the behavior being requested (donations vs. volunteerism), nor mediators such as the perception that the nonprofit is in desperate need of contributions (Cialdini and Schroeder 1976) or increased interaction with the subject (Dibble et al. 2011; Dolinski et al 2005) were significantly contributing factors. Clearly, more research is needed in this area.

There is one more plausible explanation to the positive effects shown for requests that represent SLM. It is possible individuals respond simply because they rely on routines and rules to govern behavior, a concept known as mindlessness (Dibble et al. 2011) in which individuals respond to a message without consideration of relevant information. While this concept would work in concert with the peripheral portion of the elaboration likelihood model of message processing, it would not be relevant when cognitive processing takes place. Because the present research is partially based on the elaboration likelihood model (ELM), it is relevant to discuss the third level of persuasion, decision making, within the contexts of ELM it at this time.

Elaboration Likelihood Model

Decision making is one of the foundations of consumer behavior, and provides an avenue for persuasive communications to effect beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors (Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983; Petty and Cacioppo 1984; Barden and Petty 2008). Therefore, developing effective persuasion is critical for marketers interested in shaping attitudes and behaviors. One of the most reliable models in understanding how persuasion works within the decision-making process is the elaboration likelihood model. ELM assumes that “people are neither universally

thoughtful in evaluating persuasive messages, nor universally mindless" (Petty and Cacioppo 1984, p 668). Therefore, individuals must process persuasive information differently (Petty and Cacioppo 1981) with that processing beginning the moment they receive a message, such as through an advertisement. As soon as the message is received, the individual attempts to relate the information to any preexisting beliefs they have about the issue (Cialdini, Petty, and Cacioppo 1981). Messages are more persuasive when they support these beliefs.

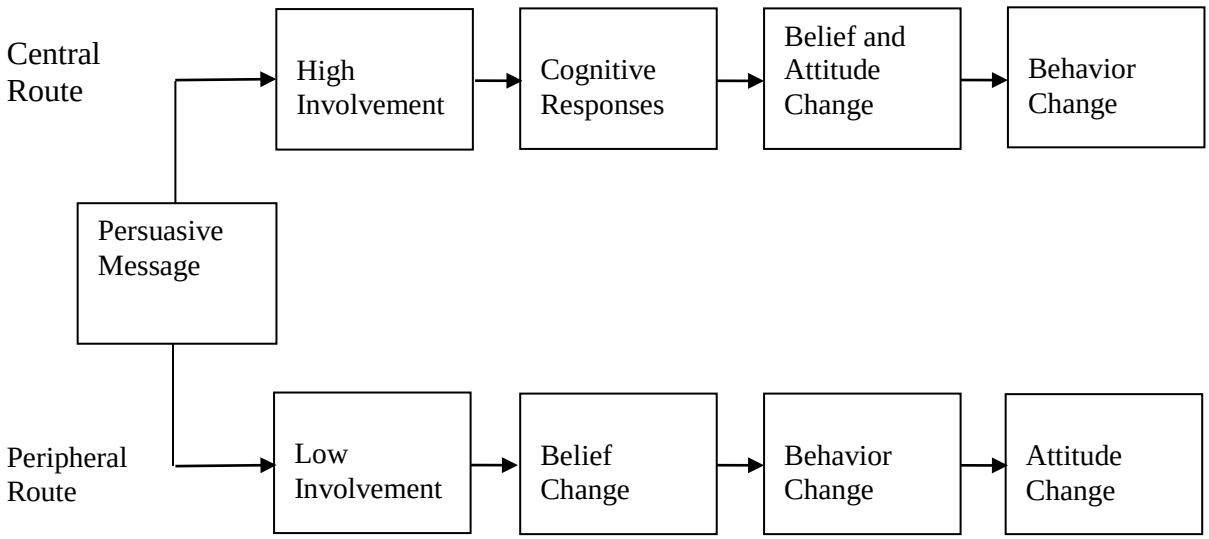
It is important to note here the differences between beliefs and attitudes. The former refers to an internal understanding of what some object is, while the latter is an individual's evaluation of what the object is in specific terms (e.g. positive or negative, good or bad). Individuals have a desire to match beliefs and attitudes, a phenomenon known as the principle of compatibility (Ham 2009). To be successful, marketers must first influence the beliefs about the object in order to affect attitudes. Persuasive messages are therefore more effective when targeted toward beliefs in an effort to support what already exists in the individual's mind. The individual processes the messages to determine if compatibility exists.

Processing proceeds upon one of two routes – central or peripheral (see Figure 2) – depending on factors such as message content, inherent traits of the consumer, and the situation in which the consumer finds himself or herself (Cialdini, Petty, and Cacioppo 1981). Individuals follow the central route to persuasion when high-involvement information processing takes place, meaning the individual is motivated to expend cognitive effort on the message, and the peripheral route when the consumer is involved in low-involvement information processing when motivation and ability are low (Cialdini, Petty, and Cacioppo 1981; Petty and Cacioppo 1981) where involvement is defined as the personal relevance of the information (Mowen and Minor 2006). In processing the message, the central route represents a thoughtful consideration

of attitudes the individual holds in relation to the message, while the peripheral route generates considerations that are tangential to the issue (Cialdini, Petty, and Cacioppo 1981).

Only when conditions effect an individual's motivation *and* ability to engage in issue-relevant thinking is the high-involvement process followed (Cacioppo and Petty 1984). However, one can engage in message processing if either motivation or ability decreases. When that happens, involvement will be low (Rucker and Petty 2006). Factors that can reduce motivation or ability include engagement in a distracting task, a lack of knowledge about the issue, or considering the message to be inconsequential. Should these factors influence the individual, the level of processing decreases and it becomes less likely the individual will evaluate the message in comparison to existing attitudes or beliefs (Cacioppo and Petty 1984), making it critical for advertisers to create and deliver messages that help consumers relate the incoming information to their prior knowledge. This level of motivation and ability, i.e. elaboration, can be placed on a continuum based on the amount of thinking an individual puts forth (Rucker and Petty 2006).

FIGURE 2
Elaboration Likelihood Model of Persuasion



Individuals engaged in high-involvement processing pay attention to the arguments within the message more carefully than those who are processing through low involvement. Furthermore, when high-involvement processing takes place, consumers compare the incoming message to their own existing attitudes and generate one or more cognitive (but not necessarily rational) responses (Cialdini, Petty, and Cacioppo 1981; Mowen and Minor 2006), from which beliefs, attitudes, and behavior can change based on how well these cognitive responses align with the message being communicated (Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983). When it comes to consumer response to advertising, therefore, different persuasive methods work depending on whether the elaboration likelihood of the communication situation is high or low (Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983). In other words, individuals are more likely to expend cognitive effort in evaluating a message, and therefore follow the central route to message processing, when message involvement is high rather than low (Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983).

Belief change can occur if the extent to which the cognitive responses of the individual are supportive of the message being processed (Mowen and Minor 2006). Individuals with high-involvement processing will generate more cognitive responses than those who process the message with low involvement (Petty and Cacioppo 1984). When central route processing takes place, individuals are evaluating the data that directly supports the argument, making the quality of the argument in the message critical to its persuasive effects (Cacioppo, Petty, and Morris 1983). As a result, more cognitive responses are generated, increasing the likelihood of those responses to be supportive of the message, and therefore effect beliefs. If beliefs are changed, attitudes can also change, which can then lead to long-lasting changes in behavior (Cialdini, Petty, and Cacioppo 1981). In sum, persuasion via the central processing route is more likely to produce a long-lasting change in attitude (Cialdini, Petty, and Cacioppo 1981).

Conversely, rather than evaluating the intrinsic aspects of the argument, peripheral route processing involves evaluation of extrinsic elements, or cues, of the message (Cialdini, Petty, and Cacioppo 1981), such as the source providing the argument, the number of arguments presented, and any stimuli that accompany the message (Cacioppo and Petty 1984). Consumers following this route to message processing do not evaluate the message argument for quality, but rather the context in which the message is delivered. In such cases, research has found that beliefs may change, but attitudes typically do not; and if they do the change is usually only temporary (Cacioppo, Harkins, and Petty 1981; Cialdini, Petty, and Cacioppo 1981; Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983). Under low-involvement processing, positive and negative cues are evaluated, such as the number of arguments rather than their quality or the attractiveness of a spokesperson, and have a greater impact on the individual receiving the message (Cacioppo and Petty 1984). For example, when individuals are not motivated to process the message, and the spokesperson, or source, is considered to have positive attributes, persuasiveness of the message is enhanced regardless of its quality (Petty and Cacioppo 1984).

This does not hold for individuals who are motivated, and thus are processing the message with high-involvement and evaluating the message arguments despite the perceived attractiveness of the source. That is not to say consideration of the source is not a factor when messages are being processed through the central route. The president of the university explaining to students that tuition must be raised has proven to be much more persuasive than someone of less perceived expertise (Petty and Cacioppo 1984).

In an effort to extend ELM and heed the call from Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann (1983) to research possible antecedents to central and peripheral processing, a recent study examined the thoughtfulness heuristic as an intervening variable between the amount of information

processing (both perceived and actual) and attitude strength (Barden and Petty 2008). In four experiments, a causal sequence connected antecedents of message elaboration to the strength of the consequences. This and previous research identifies the amount and direction of thinking, as well as meta-cognition (thoughts about thoughts) as mediators in ELM (Brinol and Petty 2006). At the same time, ELM has been extended in terms of antecedent research, with one study finding engagement functions as an antecedent to involvement to determine if it played a role in the effectiveness of message processing using advertisements (Wang 2006). Results showed that engagement increased advertising recall, message involvement, message believability, attitude toward the message, and attitude toward the ad. Further, involvement with the message acted as a mediator on the engagement-believability relationship, as ELM predicts, and attitude toward the message mediates message believability on attitude toward the ad. It total, then, research on ELM has identified the message itself, the source, the receiver, the context, and the channel as antecedents (Brinol and Petty 2006).

In challenging ELM as the best model to evaluate message processing, Kruglanski and Thompson (1999) suggested a single-route for processing of persuasive communications because, they argue, motivation and cognition are impacted similarly no matter how the individual processes the message. As a result, this "unimodel," they argue, offers conceptual, empirical, and practical advantages in the persuasion domain. In the unimodel, it doesn't matter whether the individual is processing messages or cues because neither has a general effect on persuasion, therefore the same overall process takes place (Kruglanski and Thompson 1999). But ELM argues that individuals do process messages differently, and that the central and peripheral routes are capable of explaining processing of both message and nonmessage variables, as well as when motivation is high and low (Petty, Wheeler, and Bizer 1999). Therefore, ELM may

provide a more robust model of message processing than the proposed unimodel. However, both models are based on the concept that the amount of thought by an individual in response to a persuasive message determines not just the magnitude of the persuasion but perhaps more importantly, the strength of the resulting attitude (Barden and Petty 2008).

In sum, research using ELM suggests that attitude changes can occur through either the central or peripheral routes of information processing, take place for different reasons related to the perceived importance of the information to the individual, go through different psychological processes for different people, and have varying long-term consequences (Cialdini, Petty, and Cacioppo 1981). Combining the effectiveness of measures available for the three levels of persuasion with the predictive power of the theory of planned behavior promises possibilities to explain causal relationships in consumer behavior. Because the present research intends to combine TPB with ELM, it seems appropriate, then, to review previous efforts at combining TPB with other processes to develop an integrated theoretical models.

Planned Behavior and Integrated Theoretical Models

There is still some disagreement as to whether researchers working on persuasion theories should focus on just one process or combine multiple processes together as part of their research (Petty, Wheeler, and Bizer 1999). According to Azjen (1991), efforts should be made to develop alternative models that could better describe the relations between beliefs and constructs. The theory of planned behavior "is open to the inclusion of additional predictors if it can be shown that they capture a significant proportion of the variance in intention or behavior" after the variables within the theory are taken into account (Ajzen 1991, p. 199). Researchers

have taken these words to heart and attempted to incorporate various integrated models incorporating TPB and multiple theories.

For example, one study paired TPB and ELM with the transtheoretical change model (TCM) that identifies various degrees of motivation leading towards change (Prochaska and DiClemente 1982) with results showing that attitude could predict the level of processing for messages related to exercise (Rosen 2000). In a somewhat more exotic study, researchers combined TPB with a model developed by the World Health Organization on the international classification of functioning disability and health (Bonetti and Johnston 2008). Results showed significance for the predictiveness of perceived behavioral control and self-efficacy on intention and behavior. Confirming that there are indeed differences between perceived behavioral control and locus of control, results were not significant for the latter on behavior or intention (Bonetti and Johnston 2008).TPB was also tested in conjunction with the spiral of silence theory to determine social influence, particularly that of peers, on one's propensity to express their opinion (Neuwirth and Frederick 2004). Results showed significance for peer influence on the opinion expression behavior, and marginal significance for perception of majority attitude.

In investigating the possibilities of incorporating TPB into a dual-process model of attitude-behavior relationships, Conner and Armitage (1998) posited that attitude toward the behavior may predict intention and behavior when individuals are both motivated and have the opportunity (high perceived behavioral control). But when one or the other is low, attitude toward the behavior may either diminish the probability of the behavior even happening, or may make the behavior more spontaneous. Therefore, a dual-process model like ELM should provide a more comprehensive model for understanding the attitude-behavior relationship (Conner and

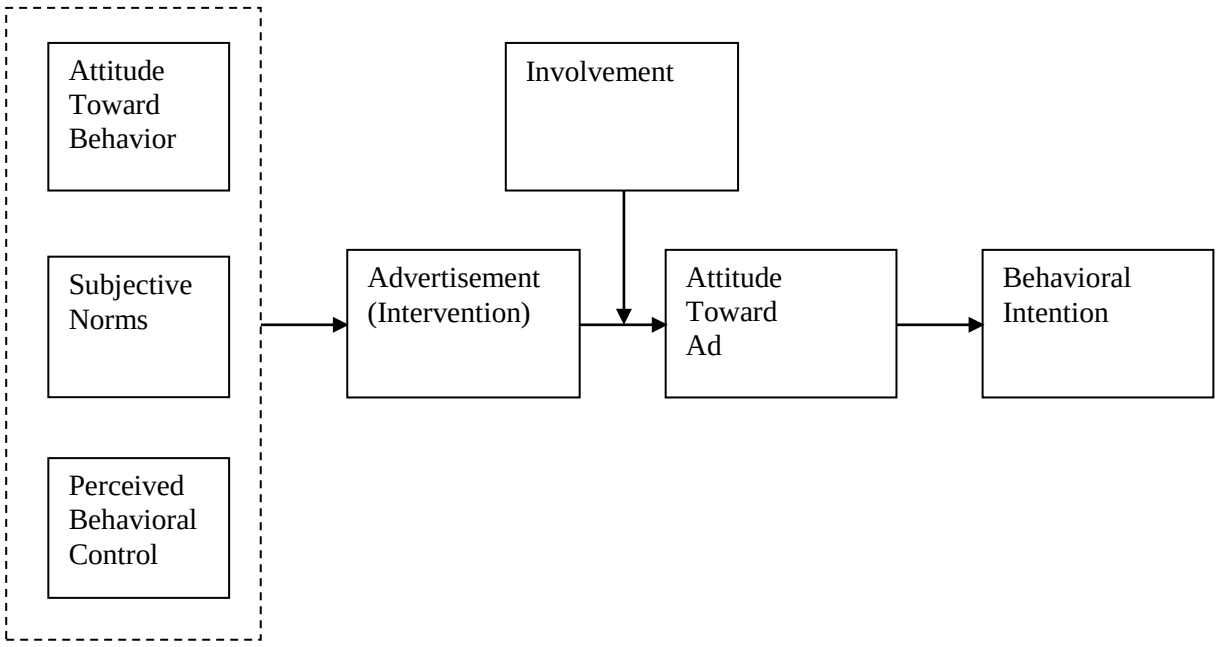
Armitage 1998). They call for more research to determine what processes influence the factors of TPB, and what factors of TPB influence other processes.

In an early effort to evaluate the combined effects of persuasive messages and reasoned action, researchers assigned different groups to listen to taped messages regarding testicular cancer (Brubaker and Fowler 1990). Results showed a significant relationship between exposure to the message and self-reported self-examination for cancer on both behavior and intention. Later, TPB and ELM were combined to verify the effect of persuasive messages on beliefs, attitudes, and intentions regarding nursing care. Valois et al. (2001) demonstrated that persuasive messages could change beliefs and attitudes among nursing students who had to provide care for people living with HIV/AIDS, and that the persuasive communications strategy of modifying behavioral predispositions that they implemented was effective and generated cognitive and affective changes (Valios et al. 2001).

Still, ELM and TPB have not been examined in tandem in an experimental design-based marketing study to explain changes in attitude and behavioral intention through exposure to advertising messages. At best, research has demonstrated that individuals approach a specific topic with pre-determined beliefs that, when combined with their innate message processing abilities, can affect change in behavior. Research in this area has focused on attitudes and beliefs in such topics as affirmative action (White, Charles, and Nelson 2008), organ donation (Bae 2008; Reid and Wood 2008), e-commerce (Lim and Dubinsky 2005), exercise (Boer and Westhoff 2006; Jones et al. 2004; Maddock, Silbanus, and Reger-Nash 2008; Rosen 2000), healthy eating (Chan and Tsang 2011), and transportation options (Beale and Bonsall 2007; Stead et al. 2005).

In combining TPB and ELM into an integrated theoretical model, it proposes that individuals have preexisting beliefs toward donation or volunteering behavior (attitude toward the behavior) and assess their ability to comply with the request when confronted with a persuasive message asking for some contribution (perceived behavioral control), while also considering whether or not referent groups important to the behavior would approve or disapprove of the behavior (subjective norms). Because ELM has demonstrated that individuals process messages (i.e. an intervention) through two routes (central and peripheral) related to involvement, that then shape attitude, it is believed the attitude toward a nonprofit organization's message, along with the preexisting beliefs held by the individual as described in TPB, combine with message processing to shape attitude toward the advertisement and behavioral intention (see Figure 3).

FIGURE 3
An Integrated Theoretical Model of Preexisting Beliefs and Message Processing



Yet, no studies have examined the effects of advertising by nonprofit organizations to change attitudes and behaviors related to support for the cause. A review of research in nonprofit causes relying on precepts from TPB and ELM is therefore warranted.

Attitudes and Behavior in Nonprofit Research

Because nonprofit organizations are dependent on donations and volunteers to remain operational, most rely on marketing messages to inform, educate, and convince recipients of their messaging to support the cause in order to raise funds and generate volunteers. However, research combining attitudes, beliefs, and behavior is extremely limited. To date, only one study (Chan and Tsang 2011) has been found that specifically examines attitude toward an advertisement in conjunction with TPB, and the results were disappointing. One possible explanation is that attitude toward the ad was measured as an antecedent to behavior rather than an outcome of the TPB constructs. In addition, other research has examined different elements of the marketing mix, such as leaflets (Beal and Bonsall 2007; Hill and Abraham 2008), social networking (Boer and Westhoff 2006), word of mouth (Wann-Yih, Huang, and Sou 2009), and a full campaign (Stead et al. 2005) in the context of TPB, with results showing that marketing messages have an effect on attitudes and behaviors toward a cause.

It seems possible then that the constructs contained within TPB – attitude toward the behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control – and their antecedents should shape attitude toward an ad supporting a particular nonprofit organization. However, the method in which individuals process an advertisement also affects their behavior related to that ad (Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983). Persuasion can produce changes in attitude that have a duration that is related to the amount of processing extended by the individual (Cialdini, Petty, and

Cacioppo 1981). As a result, a three-way interaction is expected between involvement with the advertisement, persuasive normative messages, and each direct measure of TPB on behavioral intention, measured as donation intention and volunteer intention. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: When normative message is in the high condition, involvement with the ad and ATB will interact such that: a) when involvement is high, there is a significant difference on behavioral intention between high and low ATB, but b) when involvement is low, behavioral intention will not be significantly different for high and low ATB.

H2: When normative message is in the low condition, no interaction is predicted, but main effects are expected such that high involvement individuals will always have higher behavioral intention than low involvement individuals.

In research specifically examining the intention to donate to a nonprofit organization, Smith and McSweeney (2010) evaluated which norm types (descriptive, injunctive, or moral) would be most effective in determining behavioral intention. All components of TPB were significant predictors of donation intention, as were injunctive and moral norms (descriptive norms being the lone exception). Past behavior was also significant, as were individual differences related to beliefs (Smith and McSweeney 2010). In a similar study extending TPB to include social-psychological variables, van der Linden (2001) found that moral norms, rather than descriptive norms, explained a significant (almost 70%) amount of variance and were the strongest predictor of donation intention. Attitude toward donating and perceived behavioral control were also significant predictors, as was past donation behavior once again. Finally, Dennis, Buchholtz, and Butts (2009) found that corporate donations were mostly tied to a belief held by the chief executive officer that he or she was a philanthropist.

Social norms have been found to predict a positive relationship between donation size and the perceived average size of previous donations, with average donation per individual is

sensitive to whether or not others have given in the past (Martin and Randal 2011). Persuasive messages that contain information about others' giving also influences an individual's donations, and supporting a cause that provide value to one's social network has been found to support self-values (Croson and Shang 2011). In the concept known as conditional cooperation, donation behavior is influenced by the aggregate donation of others, but not by the composition of the donations (Martin and Randal 2011). Therefore, providing social information on the amount previous donors have given increases the amounts that individuals donate when they are told the amount is high (Shang and Croson 2008, 2009), but decrease at twice the rate when information is provided that indicates the amount was lower (Shang and Croson 2008). The more similarities that exist between the potential donor and the previous donor to which the persuasive message is referring, the more impactful the information about the previous donor is to the potential donor (Shang, Reed, and Croson 2008), likewise, the more similar the individual considering the donation is to the source of the message, the strong the effectiveness of the message (Croson and Shang 2011).

This type of information is also effective at influencing donations whether communicated via mail or over the phone, demonstrating the importance of making appeals that are customized to the donor (Croson and Shang 2011). And in support of SLM, individuals conforming to social norms are influenced by evidence of numerous small donations, which cause actual donations to increase in frequency but be smaller on average per donor compared to conditions where the total amount is the same but the number of donations is less (Martin and Randal 2011).

Some research has found evidence for a norm of self-interest, which means individuals expect other peoples' attitudes and behaviors are guided by a personal stake in the issue (Ratner, Zhao, and Clarke (2011). In fact, a personal connection to the cause increases the propensity of

individuals to participate either through financial contribution or volunteering (Green and Cowden 1992; Jenni and Loewenstein 1997) particularly when prospective participants consider nationality of the beneficiaries of their potential support (Kogut and Ritov 2011), while other research has found that caring about an issue does not require being affected by it personally (Small and Simonsohn 2008; Small 2011). Therefore:

H3: When normative message is in the high condition, involvement with the ad and SN will interact such that: a) when involvement is high, there is a significant difference on behavioral intention between high and low SN, but b) when involvement is low, behavioral intention will not be significantly different for high and low SN.

H4: When normative message is in the low condition, no interaction is predicted, but main effects are expected such that high involvement individuals will always have higher behavioral intention than low involvement individuals.

Volunteerism, the other pillar of nonprofit viability, has been researched within the TPB and ELM frameworks as well. Romero and Moya Morales (1997) showed that volunteer intention was significantly related to perceived behavioral control and subjective norms. An extended model including attendance motivation and decision-making related to attendance motivation was tested against TPB and TRA, with results supporting the extended model because of its inclusion of a morals construct (Harrison 1995). This concept was supported when both subjective and behavioral norms were significant predictors of volunteer behavior, as was a construct termed moral obligation (Warburton and Terry 2000). Most recently, beliefs of individuals who do volunteer often were compared to those who do not, with results showing the perceived cost of volunteering and lack of barriers to volunteer, rather than the benefits, was the differentiating factor in volunteer intention (Greenslade and White 2002), thus supporting the importance of perceived behavioral control in volunteer intention. As a result, the following hypotheses predict:

H5: When normative message is in the high condition, involvement with the ad and PBC will interact such that: a) when involvement is high, there is a significant difference on behavioral intention between high and low PBC, but b) when involvement is low, behavioral intention will not be significantly different for high and low PBC.

H6: When normative message is in the low condition, no interaction is predicted, but main effects are expected such that high involvement individuals will always have higher behavioral intention than low involvement individuals.

Finally, ELM predicts behavioral change from attitude change, which takes place when attitudes change (Cialdini, Petty, and Cacioppo 1981; Petty, Cacioppo, and Schumann 1983). If beliefs change, attitudes can change, which leads to long-lasting changes in behavior (Cialdini, Petty, and Cacioppo 1981), which is highly related to behavioral intention. Therefore, a mediated moderation will explore the relationship between the interaction of involvement and each of the three TPB constructs in anticipation that A_{ad} will mediate the effects of the interaction on behavioral intention when normative message is in the high condition, but not when normative message is in the low condition.

Study 2 duplicates the efforts of Study 1, with the only difference being the manipulation of SLM rather than perceived norms. Therefore, a three-way interaction is also expected between SLM messages, involvement with the advertisement, and each direct measure of TPB on behavioral intention, measured as donation intention and volunteer intention. The following hypotheses provide further detail:

H7: When SLM messages are present, involvement with the ad and ATB will interact such that: a) when involvement is high, there is a significant difference on behavioral intention between high and low ATB, but b) when involvement is low, behavioral intention will not be significantly different for high and low ATB.

H8: When SLM messages are not present, however, no interaction is predicted, but main effects are expected such that high involvement individuals will always have higher behavioral intention than low involvement individuals.

H9: When SLM messages are present, involvement with the ad and SN will interact such that: a) when involvement is high, there is a significant difference on

behavioral intention between high and low SN, but b) when involvement is low, behavioral intention will not be significantly different for high and low SN.

H10: When SLM messages are not present, however, no interaction is predicted, but main effects are expected such that high involvement individuals will always have higher behavioral intention than low involvement individuals.

H11: When SLM messages are present, involvement with the ad and PBC will interact such that: a) when involvement is high, there is a significant difference on behavioral intention between high and low PBC, but b) when involvement is low, behavioral intention will not be significantly different for high and low PBC.

H12: When SLM messages are not present, however, no interaction is predicted, but main effects are expected such that high involvement individuals will always have higher behavioral intention than low involvement individuals.

In addition, a mediated moderation will explore the relationship between the interaction of involvement and each of the three TPB constructs in anticipation that A_{ad} will mediate the effects of the interaction on behavioral intention when SLM messages are present, but not when SLM messages are absent.

In sum, the hypotheses propose an integrated theoretical model of how individuals approach processing of a persuasive message delivered by an NPO. The following section discusses the methodology to be used in validating these hypotheses. Specifically, it explains how TPB in the context of nonprofit attitudes and beliefs, and individual process mechanisms related to ELM based on high and low involvement, can affect donation and volunteer intention when an advertisement contains a specific persuasive message.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS AND MEASUREMENT

To test the hypotheses that predict attitude toward the advertisement through a combination of message processing and preexisting beliefs, as well as behavioral intention related to donations and volunteerism, a between-subjects experimental design approach will be used. Following previous research (Cialdini and Schroeder 1976; Dolinski et al. 2005; Perrine and Heather 2000; Shearman and Yoo 2007), SLM will be manipulated to determine if the message defining acceptable behavior affects contributions to a nonprofit organization. In testing the constructs within the theory of planned behavior to determine if preexisting beliefs impact behavioral intention related to an NPO, normative manipulations norms will similarly be tested to prior efforts examining TPB (Kallgren, Reno, and Cialdini 2000; Smith and Louis 2008; Trafimow and Fishbein 1994; White, Hog, and Terry 2002; White et al. 2009) and specifically in a nonprofit context (Martin and Randal 2011; Smith and McSweeney 2010; van der Linden 2001).

Two pre-tests will be conducted to determine what messages resonate with potential donors and volunteers. The first will consist of a qualitative review of existing NPO advertisements found in an online setting to determine two key components: 1) most commonly used format for nonprofit advertisements; and 2) most commonly used phrasing of messages asking for contributions. Content analysis of NPO ads found online will be conducted by the researcher and analyzed for repetition in format and messaging. While having a single researcher conduct the analysis poses some reliability issues, research based on the interpretivist method is vital if the researcher is interested in exploration, description, comparison, or testing of models

(Bernard and Ryan 2010). Intercoder reliability, by using multiple coders, can help to some extent, and Cohen's kappa can be used to statistically measure the reliability.

Manipulation Testing

Once the appropriate format of the advertisement has been determined as well as identification of possible messages, a second pre-test will evaluate the SLM and normative message manipulations. Because the message "even a penny" has been used extensively in SLM manipulations, and was a determining factor for inclusion in the meta-analysis by Andrews et al. (2008), it will be used in this research as well. The "even a dollar" message was used in the original SLM research (Cialdini and Schroeder 1976), with results demonstrating that "even a penny" was significantly more successful in generating donations than "even a dollar." The latter will be used in the second pre-test for the present research to determine if three-and-a-half decades later, the differences still hold. Any other messages that emerge from the content analysis of the ads used by NPOs today will also be part of the SLM manipulation pre-test, as will a control group that receives no such message.

To manipulate norms, three options from previous research on donation intention are available for consideration – conditional cooperation manipulations, prescriptive normative manipulations, or manipulations of descriptive, injunctive, and moral norms. These options exist because both conditional cooperation and subjective norms can predict a positive relationship between donation size and the perceived typical donation (Martin and Randal 2011). In manipulating classical cooperation, where donation behavior is influenced by the aggregate donations of others but not by the composition of donations, messages could say "Contributors have helped us raise X to date" versus "To reach the X mark, contributors have given $A, $B,

and $C." Because numerous small donations should cause actual donations to be more frequent and smaller than in treatments with a small number of bills with the same total value, other classical cooperation manipulations could say "Everyone giving their spare change has helped us reach $X" versus "Everyone giving $A to $C has helped us reach $X."

Classical cooperation manipulations were used successfully to demonstrate the power of subjective normative behavior when Martin and Randall (2011) manipulated signage at a donation box and found that the decision to donate is driven by the "cost" of a favorable social comparison. Cost of a favorable social comparison means individuals estimate how many people have given and consider the average donation size. Then they decided whether or not to donate based on how much they are prepared to give – what the researchers call the "intrinsic donation" – and how it compares to perceived normative behavior. If the intrinsic donation is small relative to perceived donations, prospective donors typically do not donate so they don't look bad; but will be more likely to donate if their intrinsic donation is large compared to previous donations (Martin and Randall 2011).

Manipulations of normative prescriptions are much simpler and typically consist of providing generalized versus specific information about key referents to the individual. For example, to manipulate such norms, participants in one study (Trafimow and Fishbein 1994) were instructed to consider that the person most affected by their action thought they should or should not perform the behavior. *Generalized* normative prescriptions used in the research indicated that most people who were important to the research participant thought the participant (should/should not) participate (give/not give) to the cause, and *specific* normative prescriptions that said the person most affected by this action thought the research participant (should/should not) perform the action. This type of manipulation can be effective because, among other

reasons, research has found that individuals perceive it to be rational and compelling for those who support an NPO to be motivated by some personal experience related to the organization's cause, which has the effect of discouraging others from participating with causes to which they do not have a clear personal connection (Ratner, Zhao, and Clarke 2011).

Finally, there are extensive examples of research manipulating descriptive, injunctive, and moral norms, as previously discussed in chapter 2. However, the present research will follow the method used by Smith and Louis (2008) when using empirical efforts to distinguish between conceptualizations of descriptive and injunctive norms. In their research, they examined injunctive norms by suggesting to the participant a proportion of the people who approve of the behavior (e.g. 73% for high approval, and 29% for low approval). When examining descriptive norms, the same proportions were used to describe how many people participated in the behavior (73% performance versus 29% performance).

While previous research (Slovic 2007; Small, Loewenstein, and Slovic 2007) has found that providing statistics can inhibit giving because the statistics make potential donors consider the information analytically rather than emotionally – which has proven to be effective in motivating donors (Anik, Aknin, Norton, and Dann 2011; Kogut and Ritov 2011; Small 2011) – the methodology used by Smith and Louis (2008) was based on the group-norm approach to social identity, in which perceived norms of a group in which an individual identifies himself or herself has a significant effect on behavioral intentions. If individuals have a positive attitude toward the behavior, the relationship between attitude and behavior will be strong if they perceive the behavior is supported by the referent group, and weak if they perceive the opposite. When it comes to TPB's normative construct, the type of behavior in question should be considered (Trafimow and Fishbein 1994) as should the degree of external pressure to perform

the behavior (Lim and Dubinsky 2005). Testing manipulations for descriptive and injunctive norms using the described method (Smith and Louis 2008) should meet this criteria.

Development of Advertisements

Based on the results of the first pre-test identifying format and possible new SLM messages used by NPOs today, broadcast-quality ads will be developed for each manipulation, leading to a minimum of seven ads to be tested – two testing descriptive norms, two testing injunctive norms, two testing SLM with both "even a penny" and "even a dollar" being examined, and one control that will have neither normative nor SLM manipulations. Any new SLM messages discovered via the analysis of pre-test one will be used to create additional advertisements.

While analysis from the first pre-test will dictate the form of the NPO advertisements to be tested in the second pre-test, the steps recommended by Rucker and Petty (2006) will be followed to producing effective persuasive communications in a nonprofit context. These steps include:

1. Estimate the likely elaboration level of the audience on the basis of whether it has a propensity to scrutinize messages carefully.
2. Evaluate the message characteristics to determine if it will be processed as strong arguments, powerful peripheral cues, or both.
3. Determine if the objectives are to produce long-lasting or short-term attitude changes.
4. Evaluate if there is a fit between audience elaboration level and the message information to determine if it can create the desired attitude changes.
5. Test the message experimentally under certain conditions: 1) comparing the message to alternative messages or control groups that get no message; and 2) attitudes, attitude certainty, and thoughts about the message topic should be measured.
6. Determine whether or not the message is effective based on it achieving the intended effects.

In previous research related to nonprofit giving and volunteering, emotions such as sadness and fear associated with the cause were found to be significant predictors of future behavior toward the cause (Allen, Machleit, and Kleine 1992). Because affect can influence behavior independently of attitudes, persuasion strategies based on affective rather than cognitive factors might be more effective and appropriate for some issues, and high levels of elaboration may lead to more highly integrated attitude structures (Allen Machleit, and Kleine 1992).

According to previous research on nonprofit giving, the best story that can be told to a prospective donor is to use a single, identifiable victim in order to arouse sympathy (Small 2011) even if the victim does not have any salient "individuating information." This works because people are more apt to make attributions about individuals than groups, respond more quickly to individuals, and recall more information (Kogut and Ritov 2011). In addition, portraying a victim expressing sadness is more effective than portraying happiness or even neutral emotion (Small and Verrochi 2009) because the potential donor watching the portrayal empathizes with the victim, making them more likely to respond (Small 2011). This is enhanced by providing more information about the individual, such as his or her name and photographs (Kogut and Ritov 2011). Based on these findings, advertisements will be developed focusing on an individual affected by a lack of support for the cause, with a name being attributed to the cause, and photographs of the individual showing them in a highly emotive state, such as the example from the Christian Children's Fund of Canada (see Figure 4).

Finally, because previous experience with a particular NPO may act as a covariate in this research (Kidwell and Jewell 2008), a fictitious nonprofit organization will be created as the cause making the contribution requests.

FIGURE 4
Advertisement Showing a Victim in a Highly Emotive State

Evaluating TPB Constructs

The second pre-test will also contain testing of the items within the constructs of TPB as recommended by Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) as well as provide an opportunity to capture more salient nomological items for use in final data gathering. It is recommended that behavior of interest be clearly defined in terms of its target, action, context, and time elements (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010). In this research, donation behavior is defined as "making a personal financial contribution to an organization in exchange for a non-tangible return." As the research will be measuring intention (intent to donate) rather than behavior (actual donations), time is not relevant. However, the audience for the research is citizens living in a large metropolitan area in the United States because the context for the research will be donating to an NPO with a cause of

improving metropolitan infrastructures. The second pre-test will use a small sample of individuals representative of the research population to elicit readily accessible behavioral outcomes, normative referents, and control factors. This will be done individually online in a free response format.

For direct measures, 8 to 12 items will be developed to asses each of TPB's major constructs – attitude, perceived norm, perceived behavioral control, and intention. To measure these, semantic differential scales will be used because it has been demonstrated that affectively oriented attitude scales such as semantic differential predict behavior better than more cognitively oriented scales (Bagozzi and Burnkrant 1979). Also following previous research (see chapter 2), the 7-point bipolar adjective scales used to measure each construct will be compatible with the behavioral criterion and be self-directed. The data obtained will be used to select reliable and valid items for use in final data collection. Each set of items designed to directly assess a construct must have a high degree of internal consistency (i.e. a high alpha coefficient as measured using Cronbach's alpha), and measures of different constructs will be tested for discriminant validity. However, internal consistency is not a requirement of the behavioral, normative, and control belief composites because different accessible beliefs may be inconsistent with each other (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010). Confirmatory factory analysis will also be used to evaluate the quality of the scales to be included in final data collection.

Because respondents can often provide adjectives that are more salient for each construct, individuals will be asked in the pre-test to provide cognitive responses to questions eliciting thoughts related to behavioral intention, normative behavior, and control factors related to making contributions to nonprofit organizations. This method follows recommendation from

Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) for TPB questionnaire construction. For example, to elicit salient intentions, respondents will be asked:

1. What do you see as the advantages to donating or volunteering for this nonprofit?
2. What do you see as the disadvantages to donating or volunteering for this nonprofit?
3. What else comes to mind when you think about donating or volunteering for this nonprofit?

To elicit salient normative referents, respondents will be told that when it comes to donating or volunteering for the NPO depicted in the advertisement, there might be individuals or groups who would think they should or should not perform this behavior. They will then be asked to:

1. Please list the individuals or groups who would approve or think you should donate or volunteer for this nonprofit.
2. Please list the individuals or groups who would disapprove or think you should not donate or volunteer for this nonprofit.
3. Please list the individuals or groups who are most likely to donate or volunteer for this nonprofit.
4. Please list the individuals or groups who are least likely to donate or volunteer for this nonprofit.

Finally, salient control factors will be elicited by asking respondents to:

1. Please list any factors or circumstances that would make it easy or enable you to donate or volunteer for this nonprofit.
2. Please list any factors or circumstances that would make it difficult or prevent you from donating or volunteering for this nonprofit.

A content analysis of the responses to the above questions will result in a list of modal salient outcomes, referents, and control factors that can then be used to construct items that will be included in the questionnaire used for final data collection.

Previous experience with the behavior in question has been tested in TPB research, and findings show that attitudes and subjective norms predicted intention and behavior when

respondents did not have previous experience, and only attitudes predicting intention when they did (Prislin 1993). However, a meta-analysis on cognitive properties that moderate the attitude-behavior relationship showed direct experience did improve the consistency between intention and behavior (Cooke and Sheeran 2004). It has also been argued that a familiar behavior might activate previously held attitudes or subjective norms, potentially interfering with the manipulations (Trafimow and Fishbein 1994).

However, past behavior should not necessarily be treated as a measure of habit but a reflection of all factors that determine the behavior (Ajzen 1991). The decision to use past behavior depends on research objective and theory (Rhodes and Courneya 2003). Still, the correlation between past and future behavior may demonstrate the reliability of the behavior. It could also be an indication of a residual effect, which could influence habit if habit is not represented in the theory, or it could also indicate factors are missing (Ajzen 1991). Therefore, past behavior will also be measured within the guidelines provided by Fishbein and Ajzen (2010), and the pre-test should help determine whether past behavior is a measure of behavioral reliability, or a problem that needs to be corrected prior to final data collection.

The results of the second pre-test will allow for a better evaluation of the background measures by answering the following questions:

- Do the personality and other individual difference measures have high internal consistency?
- If not, can internal consistency be improved by deleting some of the items?
- Do any of the background variables correlate with intentions or past behavior?
- If not, should they be retained in the final questionnaire?

Dependent Measures

Four variables will be measured as outcomes in this research – donation intention, donation amount, volunteer intention, and attitude toward the advertisement. Donation intention is measured using the semantic differential scale for behavioral intention that captures the self-identified inclination of person to engage in a specific behavior (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010). The scale has been used in numerous studies (see the meta-analysis by Armitage and Conner 2001) and been contextualized for specific purposes, including purchase intention (Bruner and Kumar 2000; MacKensie, Lutz, and Belch 1986), patronage intention (Day and Stafford 1997; Yi 1990), and motivation to try the brand (Machleit, Allen, and Madden 1993).

The 7-point bipolar adjective scales to be used in the present research will be drawn from these existing scales and ask subjects to respond to the statement ""Based on the advertisement I just saw, <u>my donating to</u> the (cause) would be:" with 8 to 12 items such as unlikely/likely, impossible/possible, uncertain/certain, and improbable/probable. It is possible donation intention may produce larger effects than collecting contributions directly from participants, though research on a similar dependent variable, donor pledges, did not result in significantly larger effects (Andres et al. 2008). Volunteer intention will be measured using the same scale as donation intention, though the introductory sentence will be modified to say "*my volunteering for*" rather than "*my donating to*."

Donation amount will be captured on a single-item scale that asks "If you were to make a donation to this nonprofit, how much would give?" While single-item scales are not preferable, single-item scales can avoid psychometric and scaling problems, and can be as good as multi-item measures (Bagozzi 1984; Bergkvist and Rossiter 2007; Lee, Murphy, and Neale 2009). Past

behavior will also be captured using a one-item, 7-point semantic differential scale (true/false) that states “In the past year, I have donated to, or volunteered for, a nonprofit organization.”

To measure attitude toward the advertisement, a scale using bipolar adjectives was initially developed by Mitchell and Olson (1981) and modified multiple times since. While current scales measuring attitude toward the ad capture overall attitude, some argue that it is preferable to capture affective, cognitive, and general evaluations of an ad (Bruner 1998; Crites, Fabrigar, and Petty 1994; Petty, Wegener, and Fabrigar 1997). Therefore, the pre-test questionnaire will capture data from respondents on all three aspects of attitude. Again, scales will be 8 to 12 item bipolar adjectives using a 7-point range.

Independent Measures and Covariates

In addition to the manipulations of normative beliefs and SLM, involvement with the message within the context of ELM will be measured using scales that capture involvement with an advertisement message (Cox and Cox 2001) and involvement with the organization contextualized from an involvement with the brand scale (Kirmani, Sood and Bridges 1999). With the former, 7-point Likert scales are used anchored by strongly agree/strongly disagree to measure the degree to which an individual was interested in and paid attention to an ad to which he or she was recently exposed. The latter scale measures the degree to which an individual found an organization compelling.

Several covariates will be measured to account for possible variances in the final analyses. Because findings show that guilt arousal is positively related to donation intention (Hibbert et al. 2007) it will be important to account for it using the guilt and shame proneness scale (Cohen et al. 2011). Because the context for the research will be donating to an NPO with a

cause of improving metropolitan infrastructures to improve health and quality of life, attitudes toward environmentalism must be accounted for. Moreover, proenvironmental behavior in TPB research has been shown to have some effect on behavioral intention (Staats 2003; Trumbo and O'Keefe 2001), and affective processing might be particularly effective on proenvironmental topics (Allen Machleit, and Kleine 1992). Therefore, the environmental concern scale (Weigel and Weigel 1978) will be used to address that issue.

Even though the impact of questionnaire format and social desirability has been found to be minimal in TPB research (Armitage and Conner 1999), and experimenter scrutiny had only a small effect on propensity to donate (Martin and Randal 2011), it can lead to prosocial behavior and/or greater conformity to perceived social norms. Therefore social desirability bias will be measured using the Crowne and Marlow (1960) summated ratings scale that measures the degree to which people describe themselves in socially acceptable terms in an effort to gain approval from others. Attitude toward charitable organizations (Webb, Green, and Brashear 2000) will also be measured to determine participants' beliefs about the role nonprofit organizations play in society, as will believability in the advertisement and cause using the believability of the information scale (Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran 2000) to measure the extent to which respondents feel the information in the NPO ad is true and acceptable. Finally, the questionnaire in the second pre-test will include manipulation checks and demographic measures.

Data Collection and Analysis

Following the second pre-test, all of the manipulations will be assessed using the manipulations checks to determine significant differences between manipulations leading to a final questionnaire with four manipulations: 1) *high* descriptive or injunctive norms; 2) *low*

descriptive or injunctive norms; 3) *presence of* SLM; 4) *absence* of SLM. These manipulations will be used in two studies to test the effects of normative messages and SLM messages on attitude toward the advertisement, and its relationship to behavioral intention. Each study will analyze the data by grouping participants based on manipulated messages. Study 1 will manipulate the normative messages to create a three-way interaction for each of the TPB constructs in a 2 (norms: high vs. low) x 2 (TPB: high vs. low) x 2 (involvement: high vs. low) between subjects, full factorial experimental design for final data collection. Because there are three constructs within TPB, Study 1 will have three three-way interactions. Study 2 will follow a similar procedure except that SLM will be manipulated, creating a 2 (SLM: present vs. absent) x 2 (TPB: high vs. low) x 2 (involvement: high vs. low) between subjects, full factorial experimental design again with three such interactions.

All constructs will be analyzed for reliability and validity, and in conjunction with results of the qualitative analysis of the cognitive responses, a final set of items will be developed for each component of the TPB model and entered into a questionnaire for online delivery. Results from final collection will be analyzed using multiple regression on attitude toward the ad in relation to planned behavior and donation/volunteer intention.

Interdependence in the belief constructs of TPB has been discovered, specifically between attitudinal and normative constructs, and from perceived behavioral control and norms (Lim and Dubinsky 2005). This interdependence may alter the magnitude of significance for each construct on donation intention, meaning specific constructs within TPB may have a more significant relationship with intention than others, but when total effects are compared, another construct may be more significant. Therefore, interdependence will be evaluated and accounted for in the final analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

To initiate empirical testing of the 12 hypotheses, two pre-tests were first conducted to determine proper format for the proposed advertisements, and to test potential message manipulations. Results of the pre-tests were then used to develop the ads used in two studies. Study 1 examines effects of different normative messages, while Study 2 examines effects of the presence or absence of messages that express social legitimization of the minimum. Results of the two pre-tests and two studies follow.

Pre-test 1 – Data Collection and Analysis

To initiate testing, a pre-test was conducted using a content analysis of existing NPO advertisements to determine the most commonly used advertisement style by nonprofit organizations, as well as the most commonly used messages that ask for donations. A search of ads from such organizations was conducted online using Google search engine and YouTube search capabilities. A total of 125 ads from a variety of nonprofit organizations were sampled, and their content was analyzed for length, use of imagery, use of text, music, spokespeople, voice over, and appeal messages related to donating or volunteering (see Appendix B).

Advertisements ranged in length from 10 seconds to 3 minutes, with most either 30 seconds (36.0%) or 60 seconds (34.4%) long. Visual imagery included video (70.4%), still photography (19.2%), and animation (9.6%) used in both color and black-and-white format. Of the 125 ads viewed, only three (2.4%) did not use on-screen text to convey some, or all, of the message. Sometimes text cues appeared with the visual imagery (32.0%), while others appeared on a blank screen (57.6%) that were either black or white backgrounds and had no other context

except the text, while a small number (8.8%) had text appearing with both the visual images and on a blank screen.

In analyzing the auditory components of the advertisements, a substantial number (76.0%) featured a musical component, while almost half (43.4%) used off-screen voice over talent to deliver information and/or the appeal request message (e.g. Habitat for Humanity, Make a Wish Foundation, United Way), and fewer (24.0%) using an on-screen spokesperson (e.g. American Cancer Society's "Happy Birthday" campaign featuring numerous musical artists performing individually, and the Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Animals featuring Sarah McLaghlan). Some nonprofits (e.g. Amnesty International, World Wildlife Fund) consistently opted for ads featuring neither (36.8%) while few ads (e.g. ChildFund, Save the Children) used a combination of both (4.0%). Because no one combination of format was dominant, for the purpose of this research, a combination of still image photography and text on the screen accompanied by music will be used. This decision was made on the basis that additional research (e.g. Barnett and Hammond 1999; Isen and Noonberg 1979; Perrine and Heather 2000; Thornton et al. 1991) shows that pictorial display is often used in nonprofit advertising to create effects of vividness. However, future research may be designed to determine why NPOs used specific formats in their advertisements.

In analyzing messages, it was discovered that most NPO ads (70.4%) do not include contribution requests. This may work to their benefit, particularly if the nonprofit is well-known as research has shown that knowing a great deal about an NPO and its cause can hurt donations (Smith and Schwartz 2012). When they did make specific requests for donations, a variety of messages were used (e.g. "Your $10 a month," "For 80 cents a day," "All it takes is $20 a month," "Give now," "For less than a cup of coffee each day," and "Text 'fit' to give $5"). The

phraseology that appeared more often was a temporal framing "for less than *X amount over a certain time period*," which has been leveraged by nonprofit organizations making donation requests in this analysis 54.1% of the time. Specifically, the phrase "For less than a dollar a day" was used in 13.5% of the donation messages using this specific phraseology, and is even used by some for-profit organizations (e.g. Physicians Mutual www.dentalforallofus.com), and was therefore chosen to be part of this research.

Pre-test 2 – Advertisement Development

Because a key step in developing effective messages is comparing the desired message with a no-message control or with alternative messages (Rucker and Petty 2006), a second pre-test was initiated to compare potential message manipulations. After determining format and message options based on the analysis of the first pre-test, a professional advertising agency (RD&F Advertising, www.rdfadvertising.com) developed eight different versions of a 2-minute, broadcast-quality advertisement to test each manipulation. Because previous experience with a particular NPO may act as a covariate in this research (Kidwell and Jewell 2008), a fictitious nonprofit named the Better Cities Coalition – whose "mission" is to make cities more livable by improving infrastructure through development of better block designs, bike routes, and pedestrian zones – was created to "make" the contribution requests (see Figure 5).

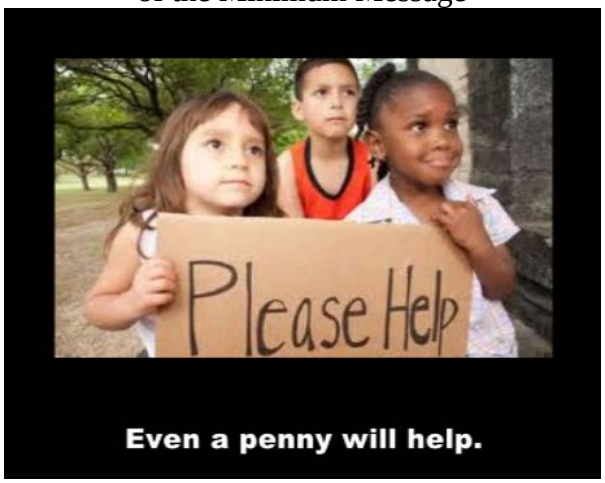
In addition, portraying a victim expressing sadness is more effective than portraying positive or neutral emotions (Small and Verrochi 2009), and also because potential donors empathizes with an identified victim, making them more likely to respond (Small 2011). This was enhanced by providing the child's name and showing images of the child in a state of sadness, which has also been demonstrated to increase the likelihood of an individual to respond

(Kogut and Ritov 2011). The final versions of the advertisements focus on an affected individual named “Ricky” and show him in a highly emotive state (see Figure 6). The second pre-test also evaluated SLM manipulations using “even a penny” (see Figure 7) and “even a dollar” messages (Cialdini and Schroeder 1976), as well as the “for less than a dollar a day” message that emerged from the first pre-test.

FIGURE 5
A Fictitious Nonprofit Organization was Created for the Advertisement

FIGURE 6
All Ads Focused on an Individual in a Highly Emotive State

FIGURE 7
Advertisement with the Social Legitimization of the Minimum Message



This research adopted Smith and Louis' (2008) conceptualizations of descriptive norms by indicating a percentage of participation rates (73% for high, and 29% for low) and injunctive norms (using the same percentages) to describe approval of a behavior (see Figures 8-9) to test normative message manipulations. The second pre-test also measured three outcome variables – donation intention, donation amount, and attitude toward the advertisement – and followed the methodology described in the previous section in evaluating the items within the constructs for the Theory of Planned Behavior.

FIGURE 8
Advertisement with *High* Injunctive Norm Message

FIGURE 9
Advertisement with *Low* Injunctive Norm Message

Pre-test 2 – Data Collection and Analysis

Data for the second pre-test were collected in an online questionnaire distributed via email and social network sites, resulting in a final sample size of 235 with mean age 49.5 (*SD* = 16.28, range = 18-82) that was 40.6% male (*N* = 126). The manipulations were analyzed using a one-way ANOVA, finding a significant difference (*F(1, 80)* = 5.168, *p* = .026) between high (*M* = 4.40) and low (*M* = 3.68) injunctive normative manipulations, but no significance between high and low descriptive norms (*p* = .740). Therefore, injunctive normative messages were chosen as the manipulation for Study 1. It could be speculated that the reason the injunctive norm message worked while the descriptive norm message did not was because the NPO in the advertisement was fictitious, and therefore respondents simply did not believe people where they live had contributed to an organization of which the respondents had never heard. However, discovering why one normative message was significant and the other was not is not the focus of this research, but does provide an impetus for future studies.

Analysis also showed significant differences (*F*(1,51) = 6.211, *p* = .016) between "even a penny" appeal (*M* = 2.13) and a control group (*M* = 3.26), as well as significance (*F*(1, 57), *p* = .020) between "even a dollar" (*M* = 2.28) and the control group (*M* = 3.33). There was no significance (*p* = .167) between "for less than a dollar a day" and the control group, meaning a donation request message commonly used by NPOs today does not appear to be successful with audiences. This may be because research has shown that if behavioral influence techniques are overused, consumers will easily identify them and turn against any entity who relies on them (Mowen and Minor 2006). It is also interesting that the "even a dollar" message was significant, as this was not the case in the initial research conducted by Cialdini and Schroeder (1976). One could surmise that the 36-year time lapse between studies is a potential cause insofar as

audiences in 2012 may view a dollar as a minimum donation. However, only future research can determine the actual cause as that was not the intent of this research. Therefore, because the "even a penny" manipulation was significant, and because it has been used by most research investigating SLM in the past (Andrews et al. 2008), it will be used in Study 2 of the present research.

Finally, following the methodology recommended by Fishbein and Ajzen (2010), content analysis was performed on the cognitive responses to the questions previously discussed (see Pages 69-70) that are designed to elicit thoughts related to behavioral intention, normative behavior, and control factors related to making contributions to NPOs. It was concluded that respondents did not provide any adjectives that differed greatly from the ones used in the TPB construct measuring attitude toward the behavior. However, in responding to the prompts regarding referents and behavior performance, respondents indicated that "relatives" and "employers" were other individuals or groups who they thought would have an opinion on whether they should or should not perform the behavior. Therefore, these two referents were added to the scale measuring the social approval covariate in the final questionnaire. In addition, when identifying factors or circumstances that would make it easy/difficult or enable/prevent an individual from performing the behavior being measured, respondents mentioned the inability to have complete control over the situation, and the possibility that performing the behavior could be beyond their capabilities. As a result, two additional items were added to the construct measuring perceived behavioral control that read "I have complete control over whether or not I donate to a nonprofit organization," and "Donating to a nonprofit organization is beyond my capabilities."

Final Data Collection and Analysis

To collect data for the two studies, a questionnaire was created with four manipulations: 1) *high* injunctive norms; 2) *low* injunctive norms; 3) *presence* of "even a penny" SLM; 4) *absence* of "even a penny" SLM, for which participants were grouped by manipulation. Study 1 manipulates injunctive normative (IN) messages to create a three-way interaction for each of the TPB variables in a 2 (IN: high vs. low) x 2 (involvement: high vs. low) x 2 (ATB/SN/PBC: high vs. low) between subjects, full-factorial design. Study 2 follows a similar procedure except that SLM is manipulated instead of IN message, with one group seeing the "even a penny" message and the other group seeing no such message.

For the dependent variables, donation intention was measured using the semantic differential scale for behavioral intention (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010) and contextualized for giving behavior. Donation amount is captured on a single-item that asks "If you were to make a donation to this nonprofit, how much would give?" with respondents asked to enter a numerical figure in a dollar amount. While some research questions the use of single-item scales, they have been found to be favorable in avoiding psychometric and scaling problems, and can be as good as multi-item measures (Bagozzi 1984; Bergkvist and Rossiter 2007; Lee, Murphy, and Neale 2009). Volunteer intention was measured using the same semantic differential scale for behavior intention (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010) and contextualized for volunteerism. To measure A_{ad}, the final questionnaire captures affective, cognitive, and general evaluations of an ad (Bruner 1998; Crites et al. 1994; Petty et al. 1997) using 10-item bipolar scales on a 7-point range. In addition, to measure involvement with the ad, scales that capture involvement with an advertisement message (Cox and Cox 2001) and involvement with the cause (Kirmani et al. 1999) were used. Covariates include guilt and shame proneness (Cohen et al. 2011), attitudes toward

environmentalism (Weigel and Weigel 1978), attitude toward charitable organizations (Webb et al. 2000), social approval (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010), and believability of the information (Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran 2000). Finally, the questionnaire includes manipulation checks and demographic measures.

The online questionnaire was delivered to participants from June through October 2012 via private email lists owned by four third-party individuals, and via ResearchNow, a U.S.-based marketing research firm. A total of 631 individuals participated in both studies. Because an independent sample *t*-test found a significant difference (ps < .01) in age between early respondents (the first 50) and late respondents (last 50) for both studies, late-response bias was examined using *t*-tests to compare means for the dependent variables (donation intention, donation amount, volunteer intention) for both groups. In addition, the Gurhan-Canli and Meheswaran (2000) scale measuring believability of the ad was tested as a dependent variable. Results show there was no significant difference between both groups, meaning that response bias did not exist (see Tables 1 and 2).

TABLE 1
Independent-Samples *t*-Tests of Early and Late Respondents – Study 1

Variables	***Group (1=Early; 2=Late)***	***N***	***Mean***	***SD***	***t-value***	***P-value***
Donation Intention	1 2	50 50	4.42 4.43	1.202 1.270	-.045	.913
Donation Amount	1 2	50 50	36.95 42.47	32.448 43.106	-.723	.121
Volunteer Intention	1 2	50 50	4.11 4.26	1.550 1.361	-.503	.124
Believability of the Ad	1 2	50 50	4.92 4.89	1.424 1.372	.107	.625

**** p < .001; *** p < .01; ** p < .05; * p < .10

TABLE 2
Independent-Samples *t*-Tests of Early and Late Respondents – Study 2

Variables	***Group (1=Early; 2=Late)***	***N***	***Mean***	***SD***	***t-value***	***P-value***
Donation Intention	1 2	50 50	4.43 5.14	1.487 1.412	-3.164	.718
Donation Amount	1 2	50 50	39.30 44.96	37.184 58.461	-.578	.108
Volunteer Intention	1 2	50 50	4.11 5.16	1.692 1.402	-3.361	.317
Believability of the Ad	1 2	50 50	4.78 5.68	1.526 1.386	-3.087	.251

**** p < .001; *** p < .01; ** p < .05; * p < .10

Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on all scales. Items were deleted from the scales if they did not satisfy the criteria set by Churchill (1979) and Nunnally (1978). Among the criteria are item-correlations less than 0.30 and cross-loadings on multiple factors, as well as a subjective assessment of the value of the item for the construct. As a result, in Study 1 one item was deleted from the scale measuring guilt. In Study 2, a total of eight items were removed – one item from the scale measuring attitude toward charities, two items from the guilt scale, and five from the environmentalism scale. All scales were also evaluated for reliability using Cronbach's alpha, with each scale exceeding minimums for reliability (Hair et al. 2006). Appendix C summarizes these findings.

Results and Analysis – Study 1

A total of 329 individuals participated in Study 1. After removing respondents who did not complete the questionnaire, did not follow directions, or did not pass the manipulation test, a final sample of 274 individuals (83.3%) was used in the analysis, with age (M = 48.9, SD = 15.5)

and gender (52.4% male) characteristics similar to the pre-test subjects. A one-way ANOVA was used to evaluate the manipulation, with results ($p < .000$) indicating it was successful.

To validate the predictive capabilities of the Theory of Planned Behavior, a regression analysis was conducted with the three TPB constructs as independent variables, and behavioral intention, using the original scale developed by Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) as the dependent variable. The model was significant ($R^2 = .613$, $F = 142.395$, $p < .000$) with all three predictors also significant: attitude toward the behavior ($t = 3.857$, $p < .000$); subjective norms ($t = 9.968$, $p < .000$); and perceived behavioral control ($t = 8.525$, $p < .000$). Regression analysis was also run with donation intention, donation amount, and volunteer intention as the dependent variables, with all models significant, though the model using Fishbein and Ajzen's (2010) general behavioral intention scale proved to be the most robust (see Table 3).

TABLE 3
Regression results for TPB analysis – Study 1

Variables	***B***	***SE***	***Beta***	***R-Sq***	***F***	***t-value***	***P-value***
DV: **Behavioral**	-1.292	.349				-3.698	.000****
Intention	.217	.056	.176	.613	142.365	3.857	.000***
IV: ATB	.501	.050	.429			9.968	.000***
SN	.516	.061	.379			8.525	.000***
PBC							
DV: **Donation**	1.876	.533				3.509	.000***
Intention	.275	.086	.220	.117	11.981	3.202	.002**
IV: ATB	.259	.077	.219			3.370	.001**
SN	- .089	.093	-.064			-.958	.339
PBC							
DV: **Donation**	-9.594	20.739				- .463	.020**
Amount	.856	3.332	.018	.036	3.336	.257	.797
IV: ATB	7.483	2.981	.170			2.510	.013**
SN	1.111	3.595	.022			.309	.758
PBC							
DV: **Volunteer**	2.075	.598				3.469	.000****
Intention	.372	.096	.270	.094	9.349	3.871	.000****
IV: ATB	.183	.086	.140			2.122	.035**
SN	- .190	.104	-.125			-1.833	.068*
PBC							

**** $p < .001$; *** $p < .01$; ** $p < .05$; * $p < .10$

However, the predictor variables showed differing levels of significance, which is expected when analyzing data pertaining to TPB as attitude toward the behavior (ATB), subjective norms (SN), and perceived behavioral control (PBC) are expected to vary across situations and between individuals (Ajzen 1991). While SN was consistently significant for all dependent variables, the others fluctuated with ATB significant for donation intention ($p = .002$) and volunteer intention ($p < .000$), but not donation amount, and PBC only significant for behavioral intention ($p < .000$) and volunteer intention ($p = .068$). The weakest model is with donation amount as the outcome variable ($R^2 = .036$, $F(3,270) = 3.336$, $p = .020$), with only SN a significant predictor ($p = .001$), but enough so that the model overall was significant. In sum, the results show that all dependent variables in the study are appropriate for use in this study based on the Theory of Planned Behavior.

Hypotheses Testing – Study 1

To test H1-H6, the following steps were implemented. First, each model was evaluated for a significant three-way interaction between one of the TPB predictors, involvement with the advertisement, and the study's manipulation through regression analysis using the PROCESS computational tool for SPSS (Hayes 2012). In this way, the statistical model takes the form of a linear equation (Aiken and West 1991; Hayes 2012), which can be expressed as

$$Y = b_0 + b_1X + b_2W + b_3Z + b_4XW + b_5XZ + b_6WZ + b_7XWZ + e$$

where XWZ represents the three-way interaction between the independent variables. When inserting the variables of interest for this study, the equations read

$$(1)\ DI = b_0 + b_1ATB + b_2\ INV_{ad} + b_3MANIP + b_4ATB*INV_{ad} + b_5ATB*MANIP + b_6INV_{ad}*MANIP + b_7ATB*INV_{ad}*MANIP + e$$

$$(2)\ DI = b_0 + b_1SN + b_2INV_{ad} + b_3MANIP + b_4SN*INV_{ad} + b_5SN*MANIP +$$

$$b_6INV_{ad}*MANIP + b_7SN*INV_{ad}*MANIP + e$$

$$(3)\ DI = b_0 + b_1PBC + b_2INV_{ad} + b_3MANIP + b_4SN*INV_{ad} + b_5PBC*MANIP + b_6INV_{ad}*MANIP + b_7PBC*INV_{ad}*MANIP + e$$

where

DI: Donation Intention

INV_{ad}: Involvement with the advertisement

MANIP: Manipulation

ATB: Attitude toward the behavior

SN: Subjective norms

PBC: Perceived behavioral control

Additional equations were analyzed using donation amount (DAmt) and volunteer intention (VI) replacing donation intention as the dependent variable, while maintaining all independent variables from equations 1-3. Results of this analysis can be found in Table 4.

TABLE 4
Three-way Interaction Results – Study 1

Model	***Dependent Variable***	***B***	***SE***	***R-Sq***	***F***	***t-value***	***P-value (Interaction)***
1	DV: **Donation Intention** IV: ATB INVad MANIP	-.189	.079	.514	22.967	-2.394	.017**
2	DV: **Donation Amount** IV: ATB INVad MANIP	-7.342	3.790	.187	4.993	-1.937	.043**
3	DV: **Volunteer Intention** IV: ATB INVad MANIP	-.147	.094	.662	16.965	-1.568	.118
4	DV: **Donation**	-.122	.074	.512	22.773	-1.640	.102

	Intention IV: SN INVad MANIP						
5	DV: **Donation Amount** IV: SN INVad MANIP	-4.585	3.570	.182	4.843	-1.284	.200
6	DV: **Volunteer Intention** IV: SN INVad MANIP	-.075	.090	.420	15.762	-.840	.402
7	DV: **Donation Intention** IV: PBC INVad MANIP	-.040	.109	.513	22.907	-.364	.716
8	DV: **Donation Amount** IV: PBC INVad MANIP	-4.387	5.219	.188	5.042	-.841	.401
9	DV: **Volunteer Intention** IV: PBC INVad MANIP	-.127	.130	.434	16.674	-.982	.327

**** p < .001; *** p < .01; ** p < .05; * p < .10

Attitude toward the behavior proved to be the best predictor of all the independent variables, being involved in significant three-way interactions with the advertisement type (MANIP) and INV_{ad} for both donation intention (p = .017) and donation amount (p = .043). These results provide initial support for H1 and H2. Volunteer intention was not a significant outcome variable for any of the three-way interactions. And because neither subjective norms nor perceived behavioral control were significant as part of a three-way interaction with the advertisement type and INV_{ad}, H3, H4, H5 and H6 are not supported, and neither SN nor PBC

will not be part of the analysis going forward. The covariates attitude toward charities and guilt were not significant (*p*s > .10) for either Model 1 or Model 2, and will also not be part of analysis going forward. However, environmentalism ($p = .032$) and social approval ($p < .000$) were significant for Model 1, and social approval ($p = .029$) was significant for Model 2, and will therefore be included in the next phase of the analysis.

Based on these results, and to further test the hypotheses, Models 1 and 2 were analyzed in the next step in which respondents from each model with a significant three-way interaction were divided into groups based on which manipulation they observed. Subjects were analyzed for significant two-way interactions between the TPB predictors and INV_{ad} for those who saw the high injunctive norm message versus those saw the low IN message using the Aiken and West (1991) methodology for slope analysis. Statistical equations (Hayes and Matthes 2009) for analysis in this research are

$$(4) \qquad DI = b_0 + b_1ATB + b_2\, INV_{ad} + b_3ATB*INV_{ad} + e$$

$$(5) \qquad DAmt = b_0 + b_1ATB + b_2\, INV_{ad} + b_3ATB*INV_{ad} + e$$

with calculations repeated for both high and low IN message groups.

Results of the analysis (see Table 5) indicate that type of IN message has a significant effect on the interaction of ATB and INV_{ad} for both donation intention ($t = 3.488$, $p < .000$) and

TABLE 5
Interaction Results – Study 1

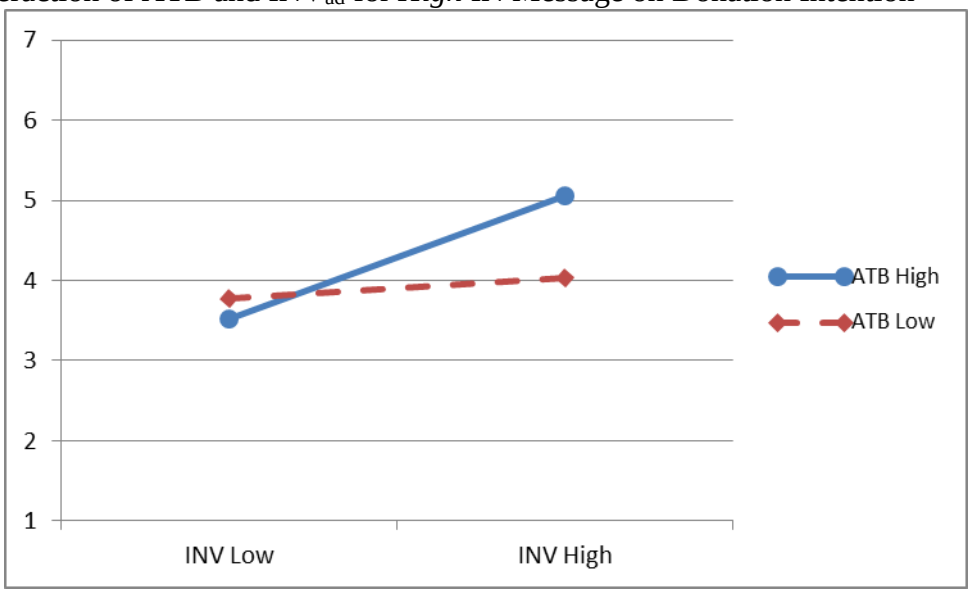
Dependent Variable	Group (1= High IN; 2 = Low IN)	N	B	SE	R-Sq	F	t-value	P-value (Interaction)
DV: Donation Intention IV: ATB INVad ATB* INVad	1 2	143 131	.190 -.040	.054 .052	.572 .441	46.007 19.707	3.488 - .764	.001*** .447
DV: Donation	1	143	7.191	3.211	.200	11.523	2.240	.027**

Amount IV: ATB INVad ATB* INVad	2	131	.114	1.921	.100	4.704	.060	.953

**** p < .001; *** p < .01; ** p < .05; * p < .10

donation amount (t = 2.240, p = .027) when individuals view the high IN message, but not when they view the low IN message (ps > .05). That is, individuals high in ATB have a greater response to the high IN messages than those who are low ATB when their involvement is high (M_{HIGH} = 5.068, M_{LOW} = 4.044) than when their involvement is low (M_{HIGH} – 3.526, M_{LOW} = 3.785) for donation intention (see Figure 10). Social approval proved to be a significant covariate for the high IN group (p = .049) as well as the low IN group (p = .000) in which donation intention is the outcome variable. However, environmentalism was not significant as a covariate for the high IN group but was for the low IN group (p = .026).

FIGURE 10
Interaction of ATB and INV_{ad} for *High* IN Message on Donation Intention



Model 2 reacted similarly to Model 1 for donation amount (see Figure 11) when comparing high INV_{ad} (M_{HIGH} = 57.502, M_{LOW} = 28.001) versus low INV_{ad} (M_{HIGH} = 14.631,

M_{LOW} = 31.890), thus H1 is supported. Unlike the first model, though, none of the covariates were significant (*p*s > .10). In addition, a main effect was found for involvement in the low IN condition for donation intention ($F(5,125) = 19.707$, $t = -1.257$ $p < .106$), providing support for H2 (see Figure 12).

FIGURE 11
Interaction of ATB and INV_{ad} for *High* IN Message on Donation Amount

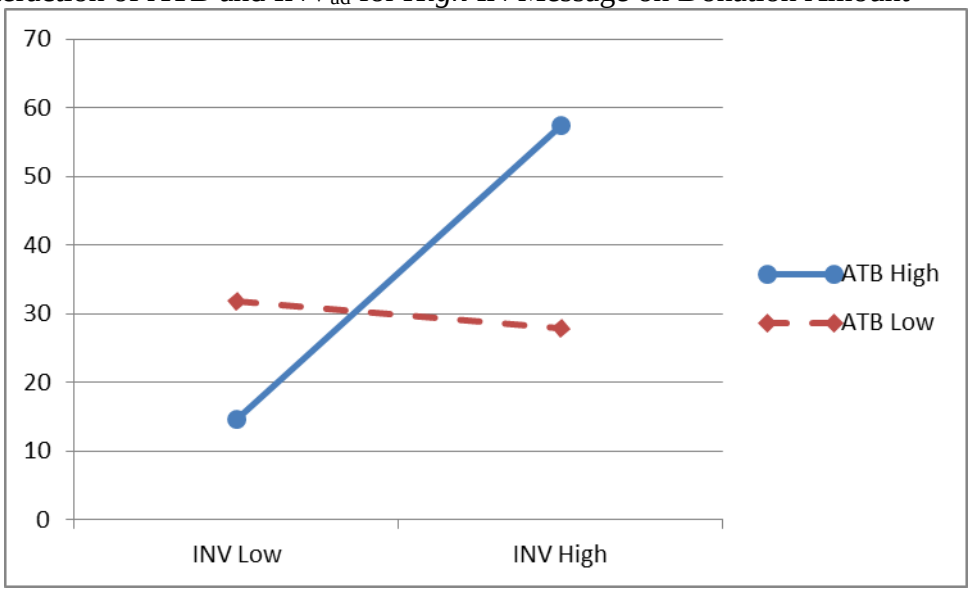
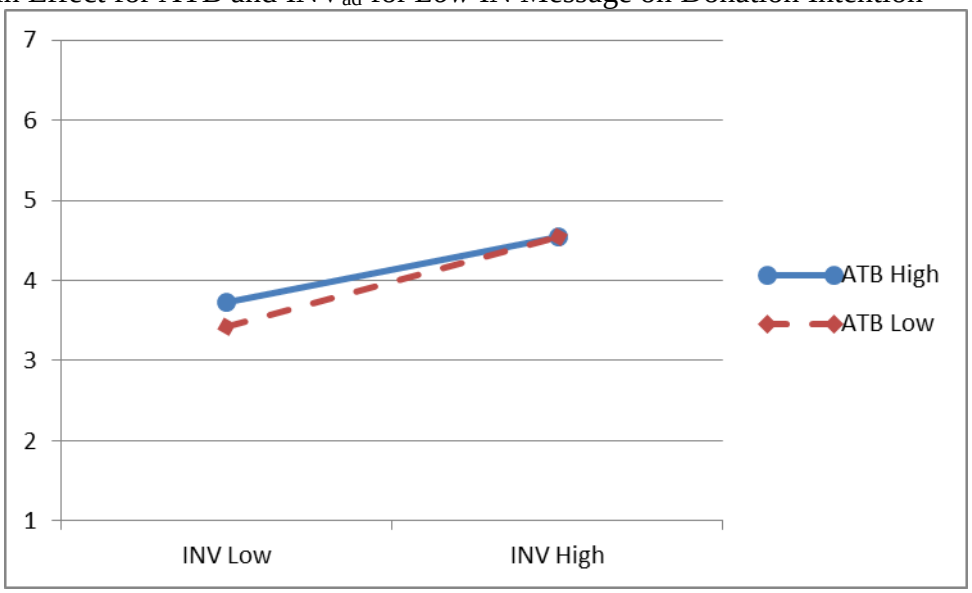


FIGURE 12
Main Effect for ATB and INV_{ad} for *Low* IN Message on Donation Intention



While no main effect was found statistically for involvement and ATB on donation amount in the low IN condition ($p > .05$), INV_{ad} appears to affect behavioral intention in that individuals highly involved donated more money ($ATB_{HIGH} = 52.370$, $ATB_{LOW} = 54.966$) than those with low involvement ($ATB_{HIGH} = 26.313$, $ATB_{LOW} = 30.011$). Interestingly, individuals low in ATB consistently donated more in the low IN condition. In sum, these results help demonstrate that normative messages may significantly affect the donation behavior of individuals who are pre-disposed to donating, but only if they are highly involved with the advertisement. Results of all hypotheses testing can be found in Table 6.

TABLE 6
Results of Hypotheses Testing – Study 1

Hypothesis	Independent Variables	Dependent Variables	Result
H1	ATB INVad ATB*INVad	Donation Intention Donation Amount Volunteer Intention	Supported Partially Supported Not Supported
H2	ATB INVad ATB*INVad	Donation Intention Donation Amount Volunteer Intention	Supported Partially Supported Not Supported
H3	SN INVad SN*INVad	Donation Intention Donation Amount Volunteer Intention	Not Supported Not Supported Not Supported
H4	SN INVad SN*INVad	Donation Intention Donation Amount Volunteer Intention	Not Supported Not Supported Not Supported
H5	PBC INVad PBC*INVad	Donation Intention Donation Amount Volunteer Intention	Not Supported Not Supported Not Supported
H6	PBC INVad PBC*INVad	Donation Intention Donation Amount Volunteer Intention	Not Supported Not Supported Not supported

Exploratory Analysis – Study 1

Because this research has proposed the investigation of attitude toward the advertisement as a mediated moderator on the interaction between the message manipulation and the planned

behavior constructs, exploratory analysis was conducted to evaluate this possibility. In addition, results of Study 1 appear to show that involvement with the ad acts as a primary driver on behavioral intention in this research. Therefore, additional exploratory work was conducted. Finally, because age was significantly different for early and late responders, exploratory work with age as a factor is warranted.

Exploratory Analysis – Mediated Moderation

To explore the possibility of mediated moderation by attitude toward the advertisement (A_{ad}) on the interaction of the TPB predictors and the manipulation, any subject group that showed significant interactions from the previous step were analyzed following steps for mediator analysis (Barron and Kenney 1986) using regression via the PROCESS tool (Hayes 2012). This is accomplished statistically by calculating and testing whether the moderation effects of *X* on *W* are mediated through another variable, *M* (Hayes 2012), which in this research is A_{ad}. The focus in this calculation is on the indirect effects of *XW* on *Y* through *M*. Following procedures for mediation analysis, the models are represented in three equations

$$M = b_0 + b_1X + b_2W + b_4XW + e$$

$$Y = b_0 + c_1X + c_2W + c_3XW + e$$

$$Y = b_0 + c'_1X + c'_2W + c'_3XW + b_1M + e$$

which in this research for the first significant three-way interaction from Table 4 are

(6) $$A_{ad} = b_0 + b_1ATB + b_2INV_{ad} + b_3ATB*INV_{ad} + e$$

(7) $$DI = b_0 + c_1ATB + c_2INV_{ad} + c_3ATB*INV_{ad} + e$$

(8) $$DI = b_0 + c'_1ATB + c'_2INV_{ad} + c'_3ATB*INV_{ad} + b_1A_{ad} + e$$

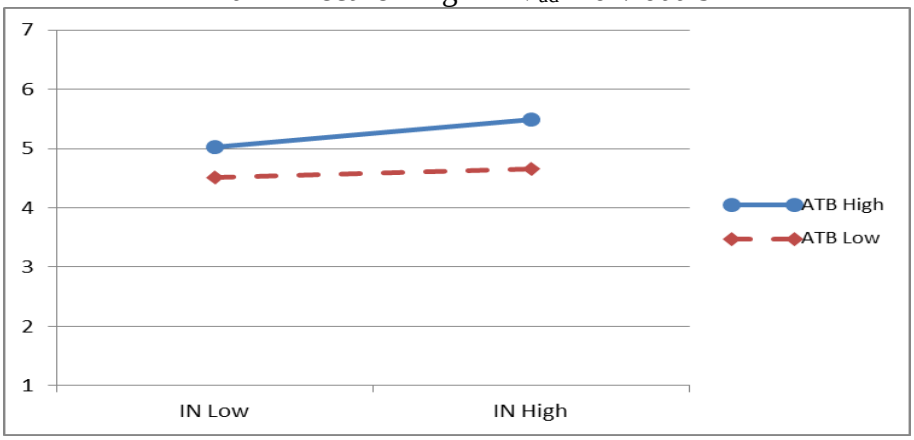
with A_{ad} measured four different ways as previously discussed – an affective measure (A_{ad}AFF), a cognitive measure (A_{ad}COG), a general measure (A_{ad}GEN), and a summation of the three measures (A_{ad}TOT). Equations 7-9 were then applied to each of the significant models from the previous step (Models 1, 2 and 4) leading to a total of 12 calculations (3 equations x 4 A_{ad} measures) for each model in order to determine if the interaction of the TPB predictor variable and INV_{ad} was mediated by an individual's A_{ad}. While the overall models that included A_{ad} were significant, results of the analysis yielded no significant mediated moderation as determined by the confidence intervals resulting from the calculations, meaning that one's attitude toward a nonprofit advertisement did not intervene in donation decisions resulting from planned behaviors and advertisement involvement. Yet the significance of the overall models does suggest that A_{ad} does have a role in the behavior in some capacity. A post-hoc analysis will explore this possibility.

Exploratory Analysis – Involvement

To further investigate the relationship between involvement with the advertisement and behavioral intention in the context of this research, additional exploration was conducted on INV_{ad} by grouping respondents based on those who were high in involvement and those who were low relative to the mean (M = 4.792). Data were then analyzed for the two models that had significant three-way interactions – Models 1 and 2 – using slope analysis (Aiken and West 1991). Results of the analysis on Model 1 show a significant main effect (t = 1.999, p = .048) for attitude toward the behavior for high involvement individuals (see Figure 13), and no significance for those who were low involvement based on whether or not they saw the high or low injunctive norm message.

That is, individuals who saw the high IN message were more likely to make a donation whether they were high in ATB (M_{HIGH} = 5.031, M_{LOW} = 5.499) or low in ATB (M_{HIGH} = 4.672, M_{LOW} = 4.528). It is also interesting to note that while there were no significant findings for low involvement individuals, which based on the results of Study 1 is not surprising, the slope is negative (b = -.0816) meaning the high IN message had a dampening effect, particularly for high ATB individuals, who actually intended to donate less (M_{HIGH} = 3.671, M_{LOW} = 3.887) when they saw the high IN ad.

FIGURE 13
Main Effect for High INV_{ad} Individuals



Model 2 showed no significance for either low or high involvement individuals (all *p*s > .05), however it should be noted that high INV_{ad} individuals were more likely to give when they saw the high IN message than the low IN message, yet low INV_{ad} individuals experienced the same dampening effect from the high IN message in that they gave less in that condition (*b* = -.875). That is, individuals who were not involved in the message reacted negatively when they were told that others in their community were supportive of the cause.

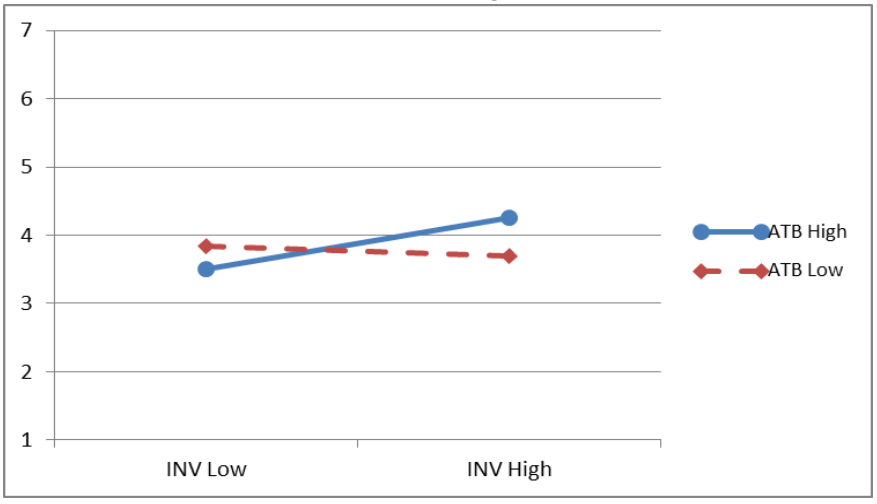
Exploratory Analysis – Age

To initiate exploratory work regarding age as a factor, each model was analyzed for a

significant three-way interaction using the same methodology that was used during the hypothesis testing, but with age as a potential covariate. Results were similar to the initial analysis, with models 1 and 2 showing significant three-way interactions ($ps < .05$) and all other models not significant ($ps > .05$). This would seem to support the research methodology that did not account for age initially because there was no literature indicating age might be a covariate in a similar setting.

To continue the exploration, following methodology similar to the hypothesis testing and the exploratory work on involvement, respondents for the two models that were significant were divided into two groups based on whether they were greater than or less than the mean (M_{age} = 48.97). In Model 1, where attitude toward the behavior and involvement with the ad were the predictor variables and donation intention the outcome variable, a significant main effect (t = -1.932, p = .055) and interaction (t = 2.050, p = .042) were found for the AGE_{HIGH} group, while no significance was found for the AGE_{LOW} group (see Figure 14). However, no significant results were found for age in Model 2, when donation amount served as the outcome variable.

FIGURE 14
Interaction for AGE_{HIGH} Individuals



The results of Model 1 seem to indicate that age may play a role in behavioral intention when attitudes are taken into account and individuals are exposed to messages that demonstrate level of community support for a cause. That is, older individuals are more likely to be persuaded by such messages, while younger individuals are not. More will be discussed on this result in the conclusions chapter that follows.

Exploratory Analysis – Attitude Toward the Ad

Finally, to better understand the relationship between attitude toward the advertisement and behaviors relating to NPOs, a series of two-stage regressions were run to investigate any change in R-Sq or F statistic in an effort to determine if a model could be improved. The statistical equations are:

(Stage 1) $$Y = b_0 + b_1ATB + b_2SN + b_3PBC + e$$

(Stage 2) $$Y = b_0 + b_1ATB + b_2SN + b_3PBC + b_4A_{ad}AFF + b_5A_{ad}COG + b_6A_{ad}GEN + INV_{ad} + e$$

with Y being the measures of general behavioral intention, donation intention, or donation amount, attitude toward the ad measured using affective, cognitive, and general scales, and involvement with the ad included because of its relationship between the respondent and the advertisement.

While results showed no improvement in the model for behavioral intention, significant changes in the R^2 and in the *F*-statistic were observed for donation intention (R^2 change from .117 to .360, *F* change p < .000), donation amount (R^2 change from 036 to .112, *F* change *p* <.000), and volunteer intention (R^2 change from .094 to .350, *F* change $p < .000$). Most of the change was created by INV_{ad}, which was significant (all *p*s < .000) in all three models. In addition, the cognitive measure of attitude toward the ad ($A_{ad}COG$) was marginally significant

for behavioral intention (p = .055). These results demonstrate that while attitude toward the advertisement may play a role in behavioral intention related to nonprofit organizations, it appears that involvement is the most important determinant for individuals responding to a nonprofit ad (see Table 7).

TABLE 7
Two-Stage Regression Results – Study 1

Variables	B	SE	R-Sq	F	t-value	P-value	R-Sq Change	F-stat Change	Sig. F Change
Behavioral Intention	-1.292	.831	.613	142.395	-3.698	.000***	.009	1.649	.162
Model 1									
ATB						.000***			
SN									
PBC	-1.273	.827	,622		-3.467	.000***			
Model 2				62.556					
ATB						.000***			
SN						.000***			
PBC						.000***			
AadAFF						.000***			
AadCOG						.000***			
AadGEN						.987			
INVad						.055*			
						.323			
						.111			
Donation Intention	1.876	1.272	.117	11.981	3.509	.000***	.360	45.855	.000***
Model 1									
ATB						.002***			
SN									
PBC	.035	.986	,478	34.750	.080	.001***			
Model 2									
ATB						.339			
SN						.000***			
PBC						.616			
AadAFF						.005***			
AadCOG						.462			
AadGEN						.620			
INVad						.136			

						.325 .000**** **			
Donation Amount Model 1 ATB SN PBC Model 2 ATB SN PBC AadAFF AadCOG AadGEN INVad	- 9.594 -46.133	49.324 46.728	.025 ,125	3.336 6.568	- .463 -2.225	.020** .797 .013** .758 .000 .476 .104* ,618 .661 .552 .543 .000**** **	.112	8.706	.000**** **
Volunteer Intention Model 1 ATB SN PBC Model 2 ATB SN PBC AadAFF AadCOG AadGEN INVad INVad	2.075 .300	.598 .526	.094 ,350	9.349 23.266	3.469 .570	.000**** ** .000**** ** .035** .068* .000**** ** .053** .263 .076* .732 .187 .694 .000**** **	.286	30.627	.000**** **

**** p < .001; *** p < .01; ** p < .05; * p < .10

Results and Analysis – Study 2

A total of 302 individuals participated in Study 2 from June through October 2012. After removing respondents who did not complete the questionnaire, did not follow directions, or did not pass the manipulation test, a final sample of 270 individuals (89.4%) was used in the analysis, with age (*M* = 44.8, *SD* = 15.39) and gender (47.8% male) characteristics similar to the

subjects from the pre-test and Study 1. Late-response bias was tested using independent sample t-test as previously discussed (see Table 2) and no significant differences were found. The manipulation in Study 2 was social legitimization of the minimum (SLM) with one group seeing the same advertisement as Study 1 but with the message "Even a penny can help" in place of the injunctive norm messages, and another group seeing the same ad but with no such message. A one-way ANOVA was used to evaluate the manipulation, with results ($p < .000$) indicating it was successful.

In following the methodology from Study 1, a regression analysis was conducted with the three TPB constructs as independent variables, and behavioral intention, using the scale developed by Fishbein and Ajzen (2010) as the dependent variable. Once again, the model was significant ($R^2 = .656$, $F = 169.283$, $p < .000$) as were all three predictor variables: attitude toward the behavior ($t = 2.027$, $p < .044$); subjective norms ($t = 12.215$, $p < .000$); and perceived behavioral control ($t = 6.815$, $p < .000$). Regression analysis was again conducted for the two primary dependent variables in this research – donation intention and donation amount – with both models significant and the predictor variables, as expected, again showing varying levels of significance (see Table 8).

TABLE 8
Regression results for TPB Analysis – Study 2

Variables	***B***	***SE***	***Beta***	***R-Sq***	***F***	***t-value***	***P-value***
DV: **Behavioral**	-1.076	.341				-3.150	.000****
Intention	.134	.066	.096	.656	169.283	2.027	.044**
IV: ATB	.678	.055	.562			12.215	.000****
SN	.401	.059	.292			6.815	.000****
PBC							
DV: **Donation**	.988	.597				1.988	.000****
Intention	.371	.096	.263	.281	34.625	3.851	.000****
IV: ATB	.475	.081	.391			5.879	.000****
SN	-.177	.086	-.128			-2.066	.040**
PBC							
DV: **Donation**	-74.383	57.892				-1.285	.053*

Amount	5.458	11.210	.039	.028	2.595	.487	.627
IV: ATB	16.036	9.409	.132			1.704	.089*
SN	2.653	9.981	.019			.266	.791
PBC							
DV: **Volunteer**	1.241	.598				2.076	.039**
Intention	.313	.116	.193	.214	24.167	2.703	.007***
IV: ATB	.541	.097	.388			5.574	.000****
SN	-.250	.103	-.159			-2.428	.016**
PBC							

**** p < .001; *** p < .01; ** p < .05; * p < .10

As was the case in Study 1, subjective norms was consistently significant for all dependent variables (all *p*s < .05), and ATB was significant for all but donation amount. Unlike Study 1, though, PBC was a better predictor, showing significance for donation intention (p = .040) and volunteer intention (p = .016) but not donation amount, which again was the weakest overall model, yet was still significant (R^2 = .028, $F(3,266) = 2.595$, p = .053). The only variables from TPB that did not show significance were ATB and PBC when predicting donation amount (*p*s > .05).

And, similarly to Study 1 when perceived behavioral control was not a significant predictor of donation intention or donation amount, and only marginally significant for volunteer intention (see Table 3), PBC was the least significant predictor for donation intention (p = .040) and volunteer intention (p = .016), and was not significant for donation amount. This would seem to indicate that individuals do not give as much consideration to their ability (i.e. PBC) to make a donation after viewing a persuasive message in an online setting as they do to their attitudes toward donating (i.e. ATB) or their perception of what others might thing (i.e. SN). However, it is important to note the PBC did play a larger role in Study 2 when participants were told that "even a penny will help." It appears the SLM message may have elicited some thoughts of individual donation capabilities more so than the IN message did from Study 1.

Hypotheses Testing – Study 2

To test H7-H12, the same steps for analysis from Study 1 were implemented. Each model was tested for a significant three-way interaction between one of the TPB predictors, involvement with the advertisement, and the study's manipulation of SLM messages through regression analysis using the PROCESS computational tool for SPSS (Hayes 2012). All dependent variables were tested, while maintaining all independent variables from equations 1-3 previously mentioned. Of the models tested, three had significant three-way interactions: Model 4 ($F(9,260) = 71.477$, $t = 2.166$, $p = .031$); Model 7 ($F(9,260) = 71.477$, $t = 2.166$, $p = .007$); and Model 9 ($F(10,259) = 39.150$, $t = 2.127$, $p = .034$), providing initial support for H9, H10, H11 and H12, but not H7 or H8 (see Table 9).

TABLE 9
Three-way Interaction Results – Study 2

Model	***Variables***	***B***	***SE***	***R-Sq***	***F***	***t-value***	***P-value (Interaction)***
1	DV: **Donation Intention** IV: ATB INVad MANIP	.074	.054	.684	62.578	1.357	.176
2	DV: **Donation Amount** IV: ATB INVad MANIP	-2.364	9.378	.079	.252	-.074	.801
3	DV: **Volunteer Intention** IV: SN INVad MANIP	.049	.071	.588	41,220	.688	.492
4	DV: **Donation Intention** IV: SN INVad MANIP	.092	.042	.712	71.477	2.166	.031**
5	DV: **Donation Amount** IV: SN INVad	7.570	7.570	.0862	2.437	1.000	.318

	MANIP						
6	DV: **Volunteer Intention** IV: SN INVad MANIP	.073	.057	.610	33.489	1.273	.204
7	DV: **Donation Intention** IV: PBC INVad MANIP	.169	.062	.687	63.345	2.726	.007***
8	DV: **Donation Amount** IV: PBC INVad MANIP	10.755	10.646	.076	2.371	1.010	.313
9	DV: **Volunteer Intention** IV: PBC INVad MANIP	.171	.080	.602	39.150	2.127	.034**

**** p < .001; *** p < .01; ** p < .05; * p < .10

Interestingly, unlike Study 1, attitude toward the behavior was not a good predictor for behavioral intention, as measured by any of the dependent variables in this research, for Study 2. Rather, subjective norms had a significant interaction with INV_{ad} and MANIP on donation intention (p = .031); and perceived behavioral control, which had no significant results in Study 1, was part of a significant interaction for donation intention (p = .007) and volunteer intention (p = .034) in the second study. This would appear to coincide with PBC being a significant predictor in the TPB models from the regression analysis in Study 2, and support the idea that the "even a penny" message does stimulate consideration of one's ability to attempt the behavior.

Donation intention was the outcome variable in two models with the significant three-way interaction, with volunteer intention the other. Unlike Study 1, when a it was the dependent variable for one significant three-way interaction, donation amount proved to not be significant for any such interactions in the second study. Of the four covariates analyzed in the study, only

social approval was significant. Interestingly, it was for each of the three models with significant three-way interactions: Model 4 (p = .010), Model 7 (p = .002) and Model 9 (p = .000). As a result, social approval will be included in the second step of this analysis, while the other covariates tested – attitude toward charities, guilt, and environmentalism – will not be part of the analysis going forward.

Following the methodology of Study 1, and to further test the hypotheses, the three models with significant three-way interactions were evaluated by dividing respondents from each model into groups based on which manipulation they observed. Subjects were analyzed for significant two-way interactions between the TPB predictors and INV_{ad} for those who saw the SLM message versus those saw no such message (see Table 10).

TABLE 10
Interaction Results – Study 2

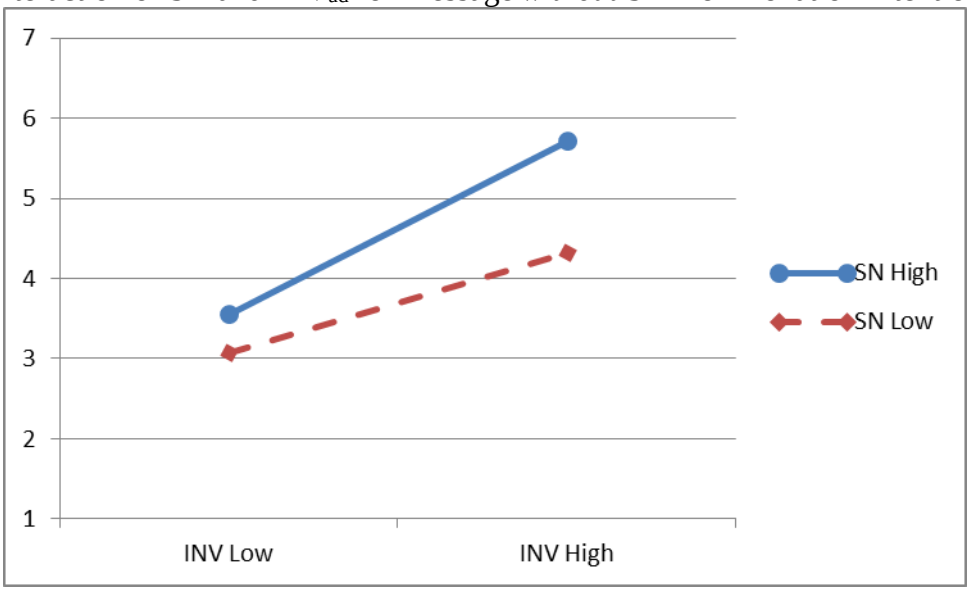
Dependent Variable	***Group (1= SLM present; 2= SLM absent)***	***N***	***B***	***SE***	***R-Sq***	***F***	***t-value***	***P-value (Interaction)***
DV: **Donation Intention**	1	138	-.009	.032	.669	67.060	- .281	.779
IV: SN	2	132	.089	.032	.681		2.764	.007***
INVad						53.894		
SN* INVad								
DV: **Donation Intention**	1	138	-.081	.053	.642	47.414	-1.530	.129
IV: PBC	2	132	.081	.039	.664		2.111	.037**
INVad						49.770		
PBC* INVad								
DV: **Volunteer Intention**	1	138	-.084	.063	.607	33.667	-1.339	.183
IV: PBC	2	132	.084	.053	.549		1.597	.113
INVad						30.695		
PBC* INVad								

**** p < .001; *** p < .01; ** p < .05; * p < .10

Results from the model featuring the interaction of subjective norms and involvement with the ad were the opposite of what was predicted. That is, individuals high in SN responded significantly different from the low SN individuals for donation intention when SLM was *absent*

and involvement with the ad was high (M_{HIGH} = 5.727, M_{LOW} = 4.333, t = 2.764, p = .007) rather than when SLM was *present* and INV_{ad} was high (M_{HIGH} = 5.421, M_{LOW} = 4.613, t = -.281, p < .05), thus H9 is not supported (see Figure 15). Main effects were found for the condition where SLM was *present* (F(4,133) = 67.060, t = 3.757, p < .000), rather than *absent* (see Figure 16), results that are also contrary to what was expected, meaning H10 is not supported. Social approval continued to be a significant covariate for both SLM absent and present, with identical *p-values* of .043.

FIGURE 15
Interaction of SN and INV_{ad} for Message *without* SLM on Donation Intention



Similar results were found for Model 7 (see Figure 17) in that respondents acted in an opposite fashion to what was expected. When evaluating perceived behavioral control, significant differences for donation amount were found under the condition when SLM was *absent* for high INV_{ad} (M_{HIGH} = 5.370, M_{LOW} = 4.655, t = 2.111, p = .037), but not when SLM was *present* (M_{HIGH} = 5.364, M_{LOW} = 5.706, t = -1.530, p > .05), therefore the opposite of what was predicted in H11, where only main effects were expected. However, main effects were

observed when SLM was present ($F(5,132) = 47.414$, $t = 3.467$, $p < .001$) but not when it was absent ($p > .05$), also the opposite of what was expected, thus H12 is also not supported. Social approval was again a significant covariate for both SLM present ($p = .011$) and absent ($p = .005$).

FIGURE 16
Main Effects of SN and INV_{ad} for Message *with* SLM on Donation Intention

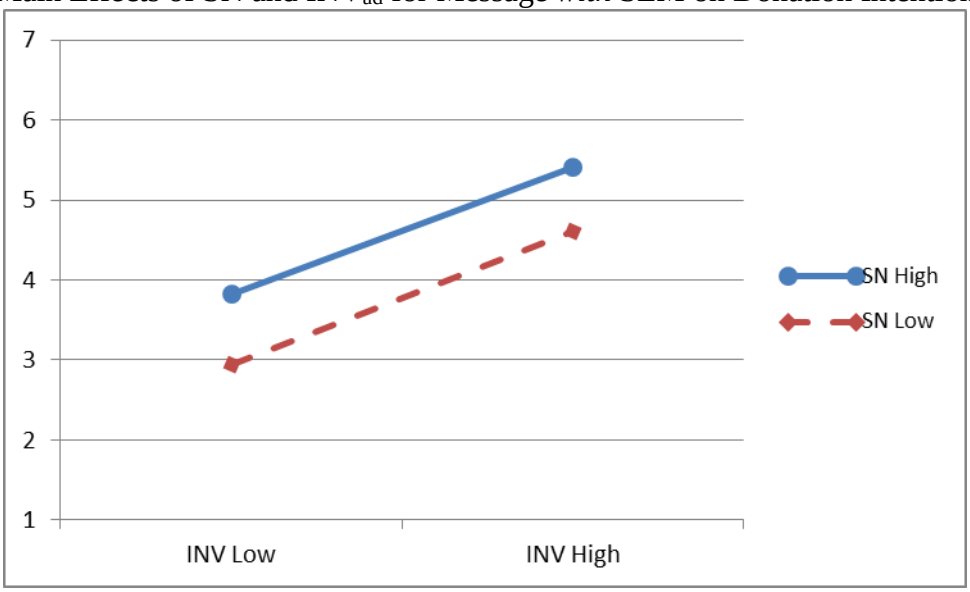
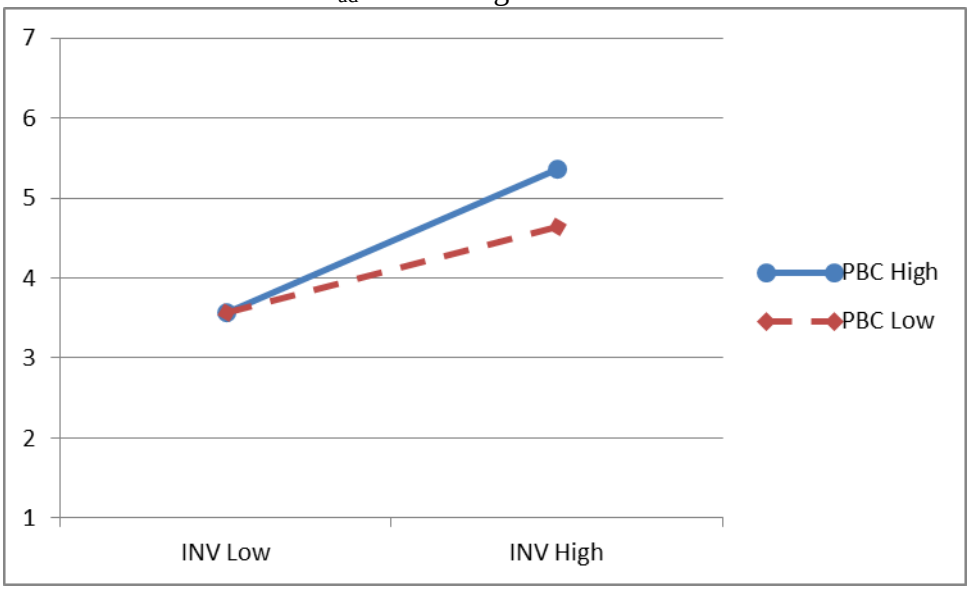
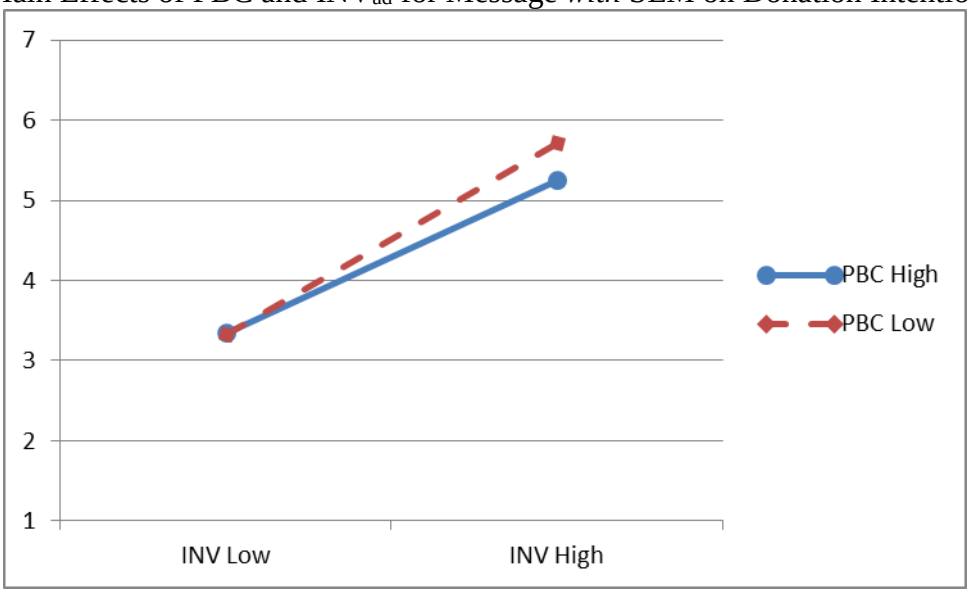


FIGURE 17
Interaction of PBC and INV_{ad} for Message *without* SLM on Donation Intention



Main effects were also found for involvement with the ad and the interaction with PBC on volunteer intention while SLM was present ($F(6,131) = 33.667$, $t = 3.075$, $p = 003$) but not when it was absent ($p > .05$). This was contrary to the predicted effects, thus H11 is not supported (see Figure 18). Finally, there were no significant main effects ($p > .05$) for INV_{ad} on the participants in the condition without SLM, meaning there is no support for H12. In addition, unlike the previous two significant three-way interactions (Model 4 and Model 7), there was no significant interaction in the message *without* SLM. While no significant interaction was expected, it is inconsistent with results from the two other models featuring the SLM manipulation, as well as the model from Study 1 that had a significant interaction with subjective norms and involvement on donation intention.

FIGURE 18
Main Effects of PBC and INV_{ad} for Message *with* SLM on Donation Intention



No significant interaction was found for Model 9, nor was there a significant main effect for perceived behavioral control (both *p*s > .10). A main effect for involvement (p = .003) was observed, and will be part of the general discussion in the following chapter. Despite no significant interaction or main effects, social approval was again significant as a covariate for

both conditions – SLM present (p = .008); SLM absent (p = .001) – and should be part of research going forward because of the results from both studies in this research.

The results of Study 2 would seem to indicate that the SLM message is only an effective tool in nonprofit advertisements when viewed by individuals who believe they do not have the ability to take action (i.e. perceived behavioral control) when it comes to donating or volunteering. In both instances where PBC was part of a significant three-way interaction with ad involvement and the type of ad, only when individuals who were low in PBC saw the SLM message did they express a greater behavioral intention than their high PBC counterparts (Figure 18). Otherwise, one's involvement with the ad appears to be the dominating variable in behavioral intention, as evidenced by the main effects found when there was no SLM message. Results of the hypotheses testing for Study 2 can be found in Table 11.

TABLE 11
Results of Hypotheses Testing – Study 2

Hypothesis	***Independent Variables***	***Dependent Variables***	***Result***
H7	**ATB** INVad ATB*INVad	Donation Intention Donation Amount Volunteer Intention	Not Supported Not Supported Not Supported
H8	**ATB** INVad ATB*INVad	Donation Intention Donation Amount Volunteer Intention	Not Supported Not Supported Not Supported
H9	**SN** INVad SN*INVad	**Donation Intention** Donation Amount Volunteer Intention	**Partially Supported** Not Supported Not Supported
H10	**SN** INVad SN*INVad	**Donation Intention** Donation Amount Volunteer Intention	**Partially Supported** Not Supported Not Supported
H11	**PBC** INVad PBC*INVad	**Donation Intention** Donation Amount **Volunteer Intention**	**Partially Supported** Not Supported **Partially Supported**
H12	**PBC** INVad PBC*INVad	Donation Intention Donation Amount **Volunteer Intention**	**Partially Supported** Not Supported **Partially Supported**

Exploratory Analysis – Study 2

Once again, this research has proposed the investigation of attitude toward the advertisement as a mediated moderator on the interaction between the message manipulation and the planned behavior constructs. Therefore, exploratory analysis was conducted in Study 2 to evaluate this possibility as it was done in Study 1. As was also the case in Study 1, results of Study 2 appear to show that INV_{ad} is as a primary driver on behavioral intention in the manipulations presented. Therefore, additional exploratory work was conducted that focused on ad involvement. In addition, exploratory work with age as a factor was also conducted, as it was in the first study, as will attitude toward the advertisement using a two-stage regression.

Exploratory Analysis – Mediated Moderation

To explore the possibility of mediated moderation by attitude toward the advertisement (A_{ad}) on the interaction of the TPB predictors and the manipulation, any subject group that showed significant interactions from the previous step were analyzed following steps for mediator analysis (Barron and Kenney 1986) using regression via the PROCESS tool (Hayes 2012). Once again, equations 7-9 were applied to each of the significant models from the previous step for each measure of attitude toward the ad to determine if the interaction of the TPB predictor variable and INV_{ad} was mediated by an individual's A_{ad}. While the overall models that included A_{ad} were significant, results of the analysis yielded no significant mediated moderation. This would seem to indicate that one's attitude toward a NPO's ad did not intervene in behavioral decisions resulting from planned behavior and involvement.

Exploratory Analysis – Involvement

To further explore the relationship between involvement with the advertisement and behavioral intention in the context of this research, respondents were placed into two groups based on INV_{ad} relative to the mean (M = 4.711). Data were then analyzed for the three models that had significant three-way interactions – Models 4, 7 and 9 – using slope analysis (Aiken and West 1991). Analysis on Model 4 shows a significant interaction (t = -2.604, p = .010) for the low involvement group (see Figure 19), and a significant main effect (t = 2.152, p = .033) for the high involvement group (see Figure 20).

FIGURE 19
Main Effect for High INV_{ad} Individuals

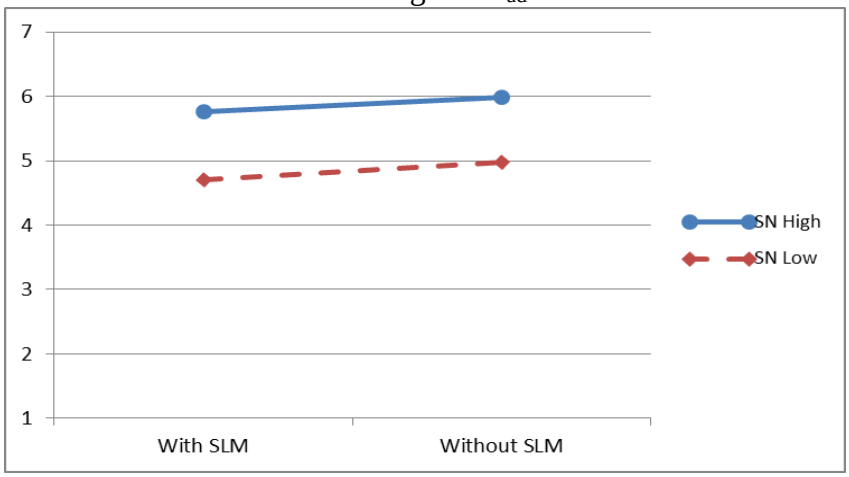
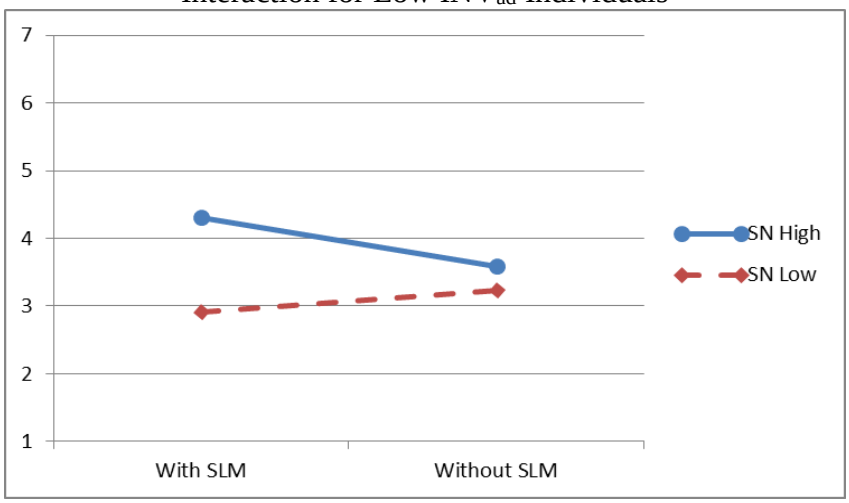


FIGURE 20
Interaction for Low INV_{ad} Individuals

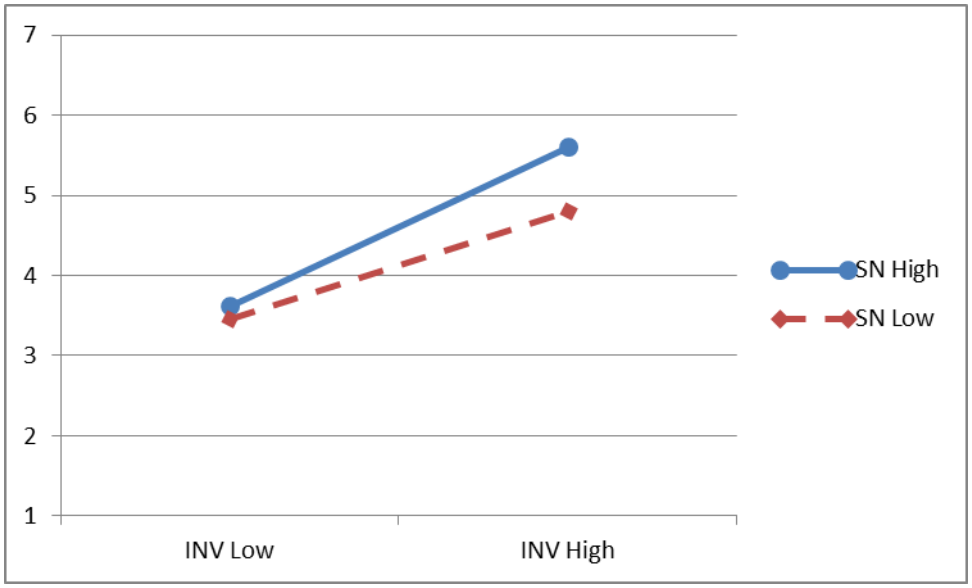


These results demonstrate the driving influence of involvement with the advertisement on behavioral intention when the ads contain messages that legitimize minimal giving. As Figure 20 clearly shows, individuals who look to their referents when making behavioral decisions are more influenced by SLM messages, but only when they are not involved with the advertisement, while those highly involved in the ad do not want, nor appear to appreciate, any such message when making their donation decision. In fact, the SLM message appears to have a dampening effect on their giving behavior. More discussion on this will be included in the next chapter. No significant results (all *p*s > .05) were found for Model 7 or Model 9 for either high or low involvement individuals.

Exploratory Analysis – Age

As was done in the first study, age was tested as a covariate for all nine models, with results from the initial analysis holding. That is, Models 4, 7 and 9 demonstrated significant three-way interactions (*p*s < .05) and all others proving to be not significant. Therefore, these three models were explored further by dividing respondents into groups based on whether they were higher or lower than the mean age (M = 44.81). Significance was found only for Model 4 when age was low (t = 2.177, p = .031), but not when age was high (see Figure 21). There were no significant results for the other two models. This would seem to indicate that younger individuals are more effected by messages indicating how to behave (i.e., acceptable to give the minimum) in certain situations when involvement in high, but not when involvement is low, while older individuals do not pay attention to such messages. This effect, and the possible implications, will be discussed further in the chapter that follows.

FIGURE 21
Interaction for AGE_{LOW} Individuals



Exploratory Analysis – Attitude Toward the Ad

To continue exploration of the relationship between attitude toward the advertisement and behaviors relating to NPOs, a series of two-stage regressions were run similarly to Study 1 to investigate any change in R-Sq or F statistic in an effort to determine if a model could be improved. Again, the model using the general measure of behavioral intention (Fishbein and Ajzen 2010) the R^2 was not significantly improved by adding A_{ad} to the regression equation (R^2 change from .656 to .674), but a significant change in the *F*-statistic was observed ($p = .009$). However, as was the case in Study 1, the more robust models were reserved for the other dependent variables (see Table 11), with significant improvements in R^2 and *F*-statistic for donation intention (R^2 change from .281 to .712, *F* change $p = .000$), and a marginally significant change for donation amount (R^2 change from .017 to .035, *F* change $p = .069$).

TABLE 12
Regression Results for Study 2 – Two-Stage

DVs	*B*	*SE*	*R-Sq*	*F*	*t-value*	*P-value*	*R-Sq Change*	*F-stat Change*	*Sig. F Change*
Behavioral Intention	-1.076	.341	.656	169.283	-3.150	.000***	.009	3.462	.009***
Model 1									
ATB						.044**			
SN						.000***			
PBC	-1.038	.346	,674		-2.999	.000***			
Model 2				77.214		.000***			
ATB						.000***			
SN						.015**			
PBC						.000***			
AadAFF						.000***			
AadCOG						.928			
AadGEN						.084*			
INVad						.688			
						.001***			
Donation Intention	.988	.497	.281	34.625	1.988	.000***	.431	97.957	.000***
Model 1									
ATB						.000***			
SN						.000***			
PBC	-.430	.327	,712	92.451	-1.313	.000***			
Model 2						.040**			
ATB						.000***			
SN						.825			
PBC						.000***			
AadAFF						.127			
AadCOG						.035**			
AadGEN						.007***			
INVad						.930			
						.000***			
Donation Amount	-74.383	57.892	.017	2.595	-1.285	.053*	.032	2.205	.069*
Model 1						.627			

ATB						.089*			
SN						.791			
PBC		59.223	,035	2.392	-1.911	.022**			
Model 2	-					.649			
ATB	113.17					.178			
SN	1					.663			
PBC						.540			
AadAFF						.545			
AadCOG						.903			
AadGEN						.971			
INVad									
Volunteer Intention	1.241	.598	.205	24.167	2.076	.000***	.384	62.610	.000***
Model 1									
ATB						.007**			
SN						*			
PBC	-.348	.444	,7587	55.730	-.783	.000***			
Model 2									
ATB						.016**			
SN						*			
PBC						.000***			
AadAFF									
AadCOG						.401			
AadGEN						.000***			
INVad									
						.095*			
						.003**			
						*			
						.836			
						.826			
						.000***			

**** p < .001; *** p < .01; ** p < .05; * p < .10

More specifically relating to A_{ad} as a predictor variable, analysis shows not only did it improve all models, but the affective measure (A_{ad}AFF) was significant for donation intention (p = .035) and volunteer intention (p = .003), the cognitive measure (A_{ad}COG) was significant for donation intention (p = .007) and marginally significant for behavioral intention (p = .084). Meanwhile, the general measure for A_{ad} was not significant in any of the new models, indicating that specific behaviors may be related to both the behavior but also how the ad is processed –

affectively or cognitively. Finally, as expected, involvement with the ad was significant in almost every model, donation amount as the outcome variable the lone exception.

Once again, this would seem to indicate that an individual's attitude toward a nonprofit advertisement should be considered when attempting to predict their behavioral intention. In addition, exploratory work was conducting with INV_{cause} as the mediator in the mediated-moderation relationship with the interaction between the TPB predictors and INV_{ad} following the same procedure as previously described mediated-moderation analysis. None of the models found a significant mediation by INV_{cause} on the interactions. Further discussion of this phenomenon and future research opportunities will be addressed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

Because of the substantial and consistent growth of the nonprofit industry, this research sought to examine advertising response from the perspective of individual attitudes and beliefs tempered by involvement. Specifically, the research attempted to examine the role of nonprofit advertisements and their messages in influencing behavioral intention, measured as intent to donate and volunteer. Based on the idea that advertising is a tool commonly used by nonprofit marketers to convey specific messages to target audiences (Bendapudi, Singh, and Bendapudi 1996), it was posited that to understand the degree to which individuals attend to an advertisement was not sufficient to explain their behavior; but rather, one must also consider their preexisting system of attitudes, beliefs, and self-efficacy related to the behavior in order to better predict their intention. Involvement and attitudes become key variables that can be measured, and in this research were done so using the elaboration likelihood model and the theory of planned behavior, respectively.

To accomplish this, the research presented here attempted to answer three specific questions regarding behavioral intention related to donating and volunteering when individuals are exposed to certain persuasive messages from a nonprofit organization. Specifically, it hoped to discover:

1. How preexisting attitudes and beliefs toward donating or volunteering affect an individual's attitude toward a nonprofit advertisement?
2. How preexisting attitudes and beliefs toward donating or volunteering affect an individual's involvement with a nonprofit advertisement?
3. What effects does the interplay between involvement with the advertisement, perceived norms, and preexisting attitudes and beliefs have on intent to donate or volunteer?

To answer these questions, two studies were conducted that manipulated messages related to normative behavior and social legitimization of minimum effort. More than 600 individuals participated in the studies over several months by viewing one of four 2-minute ads from a fictitious nonprofit organization.

General Conclusions

The research found that one's involvement with the advertisement combines with one's attitude toward donating (ATB) to help determine propensity to donate and the amount of the donation. However, this is dependent upon the message in the ad. When messages indicate that others are supportive of the cause, donations increase when one is more involved with the ad and is generally agreeable to donating.

But these messages have the opposite effect when one is not involved with the ad – donations decrease when the message indicates others support the cause. And when messages indicate that even a minimal donation is possible, the attitude driver has no effect on donation behavior. This is consistent with previous findings because peripheral cues are typically more persuasive than rational arguments for individuals who have low involvement with the ad (Amichai-Hamburger, Mukulincer and Zalts 2003). This lack of involvement may be a case of learned helplessness, cognitive exhaustion, or simply donor fatigue – all of which could be the result of the growth of the nonprofit sector and the accompanying marketing. However, when involvement is low, one's age plays a role in driving individuals toward action, with older people more driven to give when exposed to supportive messages under low involvement conditions than younger groups.

For individuals who tend to rely on referents for their own actions (SN), differing messages in advertisements have little effect whether they are involved with the ad or not. That is, in most cases, only their involvement with the ad seems to be the real indicator of behavior. That said, the message that indicates that minimum giving is acceptable (SLM) seems to affect donations, as individuals more prone to seek referent input rely on this message to help direct behavior, but not volunteerism. But, the cues were more readily adopted by those who were not highly involved. These results are similar to recent studies (e.g. Dibble et al. 2011; Takada and Levine 2007) that showed when it came to volunteerism, there were no differences between volunteer intention whether simply asking for help, or couching it by requesting that an individual perform the bare minimum. Still, in this study, individuals who were younger were more likely to be persuaded by SLM messages than those who were older. However, messages indicating amount of support for the cause (IN) had no effect, as individuals were apparently not given enough of a cue how to act.

Finally, whether one believes they have the ability to donate or volunteer (PCB) can be affected by SLM messages indicating minimal gifts are acceptable. Therefore, individuals who don't believe they can make a gift are more persuaded by messages that make it possible for small donations. When such messages do not exist, however, individuals are likely to donate or volunteer only when they are highly involved with the ad. That is, the absence of messages boosting self-efficacy forces individuals to make decisions based solely on their interest in the ad. Those who were involved were more likely to donate or volunteer when there was no SLM message than when there was. This would seem to indicate that messages justifying minimum giving have a dampening effect on those who believe they have the ability to give. However, the

opposite is true when involvement is low, where the SLM message increases donations and volunteerism.

Contributions

This research contributes to the field of cause marketing in several ways. First, it exposed involvement with the advertisement as the primary driver for behavioral intention in a nonprofit context over one's preexisting attitudes and beliefs. Second, it identified varying response patterns that individuals have to specific advertising messages based on their level of involvement and strength of those beliefs and attitudes. Third, it augmented the integrated ELM-TPB theoretical model by demonstrating that attitude toward the ad can play a role in consumer decision making. Fourth, it identified age as a factor in behavioral intention related to nonprofit organizations in two specific instances: 1) when attitude and involvement combine for older individuals listening to normative messages, and 2) when subjective norms and involvement combine for younger individuals listening to messages that legitimize minimal effort. And fifth, it uncovered implications for managers to develop strategic messages that can increase target audience involvement and positively affect donations and volunteerism.

Theoretical Implications

This research makes theoretical contributions to nonprofit advertising, information processing, and behavioral intention by integrating message framing, attitudes and beliefs, social and injunctive norms, self-efficacy, social legitimization of the minimum, and advertising response literature to examine the effects of normative and legitimization messages on individual responses to persuasive communications asking for donations and volunteerism. In addition to

simply demonstrating message effectiveness, this research attempts to clarify how these variables comingle to affect message processing in order to deepen our understanding of behavior.

First and foremost, this research responds to the call from Dann et al. (2007) to expand the research in philanthropy, gift giving, and fundraising. In doing so, the research specifically addresses the request from Change and Lee (2010) for theoretical advancement through additional studies that combine prosocial causes, media presentation, and giving opportunities to explain how individuals behave differently based on level of involvement. It also answered the challenge from Grau and Folse (2007) to explore factors such as consumer traits and campaign structural elements that may impact consumer involvement in nonprofit marketing campaigns and affect the process mechanisms responsible for behavior, and the suggestion from Tangari et al. (2010) to examine the effects of ad processing and message framing on self-regulation. This research did exactly that by leveraging the preexisting beliefs consumers have, as measured through TPB, in the context of involvement with the advertisement and by manipulating messages within the ad itself.

Further, by examining social legitimization of minimum giving messages, the research also helps extend our understanding and generalizability of SLM's cousin, the legitimization of paltry favors (LPF). Specifically, Dibble et al. (2011) asked for research that could help improve the generalizability of social legitimization messages by: 1) employing continuous dependent variables – a request also made by Shanahan et al. (2012) specifically for volunteerism – which this research does for both donation intention and volunteer intention; 2) operationalizing the range of ways respondents can indicate they would comply with a message asking for volunteers, which this research accomplishes though the advertisement messages that states "Please support the Better Cities Coalition today my making a donation online, or volunteering for our better

block program" as well as adapting Fishbein and Ajzen's (2010) behavioral intention scale to specifically measure volunteer intention; and 3) improve the explanatory power of social legitimization messages by increasing the sample size from previous research where $N = 63$ (Takada and Levine 2007) and $N = 145$ (Dibble et al. 2011), which was accomplished in this research where $N = 270$ for Study 2 that manipulated the SLM message.

In answering these calls for more research, the results extend the ELM-TPB integrated theoretical model by discovering four key results. First, the research shows that ELM has varying utilities and values from TPB in different contexts. While involvement with the advertisement, a construct of ELM, has more explanatory power in most cases, when considered holistically, the explanatory power varies for one person versus another. For example, SLM messages indicating that minimum giving is acceptable seem to affect donations from individuals who are more likely to look to their referents to help direct their behavior. But, these SLM cues were more readily adopted by those who were *not* highly involved with the advertisement rather than those who were. Similarly, individuals who don't think they have the ability to make a donation or volunteer (i.e. low self-efficacy) showed an increase in donations when they saw the SLM message and had *low* ad involvement. Still, in general, involvement with the ad was the key to increasing donations and volunteerism more so than preexisting attitudes and beliefs.

The second and third findings that extend the integrated ELM-TPB model relate to the fact that one's age plays a role in driving individuals toward action. This research demonstrated that social legitimization (SLM) moderates ELM for young individuals, and injunctive norms (IN) moderates ELM for older individuals. Specifically older donors are more driven to give when exposed to messages that indicate others in their social surroundings are also supportive of the cause, and younger donors are more likely to give when they are exposed to messages

indicating it is acceptable to give the bare minimum. It is important to note that the SLM moderation of ELM in younger people was present only under the high involvement condition, while the IN moderation of ELM required both high involvement and a positive attitude toward charitable giving among older individuals.

One possible explanation why older and younger individuals behaved differently in this research is that changes in behavior are inherent in the aging process (Smith 1996). Specifically, older people may adapt their behavioral patterns to adjust to changes related to transitions in life, issues of physiological or psychological equilibrium, or simply due to aging related losses (Wei, Donthu and Bernhardt 2012). In addition, according to Socio-emotional Selectivity Theory (SST), age affects one's attitude toward advertisements based on type of appeal (Fung and Carstensen 2003; Williams and Drolet 2005), with older consumers preferring positive-rational messages but having a more positive evaluation of emotional appeals than their younger counterparts. Younger audiences, however, recall emotional ads better than rational ads, particularly negative appeals (McKay-Nesbit et al. 2011). The combination of adaptive behavioral patterns related to aging, and differences in attitude toward the ad may account for some of the moderation affects that age has on ELM in this research, and should be studied further. But because involvement was such a key driver for behavioral intention, it also cannot be overlooked that prior research has determined Millennials are simply not as involved with causes as previous generations (Rifon and Trimble 2002), which may also explain some of the findings here.

These conclusions lead to the fourth contribution to extension of the theoretical model. It appears that this first time discovery of age as a moderating variable in the ELM-TPB theoretical model may indicate that other demographic variables may serve as moderators in a similar

context. That is, if age should be considered when understanding individual behavior response to persuasive messages, what other demographics might moderate this theory? Perhaps gender, religion, education, and household income should be closely considered as potential moderators, with one or more potentially showing much more explanatory power than the others. Should this be the case, the impact for practitioner application in terms or strategic segmentation of target audiences may far outweigh the theoretical contribution in the future.

Finally, another goal of this research was to test the Theory of Planned Behavior in an online advertising environment within the context of nonprofit donation or volunteerism. In that regard, the theory performed quite well. Not only did all four measured dependent variables – behavioral intention, donation intention, donation amount and volunteer intention – show some level of significance across four different message treatments, but nine of 12 predictors were significant for Study 1, and 10 of 12 showed significance in Study 2. In addition, TPB models explained more than 60% of the variance for the general behavioral intention measure for both studies (Study 1 R^2 = .608; Study 2 R^2 = .652). Thus, TPB performed remarkably well in terms of generalizability, and showed that the decision to support a nonprofit organization is an individual choice under the guidance of attitudes, perceived norms, and self-efficacy.

Still, there is a paucity of published research describing how involvement can be used by practitioners to make strategic marketing decision (Day, Stafford and Camacho 1995). One such study did find involvement differences accounted for advertisement effectiveness based on donation proximity and message framing (Grau and Folse 2007). However, involvement was conceptualized in terms of involvement with the cause rather than involvement with the ad, as was the case in this research. Still, strategically targeting audiences based on involvement may lead to better fundraising results (Grau and Folse 2007). Therefore, what nonprofit marketing

managers need is the ability to identify the causal antecedents, such as the ones used in this research (attitude toward the behavior, social norms, perceived behavioral control) and behavioral outcomes (donation and volunteer intention) to have a better understanding of what audiences to target and what messages to deliver in order to increase the propensity of affecting their behavior in a way that is positive to the organization. The following managerial implications attempt to provide guidance to practitioners interested in leveraging persuasive communications in three ways: 1) identifying their audiences; 2) developing marketing strategies; and 3) implementing and executing appropriate tactics.

Managerial Implications – Target Audience Profiles

According to Dann et al. (2007), nonprofit marketing needs additional research into consumer-based interventions (e.g. persuasive communications), to understand what drives and motivates consumers to act in a way that is contradictory to traditional benefit-cost decision making. That is, why do individuals donate when it does not benefit them (e.g. giving to an organization assisting a third party) but is instead a direct cost to the individual in terms of surrendering money and/or time? In addition, identifying specific characteristics of an individual or situation that can affect involvement may lead to strategies that can influence an increase or decrease in level of involvement (Day, Stafford and Camacho 1995) and ultimately affect behavior. Finally, marketing managers need to understand audience involvement by determining what is personally relevant to them in terms of a brand, behavior, event, situation, social environment, or a combination of those in order to develop the best strategies and tactical executions (Peter and Olson 1994).

Therefore, based on the results and discussion above, 10 profiles have been developed to help marketing managers working with nonprofit organizations identify audience segments and develop the most appropriate advertising and messaging strategy for each one. These profiles are composites of the research results pertaining to involvement, attitudes, beliefs, norms, self-efficacy, age and specific messages tested. The audiences identified are:

1. *Caring giver* – Pre-disposed to a belief that supporting a cause is important, these individuals tend to be older, pay close attention to the message, and are more likely to donate regularly if they are told that others in their community are also supporting the cause.

2. *Do the right thing* – While younger than the caring giver, these individuals also believe that donating to nonprofits is good. Therefore, they pay attention to messages that indicate others are also supportive of the cause, and are likely to donate when asked.

3. *Not today* – Despite their positive outlook toward nonprofits and charitable giving, if the advertisement doesn't earn their attention, even a message indicating that everyone else is supporting a particular cause is not enough to get them to donate.

4. *I don't care* – Whether attitudes toward giving are positive or negative, or they pay attention to the ad or not, a message indicating it is socially acceptable to give the minimum is not enough to sway them into donating.

5. *Youth movement* – Younger individuals today may rely on their referents more than older people. Thus, this group is more likely to donate when it hears a message indicating that minimal effort is acceptable, particularly when they aren't paying close attention to the advertisement. This is also likely a function of younger individuals not having as much disposable income as older individuals, thus the message presents them with a way to have meaningful participation.

6. *Conventional wisdom* – Older individuals who are not terribly interested in the nonprofit advertisement are still more likely to donate if they are the type who rely on their referents and are exposed to a message condoning minimal participation.

7. *Skepticans* – Even though these individuals rely heavily on input from others when making decisions, they are not going to donate when they are exposed to a message saying their community is supportive or not supportive of a nonprofit, nor whether they are interested or not in the ad.

8. *Enabled doubter* – While these individuals do not have much faith in their ability to donate or volunteer, all it takes is a message informing them that they can participate at the lowest possible level to turn them into a donor or volunteer. In fact, this message legitimizing minimal support convinces these individuals whether they are interested in the ad or not.

9. *Why not* – Despite the fact that they know they can contribute, this group is simply not interested in the advertisement. Therefore, a message that indicates they do not need to do much to participate resonates with them and can increase donations and volunteerism.

10. *Don't tell me what to do* – Because these individuals believe in their abilities to contribute to a nonprofit, and they are paying close attention to the ad's messages, they react negatively when told what to do, but positively when left to their own devices. Therefore, a message indicating that minimal support for the cause is acceptable makes them less likely to donate or volunteer, while an ad that contains no such directive allows these individuals to make a contribution based on their own beliefs, which they typically will.

Based on these profiles, managerial strategies and tactics can be developed and compared to existing nonprofit marketing strategies to create potential avenues for practitioners to follow.

Managerial Implications – Strategy

When and how to reach these target audiences is always a key to successful marketing. Therefore, based on the audience profiles identified above, the following strategies are recommended to combine the best advertising message at the correct time to reach the right audience. For example, whether young or old, those who pay attention to the ad and have a positive attitude are going to give if they are told that others support the cause. Therefore, the focus should be on those who are not involved with the ad but still believe giving to NPOs is good. Getting them involved may turn them from non-donor to donor when accompanied by messages of community support.

To increase involvement, marketing managers should focus on executional cues that can motivate audiences to attend to, and process, the information in the advertisement (Grau and Folse 2007). One such approach may be in entertaining the target audience, something NPOs do not typically do well. The key is to make people interested by keeping them off balance, within the appropriateness of the cause. Putting people on edge though the unusual and unexpected gets attention and, ultimately, increases audience involvement. Ads by the anti-smoking campaign TheTruth (see Figure 22) may be a good example of the appropriate edginess to accomplish this, and have been proven to be a significant factor in declining numbers of smokers (Farrelly et al. 2005). However, nonprofit marketing managers must also guard against making audiences too uncomfortable, thus risking negative emotional response and leading to antithetical behavior (Shanahan et al. 2012), such as changing the channel, stopping the video, or closing down the website. Involvement may also increase through repeated campaign messages, and the use of positive, rather than negative, message framing (Grau and Folse 2007).

FIGURE 22
Anti-Smoking Campaign by TheTruth May Have the Type of Edginess Needed in Nonprofit Advertising to Increase Involvement

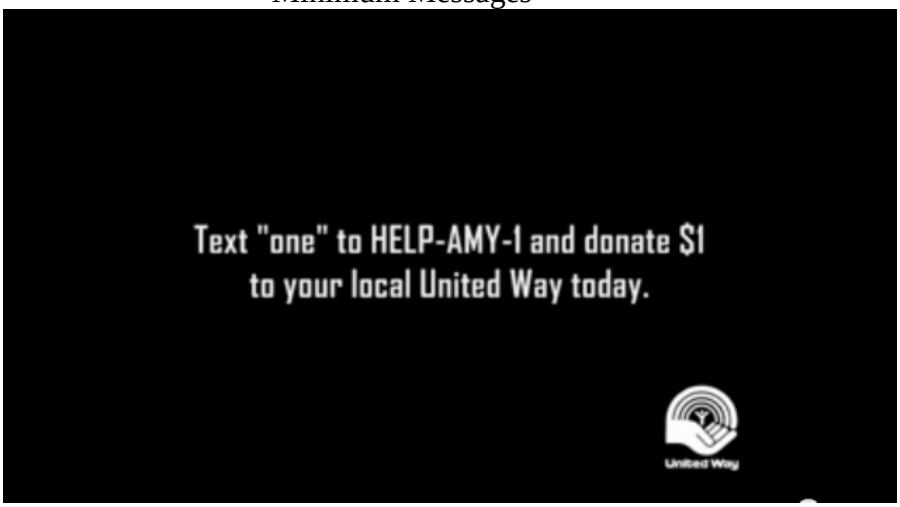
When it comes to individuals who look to others for behavioral cues, messages that make minimal participation acceptable – such as "even a penny will help" – have the effect of increasing donations, but only for those who are not paying much attention. Therefore, marketing managers working for NPOs should consider the likelihood of their audience involvement in the ad when using this type of message because such a message will have a negative effect on individuals who are paying attention.

Public service announcements are often scheduled by broadcasters at times of low viewership, such as after midnight or early Sunday morning, when those who are viewing may not be terribly involved in the advertisement. It is at this time that minimal giving messages might have a positive effect on donations. However, messages indicating minimal *effort* might not be advisable, as research has found that amount of work NPOs require of the consumer is positively related to greater behavioral orientation (Garretson and Landreth 2005). Late night television viewing is also more common among younger audiences, and therefore may offer

another justification for using minimum giving messages. The United Way may accomplish this with their ads that contain messages such as “Text ‘one’ ” and “Donate $1” and “Text ‘fit’ to give $5” because these messages indicate minimal giving *and* also communicate minimal effort (see Figure 23). It may be fruitful for future research to investigate the differences between the effects of messages communicating minimal giving versus those communicating minimal effort, and to determine if the combination of the two impacts donations.

As for an individual’s belief in their own abilities to donate or volunteer, those who believe they are not able to contribute are more likely to give time or money when they encounter a message that says the minimum effort is socially acceptable. This is true whether they are interested or not. But when it comes to those who believe they can help out, such a message generates varying reactions. Those paying attention will give less when they see this message, and those not paying attention will give more.

FIGURE 23
United Way Advertisement with Text on a Blank Screen Featuring Social Legitimization of the Minimum Messages



Therefore, marketing managers must be sure not to insult their regular donors by making minimal gift requests. These messages should be saved for people who are likely to give, but might not be familiar with the NPO. Because of their unfamiliarity, a message about minimal

giving should be effective. But do not show this advertisement when existing donors might be tuned in, or at the annual donor/volunteer thank you reception. Rather, NPOs that ask potential donors in one country to help individuals in another should incorporate this strategy because research (Ein-Gar and Loventin 2013) has shown that giving to a cause physiologically distant increases donations. Examples of such an execution include Kiva.org and the Clinton-Bush Haiti Fund.

Managerial Implications – Tactics

After implementing the strategies identified above, nonprofit organizations may consider creating their own advertisement and other video access locations on a website. Internet video host YouTube is a cost-free source for NPOs wishing to establish a unique "channel" of their own videos and ads. The value of such a channel includes more than 1 billion unique visits to YouTube each month, 4 billion hours of video watched on YouTube each month, and 72 hours of videos are uploaded to YouTube every minute (YouTube 2012). In addition, YouTube has a partner program from which video developers can earn money.

Nonprofit organizations that have taken advantage of the YouTube channel include the American Cancer Society, the Christian Children's Fund of Canada, and Oxfam America. The ACS channel (https://www.youtube.com/user/amercancersociety) has eight featured playlists on topics associated with their cause – Learn About Cancer; Cancer Prevention: Cancer Treatment and Support; Cancer Research; Cancer Advocacy; More Birthdays; Relay For Life; and ACS Events – with a total of 233 videos and an average of more than 29 per playlist. While most of the playlists were educational in nature to assist those searching for information, the "My

Birthdays" playlist featured 40 versions of the advertisements used by the American Cancer Society in its current marketing campaign.

Oxfam America (http://www.youtube.com/user/oxfamamerica) – the NGO with a mission to work together to end poverty, hunger, and injustice worldwide – also leverages its YouTube channel to show its advertisements, broken into topic groups. Of the more than 200 videos on its YouTube page were six featured playlists that covered the Sahel Food Crisis (6 videos), GROW (10 videos), the Oxfam Collection (7 videos), Climate Action Hub (7 videos), Haiti Earthquake Response (12 videos) and a channel where others could upload videos. And while the Christian Children's Fund of Canada (https://www.youtube.com/user/ycccc) is not quite as prolific as the other two, the nonprofit organization does store 10 videos, including five advertisements, on its YouTube channel.

Limitations

As with all research, there are limitations to what the results of these studies are able to explain. For example, while some research has shown that consumers are more likely to donate to an individual (e.g. Kogut and Ritov 2011; Small 2011; Small, Lowenstein and Slovic 2007), other results counter the identifiable victim effect, showing that people prefer to donate to nonprofit organizations rather than to an identifiable victim, particularly when the NPO is physically removed from the donor (Ein-Gar and Levontin 2013), as in the case of the tsunami disaster relief efforts in South Asia in 2004 and the relief efforts surrounding the earthquake in Haiti in 2010. Therefore, the advertisements in this research could be construed by respondents as either the identifiable victim because of its attempts to focus on a fictitious child (Ricky) who needed the viewer's assistance, or the physiologically distant NPO because the organization to

which the studies participants could contribute (the Better Cities Coalition) could not have been known to exist in their location since it was also fictitious. Both could affect the results.

In addition, Small et al. (2007) found that deliberative thinking overrides sympathy that is prompted by an identified victim, and can reduce donations. Therefore, individuals at the top end of the high involvement group may have dismissed the attempt to elicit sympathy for the fictional character depicted in the advertisement, and dismissed their intention to donate or volunteer. What's more, recent research has found that individuals are more likely to feel sympathy for a victim of misfortune if the misfortune is considered to be a societal failure, and therefore provide help to the victim (Piff et al. 2010). It is possible, then, that the advertisements used in this research had the opposite effect on the audience as was intended. Future research should be conducted to determine the situational influences of nonprofit advertisements featuring an identified victim.

Tangentially, research has also shown that marketing efforts placing an NPO at the center of the appeal, as the fictitious organization used in this research may have been construed by respondents, can results in a decrease in donations (Strahilevitz 1999). In addition, self-identification with a cause and psychological distance from the beneficiary can combine to be a strong predictor of donation intention (Ein-Gar and Levontin 2013), and may have had an adverse effect on participants in this research if the individuals did not have direct experiences, or emotional or physiological attachments to the issue at hand.

The advertisement's effectiveness may also be a limitation. According to Rucker and Petty (2006), reasons why a message in a PSA may not be effective include: 1) the arguments may not have been strong enough; 2) consumers may lack the motivation or ability to process information contained in the PSAs; 3) consumers who are highly involved may engage in biased

processing in that the ad is leading them to counterargue a message position with which they disagree; 4) people may try to correct for a perceived bias by processing the message more critically or simply adjusting downward whatever evaluation they reach; and 5) individuals may not be confident in their resulting thoughts. Any of these issues may have contributed to the results in terms of a lack of significance for a majority of the outcome variables. In addition, while consistent with most experimental advertising research, the studies conducted here used a brand with which participants were not familiar in an effort to reduce the effects of any bias on the manipulated variables (Tangari et al. 2010). It would be worth the effort, however, to test the results in a context with existing brands to investigate the interplay between brand attitudes, preexisting attitudes and beliefs, and involvement with the ad.

The research is limited, as are all experiments, from potential confounds that may affect consumer behavior. In this research, that includes composition of the advertisement because formatting elements – e.g. music, images, text, headlines, logos, etc. – have been shown to affect ad effectiveness (Decrop 2007; Muehling and Bozman 1990; Van Meurs and Aristoff 2009) and therefore may have influenced the results. While the combination used here of static image, text, and voice over was done as an effort to create an ad that captured characteristics of other nonprofit advertisements, the combination of the various elements may have made the ad difficult to follow for some viewers. In their meta-analysis, Andrews et al. (2008) did not find any moderating effects for message length, however the 2-minute ads used in this research could have affected involvement, decision making, and intentions. Resolving these issues related to format could be accomplished through simplification of the ad by reducing content, text cues, or overall length. Future research could also manipulate these format variables to determine additional effects of the communications.

Similarly, the ads used in this research featured both text and voice over to communicate with the participants, particularly when it came to the messages being manipulated. Previous research (Braverman 2008) found that testimonial-style communications are more persuasive when presented through the audio mode rather than through the written mode. Because the present research used, in essence, both audio and written modes, the effects of the manipulated messages may have been muted. However, these ads were not designed as testimonials, and were rather informational-style ads, which Braverman (2008) demonstrated could be more persuasive when perceived by individuals characterized by high rather than low involvement, thus supporting the present research. Still, the use of both text and voice over could affect results, and thus should be tested in future research. Comparing to current nonprofit practice, of the 125 NPO ads analyzed through qualitative analysis in the first pre-test, 41.6% had voice over and text, 56.8% had text but no voice over, 1.6% had voice over but no text.

Location of the manipulation within the advertisement may also be a limitation based on primacy and recency effects, or the relative impact of the information being placed at either the beginning (primacy) or the end (recency) of the communications (Mowen and Minor 2006). Involvement is related to both primacy and recency in that high involved individuals are more influenced by primacy, while recency has a greater influence on low involvement individuals (Haugtvedt and Wegener 1994). In the research here, the manipulated messages were at approximately the 1 minute, 30 second mark of the 2-minute spot, and may have been more effective if delivered to high involved respondents in the first 15 seconds (primacy) or those with low involvement in the last 15 seconds (recency) of the ad. Previous research (Dibble et al. 2011) shows that when a message request requires additional time and information before the respondent can make a decision, any cues such as SLM messages may have no effect. In other

words, it's possible the manipulated message was lost on both types of viewers within the context of all the other aspects of the ad because of its time location within that content.

Additionally, the questionnaires were administered online, thus limiting the amount of control the researcher had over respondent participation. Close attention was placed on verifying responses and removing any respondents who were clearly outliers, with a higher than preferred percentage of respondents removed from the final sample – 16.7% in Study 1 and 10.6% in Study 2. Online questionnaires also suffer from poor participation rates and limited attention from participants, particularly those on research panels, which this study employed. And this research assesses only attitudes and intention, rather than actual behavior, which can produce artificially high responses because of the social issue context (Grau and Folse 2007). Thus, an opportunity exists for field experiments assessing actual behavior.

Finally, this is at least the third independent study in six years (Takada and Levine 2007; Dibble et al. 2011) that demonstrated little-to-no effect for messages communicating social legitimization of the minimum. The first two suffered from both small effect size based on limited samples, and the attempt to use the legitimization of paltry favors message to affect volunteerism. The present research used the more financially focused "even a penny" message in an effort to affect donation intention as well as volunteer intention. One can argue that the "even a penny" message, because of its financial implications, is not the appropriate message to affect volunteerism, and in fact it had the opposite effect in this research in that those who were not exposed to the SLM message were more likely to volunteer, according to Models 7 and 9. Still, Andrews et al. (2008) showed an effect for LPF, and the sample size of Study 2 (N = 270) seems large enough to establish some generalization regarding messages containing legitimization of minimal effort. But in this case, the results seem to point to similar conclusions that Takada and

Levine (2007) and Dibble et al. (2011) reached questioning the effects of such a message. This, and the other limitations above, combined with the results, provide promising opportunities for future research, however.

Future Research

As this research and other studies have demonstrated, beliefs and attitudes are a determinant of behavior (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). The present studies show that combining these determinants with involvement affects behavioral outcome. Therefore, it is possible that beliefs and attitudes may also function with additional predictor variables to determine behavioral intention. For example, O'Cass and Griffin (2006) have suggested that believability of an advertisement in conjunction with attitude/beliefs could be an important relationship in cause marketing – particularly social marketing – because such marketers are attempting to change attitudes as a means of influencing social behaviors (Kotler and Andreasen 1996). Therefore, practitioners working in cause marketing should be aware of the consequences of an individual's believability level of the advertisement's message, because attitude toward the issue and believability influences one's intention to comply with the social issue message (O'Cass and Griffin 2006).

Because involvement was clearly the driver in the integrated ELM-TPB theoretical model used in this research, it would be valuable to identify the boundary conditions in which involvement is no longer the primary influence in the individual's behavioral intention. This could be accomplished by changing variables within the advertisement, such as the name of the NPO to introduce a potential familiar brand to the viewer, or by placing the participant in a setting where they can actually make an online contribution to give a sense of reality to the

behavior, rather than just self-assessed intention. Other manipulations that could be adjusted for future research include the elements within the ad's format to observe their effects on involvement. For example, the length, visuals, text, music, etc. could all be adjusted in various combinations to determine what the optimal format is for nonprofit marketing managers to implement to achieve the greatest possible return on investment. Even statistical framing, which has shown to affect some outcome variables (Chang and Lee 2010), could be manipulated in future efforts. For example, in this research the injunctive norm messages followed previous research (Smith and Louis 2008) to develop high (73%) and low (29%) conditions. These numbers could be manipulated and compared to numbers that are both higher and lower in both conditions. Further, the text and voice over in the advertisements made reference to existing conditions of childhood obesity and life expectancy, which could have affected the outcomes and should be tested by revising and/or eliminating these statistical frames.

Involvement with the advertisement is just one measure of involvement, however. Another, involvement with the cause, is conceptualized as the degree to which individuals find the cause to be personally relevant (Grau and Folse 2007). It would be beneficial, therefore, to examine the ELM-TPB model with involvement with the cause as a potential moderating variable. While it may be assumed that those with a greater involvement are more likely to donate or volunteer, this has never been investigated within the ELM-TPB model in conjunction with the effects of advertising messages. Tangentially, an individual's temporal orientation according to construal-level theory may also be worth investigating in combination with involvement. Tangari et al. (2010) found that whether one is future- or present-oriented affects donations. For example, consumers with a present temporal orientation had more favorable attitudes toward nonprofit marketing efforts when the response was near rather than in the future.

Because the research in this study asked participants to give in order to help their community in the future, it may have decreased behavioral intention by those with a short-term orientation. However, the research by Tangari et al. (2010) was based on cause-related marketing (CRM) and the relationship between a nonprofit and a corporate sponsor. It would be interesting to see if their results held in a pure cause-marketing environment without the corporate tie-in, under the auspices of involvement with either the ad or the cause.

Unlike involvement and temporal orientation, there has been extensive research examining attitude toward advertising in general as a moderating variables (e.g. Brown and Stayman 1992; MacKenzie, Lutz and Belch 1986) and toward donation intention (e.g. Shanahan and Hopkins 2007; Shanahan et al. 2012). Still, the question remains to what extent do global attitudes toward advertising or donating enhance or hinder attitudes toward specific ads (Shanahan, Hopkins and Carlson 2008). The results of the exploratory work in this research investigating attitude toward the advertisement also demonstrate that A_{ad} warrants additional research in the ELM-TPB context. To date, only one study (Chan and Tsang 2011) has been found that specifically examines A_{ad} in conjunction with TPB, with non-significant results when attitude was measured as an antecedent to behavior. While initial testing in both Studies 1 and 2 demonstrated that A_{ad} was not a mediated moderator on the interaction of involvement and preexisting attitudes and beliefs, the post-hoc two-stage regression analysis demonstrated that A_{ad} may play a role in behavioral intention.

Previous research has been mixed on whether age and volunteerism are related (e.g. Clary et al 1998; Omoto et al 2000; Tangari et al. 2010; Wei, Donthu and Bernhardt 2012). Because this research found that age can be a factor in determining behavioral intention under certain circumstances (level of involvement with the ad, attitude toward the behavior, propensity

to examine social referents) the importance of understanding the interplay of age, volunteerism, and marketing communications, specifically advertisements, is vital for nonprofit marketers, and should be an area of focused research going forward.

There also appears to be a need to investigate the concept of social legitimization messages. Because this study, and two recent efforts (Takada and Levine 2007; Dibble et al. 2011), have failed to show any effects for SLM or LPF messages, the call here is to further examine why these types of message appear to fail in motivating respondents into intentions that indicate behavior. Anecdotally, one may conclude that values have changed over time so much that what once was considered the minimum (a penny) might not even register with today's audiences, an instead a new "minimum" is at play. This is supported by the manipulation analysis that showed "even a dollar" was significant in the second pre-test, therefore an opportunity may exist to redefine what donors consider minimum giving is in the 21st century. While "even a penny" produced significantly different results from "even a dollar" when it was first introduced (Cialdini and Schroeder 1976), it is possible that perceptions of what constitutes a minimal gift may have shifted due to changing economic conditions, such as inflation and cost of living. Recent research has tested messages using one dollar as the minimum donation level and 5 minutes as the minimum effort (Kappes, Sharma, and Oettingen 2013) and found significant differences for behavioral intention versus a greater donation ($25) and time (60 minutes). Combined with the results of the pre-test and the failure of "even a penny" messages to substantially influence behavior in other research (e.g. Dibble et al. 2011), this indicates that the potential shift in messages constituting minimum efforts must be explore in order to determine why SLM messages have changed over time, and what messages are most effective for practitioners today.

Finally, the research should be applied to the other disciplines of cause marketing – political and social marketing – in an effort to determine what messages are most effective in generating votes and compliance. While it is argued that marketers working in cause-related industries – nonprofit, social, political – may rely too much on advertising to achieve their objectives (Kotler and Andreasen 1996), cause-marketing ads can still be seen and evaluated by a large cross-section of individuals who are differently involved in the particular issue (Reichert Heckler and Jackson 2001). Exploring which messages are most effective in cause-related advertising not only provides a wealth of research opportunities, it also offers practical applications for nonprofit, social and political marketing, which rely on these messages to drive fundraising, compliance and volunteerism.

APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

1. **What is your age? _____**

2. **What is your gender?**

    1. Male
    2. Female

3. **What is your race/ethnicity?**

    1. American Indian or Alaska Native
    2. Asian
    3. Black or African American
    4. Hispanic or Latino
    5. Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
    6. White or Caucasian

4. **What is your annual household income?**

    1. Less than $20,000
    2. $20,000-$40,000
    3. $40,000-$60,000
    4. $60,000-$80,000
    5. $80,000-$100,000
    6. More than $100,000

5. **What is your highest level of education achieved?**

1. Some high school
2. High school graduate
3. Some college
4. Bachelor's degree
5. Master's degree
6. Terminal degree (Ph.D. or JD)

7. What is your religion?

1. Buddhist
2. Catholic
3. Hindu
4. Jehovah's Witness
5. Jewish
6. Mormon
7. Muslim
8. New Age (i.e. Wiccan, Pagan, other)
9. Orthodox
10. Protestant
11. Unaffiliated (i.e. atheist, agnostic, nothing in particular
12. Unitarians / Liberal faiths
13. Other _____

APPENDIX B

ADS USED IN STUDY

Nonprofit Organization	Length	Imagery	Text	Music	Spokes	VO	Appeal Message	URL
African American Ministries	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	Yes	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Us0YmvC_ZB4
Aides.org	60 sec.	Video - B&W	With images	No	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BTVT6KhrI1s
American Academy of Pediatrics	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	Yes	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-ZKs8szy2Js
American Cancer Society	90 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	Please donate	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Lyu-DImrgx4
American Cancer Society	90 sec.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	No	Donate now	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dyCYbCG1rws
American Cancer Society	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	Yes	No	Give now	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=c43csbsR45w
American Cancer Society	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	Yes	No	Send a check to the American Cancer Society.	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bFRAmElznF4
American Cancer Society	30 sec.	Video – B&W	On blank screen	Yes	Yes	No	Send a "Happy Birthday" song	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0jXkGLPl0oM&list=PL0EB39EA7E6B8D8D1&index=10
American Cancer Society	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	Yes	No	Send a "Happy Birthday" song	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JVeTBooMHos&list=PL0EB39EA7E6B8D8D1&index=11
American Cancer Society	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	No	Yes	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ouIYqG6u-yY
American Heart Association	30 sec.	Video – B&W	On blank screen	Yes	Yes	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KPEyozWE2m8
American Heart Association	30 sec.	Animation – color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3TAzkOFxR7w
American Heart Association	30 sec.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ol8MXBifLwU
American Red Cross	20 sec.	Animation - color	On blank screen	No	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_SgAUgmtBFM
American Red	50 sec.	Animation -	On blank	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/wat

Nonprofit Organization	Length	Imagery	Text	Music	Spokes	VO	Appeal Message	URL
Cross		B&W	screen					ch?v=pWBNZZE3698
American Red Cross	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	Donate blood today	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DQ9du3fMb28&feature=related
American Red Cross	60 sec.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6S1M1NxfjvY
American Red Cross	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	No	Yes	Donate, get involved, be an angel	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=4pCqVqNuny4
American Red Cross	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JEWLe0_ZqNk
American Red Cross	60 sec.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	No	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6S1M1NxfjvY&feature=related
American Red Cross	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	Yes	No	Become a Red Cross volunteer today	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KkW_Oczg5dE&feature=related
American Red Cross	40 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	Yes	No	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2_TGVaVODig&feature=related
Amnisty International	90 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gwl2aFNsW30
Amnisty International	90 sec.	Video - color	With images	No	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FzOZey7ZGMk
Amnisty International	90 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fv9gHg3NfsE
Amnisty International	30 sec.	Video - B&W	With images	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bDGM4-AWGnw
Amnisty International	60 sec.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=inM_aiHDGm0
Amnisty International	60 sec.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lw-yZ4Nb0Ag
Big Brothers Big Sisters	30 sec.	Animatin - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?NR=1&v=a8qyUi1Wc-0&feature=endscreen
Big Brothers Big	30 sec.	Video - color	With images	No	Yes	No	None	http://www.youtube.com/watc

Nonprofit Organization	Length	Imagery	Text	Music	Spokes	VO	Appeal Message	URL
Sisters - Arizona								h?v=VHEAcMZenD8
Big Brothers Big Sisters - SW Idaho	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1XgPsW82nr8&feature=fvwrel
BSPCA	2 min.	Still photography - color & Video - color	With images & On blank screen	Yes	Yes	No	For just $18 a month	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IO9d2PpP7tQ&NR=1&feature=fvwp
BSPCA	2 min.	Still photography - color & Video - color	With images & On blank screen	Yes	Yes	No	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9gspElv1yvc
BSPCA	2 min.	Still photography - color & Video - color	With images & On blank screen	Yes	Yes	No	For just $18 a month, only 60 cents a day	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Yy38ogBZTnI
Cartoon Art Museum	30 sec.	Still photography - color	On blank screen	No	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=r04M7d4F5ps
Catholic Charities - Baton Rouge	30 sec.	Video - color	With images	No	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WEez-_W2yrY
Catholic Charities - New York	30 sec.	Still photography - color & Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=I-pZFTjttGA
ChildFund	3 min.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	Yes	For less than $1.50 a day	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qTelQucNzqw&feature=related
ChildFund	3 min.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	Yes	For less than $1.50 a day For as little at $44 per month	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qTelQucNzqw&feature=related
ChildFund	2 min.	Video - color	With images	Yes	Yes	Yes	For less than a dollar a day	http://www.youtube.com/watch?feature=endscreen&NR=1&v=1EByXXyBteo
ChildFund	60 sec.	Video - color	With images & On blank	Yes	Yes	Yes	For less than a dollar a day	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EVH_nKO1dx8&feature

Nonprofit Organization	Length	Imagery	Text	Music	Spokes	VO	Appeal Message	URL
			screen					=relmfu
ChildFund International	60 sec.	Video - color	With images & On blank screen	Yes	Yes	No	For just a dollar a day	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=k1m2JmiIB0c
Christian Children's Fund	2 min.	Video - color	With images	Yes	Yes	No	Just 80 cents a day	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=j_aRUUdEFRY
Christian Children's Fund	2 min.	Video - color	With images & On blank screen	Yes	Yes	No	For 80 cents a day	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lIKUo1fDNXs
Christian Children's Fund	2 min.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	Yes	Your 70 cents a day, $20 a month	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JQoRjDLDONc
Christian Children's Fund	60 sec.	Still photography - B&W & Video - color	With images & On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	It costs just 70 cents a day	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=c9fDpfsorcw
Christian Children's Fund of Canada	2 min.	Video - color	With images & On blank screen	Yes	Yes	No	For just a Looney a day	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6oFwa7Psuzk&list=UUrbwtCksnSWV80gj5oOZtEA&index=2
Christian Children's Fund of Canada	2 min.	Video - color	With images & On blank screen	Yes	Yes	No	For a little more than just a Looney a day	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6oFwa7Psuzk&list=UUrbwtCksnSWV80gj5oOZtEA&index=2
Clinton-Bush Haiti Fund	90 sec.	Video - color	None	No	Yes	No	Give what you can today	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_ke9TuLLbXk
Donate Life - Pass it On	45 sec.	Text on black screen	On blank screen	No	No	No	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5M8R_TuJNPQ
Friends of the Katy Trail - Dallas	30 sec.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	No	Become a member today	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7w_ulLUaiYA
Girl Scouts	60 sec.	Video - color	With images	No	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uIfdtleA05M
Girl Scouts	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SWj9DBsjaOs
Greenpeace	60 sec.	Still photography -	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pxwtPCX8-EA

Nonprofit Organization	Length	Imagery	Text	Music	Spokes	VO	Appeal Message	URL
		color & Video - color						
Greenpeace	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	Yes	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uusHfhzg3yU
Greenpeace	30 sec.	Animation – color	With images	No	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nMNu68gsAPA
Greenpeace - Russia	30 sec.	Animation - B&W	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GvzZIFT-5HU
Habitat for Humanity	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UHe6vleKrzY
Habitat for Humanity	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kcbD22CO0qs
Habitat for Humanity	30 sec.	Animation - color	With images	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AA5VzO20yRY
Habitat for Humanity	30 sec.	Still photography - B&W	With images	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SFWhezCBXRA
Habitat for Humanity	60 sec.	Still photography - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ur_2bpPvKtQ&feature=related
Habitat for Humanity	30 sec.	Still photography - B&W	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?NR=1&feature=endscreen&v=SFWhezCBXRA
Irish Museum of Modern Art	60 sec.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gXh_huP_TgY
Joshua Foundation - Oklahoma	45 sec.	Still photography - color & Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UMB54rXglqE&playnext=1&list=PLEA8ABA4304280CA7&feature=results_video
Keep America Beautiful	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=j7OHG7tHrNM
KIVA Foundation	60 sec.	Still photography - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ErQRI_J8Bho
KIVA Foundation	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UmeaGwzl7xc

Nonprofit Organization	Length	Imagery	Text	Music	Spokes	VO	Appeal Message	URL
KIVA Foundation	60 sec.	Still photography - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vwTRK_DZvtQ
KIVA Foundation	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	What would you do with $25?	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Di3zfkev5to
KIVA Foundation	60 sec.	Still photography - color	With images	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NwZBSkQ4poE
Make a Wish Foundation	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	For only $15 a month	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Uz9aYyHrf2w
Make a Wish Foundation	30 sec.	Video - color & Animation - color	On blank screen	Yes	Yes	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=N4yUQSW-UBY
Make a Wish Foundation	2 min.	Video - color	None	Yes	No	Yes	For only $15 a month	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XFO4hGhBwJc
Make a Wish Foundation	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jTMxYGZk1H8
Make a Wish Foundation	60 sec.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	Yes	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qK1gSg-AZJE
Make a Wish Foundation - Australia	30 sec.	Video - color	None	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=p-cRbhpy9rI
March of Dimes	30 sec.	Video - B&W	With images	Yes	Yes	No	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qurML9zDykU
March of Dimes	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	No	Yes	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cS0Tlz-r-0c
Mothers Against Drunk Driving	40 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	No	No	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CGSk3L-6Vjc&feature=relmfu
Mothers Against Drunk Driving	40 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	No	No	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gggOy3f6Rwo
Museum of Modern Art - New York	30 sec.	Animation - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kFZ3gP0pqzE
Nasher Museum of Art	30 sec.	Still photography -	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iZiPs30QB74

Nonprofit Organization	Length	Imagery	Text	Music	Spokes	VO	Appeal Message	URL
		color						
New York Philharmonic	60 sec.	Still photography - color & Video - color	With images & On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qmApEHzbOpk
New York Philharmonic	30 sec.	Still photography - color	With images	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EyToXBf6p2o
New York Philharmonic	50 sec.	Still photography - color & Video - color	With images	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=J2bk0I0mFqo
Oxfam	40 sec.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IEncHWEjLTI&list=PL148B6C917EE10BB2
Oxfam	40 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	Yes	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xt-_hLpfas0&list=UUX1IND5NlfU01edaqQwJIAg
Oxfam	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GGdj0VeAFyA
Oxfam	30 sec.	Video - color & Video - B&W	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=25tjK9vLCzo
Oxfam	30 sec.	Animation - color	With images	Yes	No	Yes	You can be a goat for just $50	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xQqGmUbhvQI&list=UUX1IND5NlfU01edaqQwJIAg&index=4
Oxfam	40 sec.	Animation - color	With images	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eQK6ODxDfDY
Phoenix Museum of Art	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1OXAe9sL8Tw
Red	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	Yes	No	For 40 cents a day	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5ys6dkUYjNI
Ronald McDonald House	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QlBha7AKGt4
Save the Children	2 min.	Video - color	On blank	No	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/wat

Nonprofit Organization	Length	Imagery	Text	Music	Spokes	VO	Appeal Message	URL
			screen					ch?v=sslTmbHSJsI
Save the Children	60 sec.	Video - color Animation - color	With images	Yes	No	Yes	give $3 a month	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GYSfTYSoIRY
Save the Children	2 min.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	Yes	Yes	For $16 dollars a month, 62 cents a day	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-iAV6YLA3T8
Save the Children	30 sec.	Video - color	With images	Yes	Yes	Yes	Every little bit doesn't just help, it makes all the difference in the world.	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3Q8oh0AXJsE
Save the Children	2 min.	Video - color	With images & On blank screen	Yes	Yes	Yes	All it takes is $20 a month	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BddddBZhYBU
SPCA	2 min.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FR8rtsoXOGg
SPCA	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=98-RO9Jee00
SPCA of Texas	60 sec.	Still photography - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=idCwzy7vNRQ
St. Vincent Catholic Charities	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=C_lNi-BAmac&feature=related
St. Vincent de Paul Society	30 sec.	Video - color	With images	No	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=yDzlNgVJI0c
St. Vincent de Paul Thrift Store	30 sec.	Video - B&W	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ajuQZgn6Wps
Susan G. Komen for the Cure	60 sec.	Video - B&W & Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=P6wmo_Qqhd0
Susan G. Komen for the Cure	60 sec.	Still photography - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MAeE2zOxQ7E

Nonprofit Organization	Length	Imagery	Text	Music	Spokes	VO	Appeal Message	URL
TexasCanAcademy	90 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	No	No	None	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=57kKdIwZGnY&list=UUUSSOpMh-Zzic_xXmQRHq_g&index=3&feature=plcp
TheTruth	60 sec.	Video - color	With images	No	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Y_56BQmY_e8
TheTruth	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vyxxub_2n6Y
Thrive Africa	60 sec.	Still photography - B&W & Video - color	With images	Yes	No	No	Do something	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OYUoVo8E_SI
Toledo Museum of Art	30 sec.	Still photography - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GyGfZfIvxGE
United Way	50 sec.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	No	Donate $1	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rYpdwNIeBXQ
United Way	10 sec.	Animation - B&W	With images	Yes	Yes	No	Text "fit" to give $5	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=b38idebP4ag
United Way	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	No	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AYGvECuQmjg
United Way	45 sec.	Still photography - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IIZDXA5fVU0
United Way	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6UYN5QJLPdw
United Way	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZHxb4FZ5Wzg
United Way	30 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	Yes	Please give	http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rF0zzbXZJTI
World Wildlife Fund	60 sec.	Animation – color	On blank screen	No	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-mxDPhVc9iM
World Wildlife Fund	30 sec.	Video - B&W	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Fh_TVSEatzM
World Wildlife Fund	60 sec.	Still photography -	With images	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-2UOmUGC9xw

Nonprofit Organization	Length	Imagery	Text	Music	Spokes	VO	Appeal Message	URL
		color						
World Wildlife Fund - Canada	60 sec.	Video - color	On blank screen	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GrlEQ15mVPM
World Wildlife Fund - Netherlands	60 sec.	Video - color	With images	Yes	No	No	None	https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JqY9Q-_Sn38&NR=1&feature=fvwp

APPENDIX C

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Donation Intention – Study 1

Item		Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1.	**unlikely / likely**	.937	.962
2.	**non-existent / existent**	.922	
3.	**improbable / probable**	.937	
4.	**impossible / possible**	.688	
5.	**uncertain / certain**	.843	
6.	**definitely yes / definitely no**	.824	
7.	**not at all / very frequent**	.898	
8.	**no chance / certain chance**	.930	
9.	**probably / probably not**	.883	

Volunteer Intention – Study 1

Item		Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1.	**unlikely / likely**	.949	.974
2.	**non-existent / existent**	.947	
3.	**improbable / probable**	.932	
4.	**impossible / possible**	.807	
5.	**uncertain / certain**	.882	
6.	**definitely yes / definitely no**	.874	
7.	**not at all / very frequent**	.937	
8.	**no chance / certain chance**	.930	
9.	**probably / probably not**	.928	

Attitude toward the Ad (Affective) – Study 1

Item		Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1.	**good / bad**	.911	.962
2.	**irritating / not irritating**	.696	
3.	**interesting / boring**	.899	
4.	**appealing / unappealing**	.939	
5.	**impressive / unimpressive**	.900	
6.	**pleasant / unpleasant**	.877	
7.	**likeable / unlikeable**	.921	
8.	**uplifting / depressing**	.705	
9.	**enjoyable / not enjoyable**	.895	
10.	**agreeable / disagreeable**	.918	

Attitude toward the Ad (Cognitive) – Study 1

Item		Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1.	**trustworthy / untrustworthy**	.843	.962
2.	**persuasive / not at all persuasive**	.826	
3.	**informative / uninformative**	.839	
4.	**believable / unbelievable**	.870	
5.	**clear / not clear**	.701	
6.	**convincing / unconvincing**	.893	
7.	**meaningful / meaningless**	.925	
8.	**strong / weak**	.884	
9.	**helpful / not helpful**	.916	
10.	**useful / not useful**	.923	

Attitude toward the Ad (General) – Study 1

Item		Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1.	**irritating / not irritating**	.631	.951
2.	**effective / not at all effective**	.855	
3.	**favorable / unfavorable**	.895	
4.	**fair / unfair**	.902	
5.	**honest / dishonest**	.900	
6.	**valuable / not valuable**	.939	
7.	**dynamic / dull**	.793	
8.	**likeable / unlikeable**	.757	
9.	**strong / weak**	.896	
10.	**poor / outstanding**	.813	

Behavioral Intention – Study 1

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. I plan to donate to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year.	.968	.971
2. I will make an effort to donate to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year.	.957	
3. The chances of me donating to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year is:	.947	
4. I intend to donate to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year.	.971	

Attitude Toward the Behavior – Study 1

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. bad / good	.702	.948
2. pleasant / unpleasant	..811	
3. valuable / worthless	.821	
4. important / unimportant	.849	
5. worthless / worthwhile	.856	
6. lousy / nice	.822	
7. useless / useful	.862	
8. unpleasant / enjoyable	.785	
9. satisfying / unrewarding	.861	
10. pointless / meaningful	.829	
11. rewarding / ungratifying	.816	

Subjective Norms – Study 1

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. Most people who are important to me approve of my donating to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year.	.741	.804
2. Most people like me donated to a nonprofit organization sometime in the last year.	.817	
3. It is expected of me that I donate to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year.	.751	
4. Most people whose opinions I value donated to a nonprofit organization sometime in the last year.	.881	

Perceived Behavioral Control – Study 1

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. I am confident that if I wanted to I could donate to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year.	.754	.813
2. My donating to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year is completely up to me.	.847	
3. I have complete control over whether or not I donate to a nonprofit organization.	.829	
4. Donating to a nonprofit organization is beyond my capabilities.	.595	
5. For me to donate to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year is:	.592	

Involvement with the Ad – Study 1

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. I got involved in what the ad had to say.	.899	.949
2. The message seemed relevant to me.	.897	
3. This ad really made me think.	.928	
4. This ad was thought-provoking.	.919	
5. The Better Cities Coalition was very interesting.	.910	
6. I felt strong emotions while watching this ad.	.805	

Involvement with the Cause – Study 1

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. The Better Cities Coalition's cause of making cities better is important to me.	.874	.863
2. I relate to what the Better Cities Coalition is trying to do.	.860	
3. I find the effort by the Better Cities Coalition to be involving.	.884	
4. I am unmoved by the Better Cities Coalition's efforts.	.930	
5. I find the effort by the Better Cities Coalition to be uninvolving.	.934	

Attitude toward the Ad (Believability) – Study 1

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. Not at all believable / Highly believable	.965	.977
2. Not at all true / Absolutely true	.967	
3. Not at all acceptable / Totally acceptable	.960	
4. Not at all credible / Very credible	.978	

Attitude Toward Charitable Organizations – Study 1

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. The money given to charities goes for good causes.	.895	.839
2. Much of the money donated to charity is wasted.	.914	
3. My image of charitable organizations is positive.	.480	
4. Charitable organizations have ben quite successful in helping the needy.	.871	
5. Charity organizations perform a useful function for society.	.836	

Guilt and Shame Proneness – Study 1

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. After realizing you have received too much change at a store, you decide to keep it because the salesclerk doesn't notice. What is the likelihood that you would feel uncomfortable about keeping the money?	.585	.762
2. After making a big mistake on an important project at work in which people were depending on you, your boss criticizes you in front of your coworkers. What is the likelihood that you would feign sickness and leave work?	.752	
3. You reveal a friend's secret, though your friend never finds out. What is the likelihood that your failure to keep the secret would lead you to exert extra effort to keep secrets in the future?	.595	
4. A friend tells you that you boast a great deal. What is the likelihood that you would stop spending time with that friend?	.648	
5. Your home is very messy and unexpected guests knock on your door and invite themselves in. What is the likelihood that you would avoid the guests until they leave?	.724	
6. You secretly commit a felony. What is the likelihood that you would feel remorse about breaking the law?	.768	
7. You successfully exaggerate your damages in a lawsuit. Months later, your lies are discovered and you are charged with perjury. What is the likelihood that you would think you are a despicable human being?	.731	
8. You strongly defend a point of view in a discussion, and though nobody was aware of it, you realize that you were wrong. What is the likelihood that this would make you think more carefully before you speak?	.739	
9. You take office supplies home for personal use and are caught by your boss. What is the likelihood that this would lead you to quit your job?	.640	
10. You make a mistake at work and find out a coworker is blamed for the error. Later, your coworker confronts you about your mistake. What is the likelihood that you would feel like a coward?	.804	
11. At a coworker's housewarming party, you spill red wine on their new cream-colored carpet. You cover the stain with a chair so that nobody notices your mess. What is the likelihood that you would feel that the way you acted was pathetic?	.637	
12. While discussing a heated subject with friends, you suddenly realize you are shouting though nobody seems to notice. What is the likelihood that you would try to act more considerately toward your friends?	.781	

Social Approval Expectations – Study 1

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha

1. Your friends	.904	.947
2. Your family	.908	
3. Your relatives	.914	
4. Your neighbors	.874	
5. Your employer	.859	
6. Your coworkers	.878	

Environmental Concern – Study 1

Item	**Factor Loadings**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
1. The federal government will have to introduce harsh measures to halt pollution since few people will regulate themselves.	.695	.865
2. We should not worry about killing to many game animals because in the long run things will balance out.	.686	
3. I'd be willing to make personal sacrifices for the sake of slowing down pollution even though the immediate results may not seem significant.	.704	
4. Pollution is *not* personally affecting my life.	.684	
5. The benefits of modern consumer products are more important than the pollution that results from their production and use.	.731	
6. We must prevent any type of animal from becoming extinct, even if it means sacrificing some things for ourselves.	.691	
7. A course focusing on the conservation of natural resources should be taught in public schools.	.797	
8. Although there is continual contamination of our lakes, streams and air, nature's purifying process soon returns them to normal.	.769	
9. Because government has such good inspecting and control agencies, it's very unlikely that pollution due to energy production will become excessive.	.773	
10. The government should provide each citizen with a list of agencies and organizations to which citizens could report grievances concerning pollution.	.729	
11. Predators such as hawks, cows, skunks, and coyotes which prey on farmers' grain crops and poultry should be eliminated.	.648	
12. The currently active anti-pollution organizations are really more interested in disrupting society than they are in fighting pollution.	.463	
13. Even if public transportation was more efficient than it is, I would prefer to drive my car to work.	.675	
14. Industry is trying its best to develop effective anti-pollution technology.	.817	
15. If asked, I would contribute time, money, or both to an organization like the Sierra Club that works to improve the quality of the environment.	.772	

Donation Intention – Study 2

Item	**Factor Loadings**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
1. unlikely / likely	.924	.970
2. non-existent / existent	.946	
3. improbable / probable	.935	

4.	**impossible / possible**	.777
5.	**uncertain / certain**	.879
6.	**definitely yes / definitely no**	.859
7.	**not at all / very frequent**	.910
8.	**no chance / certain chance**	.931
9.	**probably / probably not**	.915

Volunteer Intention – Study 2

Item		**Factor Loadings**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
1.	**unlikely / likely**	.944	.981
2.	**non-existent / existent**	.955	
3.	**improbable / probable**	.956	
4.	**impossible / possible**	.831	
5.	**uncertain / certain**	.917	
6.	**definitely yes / definitely no**	.921	
7.	**not at all / very frequent**	.947	
8.	**no chance / certain chance**	.953	
9.	**probably / probably not**	.950	

Attitude toward the Ad (Affective) – Study 2

Item		**Factor Loadings**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
1.	**good / bad**	.895	.965
2.	**irritating / not irritating**	.749	
3.	**interesting / boring**	.925	
4.	**appealing / unappealing**	.938	
5.	**impressive / unimpressive**	.920	
6.	**pleasant / unpleasant**	.851	
7.	**likeable / unlikeable**	.923	
8.	**uplifting / depressing**	.737	
9.	**enjoyable / not enjoyable**	.883	
10.	**agreeable / disagreeable**	.923	

Attitude toward the Ad (Cognitive) – Study 2

Item		**Factor Loadings**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
1.	**trustworthy / untrustworthy**	.854	.970
2.	**persuasive / not at all persuasive**	.830	
3.	**informative / uninformative**	.871	
4.	**believable / unbelievable**	.899	
5.	**clear / not clear**	.811	

6.	**convincing / unconvincing**	.929
7.	**meaningful / meaningless**	.933
8.	**strong / weak**	.916
9.	**helpful / not helpful**	.938
10.	**useful / not useful**	.918

Attitude toward the Ad (General) – Study 2

Item		**Factor Loadings**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
1.	**irritating / not irritating**	.591	.965
2.	**effective / not at all effective**	.906	
3.	**favorable / unfavorable**	.927	
4.	**fair / unfair**	.881	
5.	**honest / dishonest**	.902	
6.	**valuable / not valuable**	.932	
7.	**dynamic / dull**	.870	
8.	**likeable / unlikeable**	.728	
9.	**strong / weak**	.887	
10.	**poor / outstanding**	.839	

Behavioral Intention – Study 2

Item	**Factor Loadings**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
1. I plan to donate to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year.	.954	.964
2. I will make an effort to donate to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year.	.949	
3. The chances of me donating to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year is:	.937	
4. I intend to donate to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year.	.964	

Attitude Toward the Behavior – Study 2

Item		**Factor Loadings**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
1.	**bad / good**	.805	.959
2.	**pleasant / unpleasant**	.805	
3.	**valuable / worthless**	.828	
4.	**important / unimportant**	.902	
5.	**worthless / worthwhile**	.891	
6.	**lousy / nice**	.872	

7.	**useless / useful**	.898
8.	**unpleasant / enjoyable**	.888
9.	**satisfying / unrewarding**	.810
10.	**pointless / meaningful**	.862
11.	**rewarding / ungratifying**	.737

Subjective Norms – Study 2

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. Most people who are important to me approve of my donating to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year.	.771	.824
2. Most people like me donated to a nonprofit organization sometime in the last year.	.815	
3. It is expected of me that I donate to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year.	.772	
4. Most people whose opinions I value donated to a nonprofit organization sometime in the last year.	.890	

Perceived Behavioral Control – Study 2

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. I am confident that if I wanted to I could donate to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year.	.755	.835
2. My donating to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year is completely up to me.	.853	
3. I have complete control over whether or not I donate to a nonprofit organization.	.838	
4. Donating to a nonprofit organization is beyond my capabilities.	.619	
5. For me to donate to a nonprofit organization sometime in the next year is:	.632	

Involvement with the Ad – Study 2

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. I got involved in what the ad had to say.	.892	.953
2. The message seemed relevant to me.	.890	
3. This ad really made me think.	.940	
4. This ad was thought-provoking.	.900	
5. The Better Cities Coalition was very interesting.	.932	
6. I felt strong emotions while watching this ad.	.847	

Involvement with the Cause – Study 2

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. The Better Cities Coalition's cause of making cities better is important to me.	.894	.853
2. I relate to what the Better Cities Coalition is trying to do.	.893	
3. I find the effort by the Better Cities Coalition to be involving.	.880	
4. I am unmoved by the Better Cities Coalition's efforts.	.921	
5. I find the effort by the Better Cities Coalition to be uninvolving.	.931	

Attitude toward the Ad (Believability) – Study 2

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. Not at all believable / Highly believable	.952	.965
2. Not at all true / Absolutely true	.960	
3. Not at all acceptable / Totally acceptable	.935	
4. Not at all credible / Very credible	.960	

Attitude Toward Charitable Organizations – Study 2

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. The money given to charities goes for good causes.	.873	.886
2. Much of the money donated to charity is wasted.	.839	
3. Charitable organizations have ben quite successful in helping the needy.	.871	
4. Charity organizations perform a useful function for society.	.871	

Social Approval Expectations – Study 2

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. Your friends	.896	.950
2. Your family	.919	
3. Your relatives	.922	
4. Your neighbors	.882	
5. Your employer	.851	
6. Your coworkers	.901	

Guilt and Shame Proneness – Study 2

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. After making a big mistake on an important project at work in which people were depending on you, your boss criticizes you in front of your coworkers. What is the likelihood that you would feign sickness and leave work?	.781	.774
2. A friend tells you that you boast a great deal. What is the likelihood that you would stop spending time with that friend?	.611	
3. Your home is very messy and unexpected guests knock on your door and invite themselves in. What is the likelihood that you would avoid the guests until they leave?	.728	
4. You secretly commit a felony. What is the likelihood that you would feel remorse about breaking the law?	.734	
5. You successfully exaggerate your damages in a lawsuit. Months later, your lies are discovered and you are charged with perjury. What is the likelihood that you would think you are a despicable human being?	.737	
6. You strongly defend a point of view in a discussion, and though nobody was aware of it, you realize that you were wrong. What is the likelihood that this would make you think more carefully before you speak?	.686	
7. You take office supplies home for personal use and are caught by your boss. What is the likelihood that this would lead you to quit your job?	.605	
8. You make a mistake at work and find out a coworker is blamed for the error. Later, your coworker confronts you about your mistake. What is the likelihood that you would feel like a coward?	.703	
9. At a coworker's housewarming party, you spill red wine on their new cream-colored carpet. You cover the stain with a chair so that nobody notices your mess. What is the likelihood that you would feel that the way you acted was pathetic?	.694	
10. While discussing a heated subject with friends, you suddenly realize you are shouting though nobody seems to notice. What is the likelihood that you would try to act more considerately toward your friends?	.687	

Environmental Concern – Study 2

Item	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
1. The federal government will have to introduce harsh measures to halt pollution since few people will regulate themselves.	.714	.720
2. We should not worry about killing to many game animals because in the long run things will balance out.	.773	
3. I'd be willing to make personal sacrifices for the sake of slowing down pollution even though the immediate results may not seem significant.		
4. Pollution is *not* personally affecting my life.	.736	
5. The benefits of modern consumer products are more important than the pollution that results from their production and use.	.803	
6. We must prevent any type of animal from becoming extinct, even if it means sacrificing some things for ourselves.	.745	

7. A course focusing on the conservation of natural resources should be taught in public schools.	.769
8. Although there is continual contamination of our lakes, streams and air, nature's purifying process soon returns them to normal.	.784
9. Because government has such good inspecting and control agencies, it's very unlikely that pollution due to energy production will become excessive.	.779
10. The government should provide each citizen with a list of agencies and organizations to which citizens could report grievances concerning pollution.	.674
11. Predators such as hawks, cows, skunks, and coyotes which prey on farmers' grain crops and poultry should be eliminated.	.653

APPENDIX D

AUDIENCE TYPES

	Synthesis	Profiles	Interpretation
Actionable Drivers (ATB)	One's involvement with the advertisement combines with one's attitude toward donating to help determine propensity to donate and the amount of the donation. However, this is dependent upon the message in the ad. When messages indicate that others are supportive of the cause, donations increase when one is more involved with the ad and is generally agreeable to donating. But these messages have the opposite effect when one is not involved with the ad – donations decrease when the message indicates others support the cause. And when messages indicate that even a minimal donation is possible, the attitude driver has no effect on donation behavior. Additionally, one's age plays a role in driving individuals toward action, with older people more driven to give when exposed to supportive messages than younger groups.	**Caring Giver** – Pre-disposed to a belief that supporting a cause is important, these individuals tend to be older, pay close attention to the message, and are more likely to donate regularly if they are told that others in their community are also supporting the cause. **Do the Right Thing** – While younger than the Caring Giver, these individuals also believe that donating to nonprofits is good. Therefore, they pay attention to messages that indicate others are also supportive of the cause, and are likely to donate when asked. **Not Today** – Despite their positive outlook toward nonprofits and charitable giving, if the advertisement doesn't earn their attention, even a message indicating that everyone else is supporting a particular cause is not enough to get them to donate. **I Don't Care** – Whether attitudes toward giving are positive or negative, or they pay attention to the ad or not, a message indicating it is socially acceptable to give the minimum is not enough to sway them into donating.	Whether young or old, those who pay attention to the ad and have a positive attitude are going to give if they are told that others support the cause. Therefore, the focus should be on those who are not involved with the ad but still believe giving to NPOs is good. Getting them involved may turn them from non-donor to donor when accompanied by messages of community support. To increase involvement, marketing managers should focus on entertaining the target audience, something NPOs do not typically do well. The key is to make people interested by keeping them off balance, within the appropriateness of the cause. Putting people on edge though the unusual and unexpected gets attention and, ultimately, increases audience involvement. Ads by the anti-smoking campaign TheTruth.com may be a good example of the appropriate edginess to accomplish this, and have been proven to be a significant factor in declining numbers of smokers.

	Synthesis	Profiles	Interpretation
Social Referents (SN)	For individuals who tend to rely on referents for their own actions, differing messages in advertisements have little effect whether they are involved with what the ad has to say or not. That is, in most cases, only their involvement with the ad seems to be the real indicator of behavior. That said, the message that indicates that minimum giving is acceptable seems to affect donations, as individuals more prone to seek referent input rely on this message to help direct behavior. But, the cues were more readily adopted by those who were not highly involved. In addition, individuals who are younger are more likely to be persuaded by minimal giving messages than those who are older. However, messages indicating amount of support for the cause had no effect, as individuals were apparently not given enough of a cue how to act.	**Youth Movement** – Younger individuals today may rely on their referents more than older people. Thus, this group is more likely to donate when it hears a message indicating that minimal effort is acceptable, particularly when they aren't paying close attention to the advertisement. This is also likely a function of younger individuals not having as much disposable income as older individuals, thus the message presents them with a way to have meaningful participation. **Conventional Wisdom** – Older individuals who are not terribly interested in the nonprofit advertisement are still more likely to donate if they are the type who rely on their referents and are exposed to a message condoning minimal participation. **Skepticans** – Even though these individuals rely heavily on input from others when making decisions, they are not going to donate when they are exposed to a message indicating their community is supportive or not supportive of a nonprofit, nor whether they are interested or not in the ad.	When it comes to individuals who look to others for behavioral cues, messages that make minimal participation acceptable – such as "Even a penny will help" – have the effect of increasing donations, but only for those who are not paying much attention. Therefore, marketing managers working for NPOs should consider the likelihood of their audience involvement in the ad when using this type of message because such a message will have a negative effect on individuals who are paying attention. Because public service announcements are often scheduled by broadcasters at times of low viewership, those who are viewing are likely not going to be terribly involved in the ad. It is at this time that minimal participation messages might have a positive effect on donations. Late night television viewing is also much more common among younger audiences, and may offer another reason for using minimum giving messages. The United Way may accomplish this with ads that contain messages "Donate $1" and "Text 'fit' to give $5" because

			both indicate minimal giving, and the letter also communicates minimal effort.

	Synthesis	Profiles	Interpretation
Self-Efficacy (PBC)	Whether one believes they have the ability to donate or volunteer can be affected by messages indicating minimal gifts are acceptable. Therefore, individuals who don't believe they can make a gift are more persuaded by messages that make it possible for small donations. When such messages do not exist, however, individuals are likely to donate or volunteer only when they are highly involved with the ad. That is, the absence of messages boosting self-efficacy forces individuals to make decisions based solely on their interest in the ad. However, those who were involved were more likely to donate or volunteer when there was no message referring to minimal donations than when there was. This would seem to	**Enabled Doubter** – While these individuals do not have much faith in their ability to donate or volunteer, all it takes is a message informing them that they can participate at the lowest possible level to turn them into a donor or volunteer. In fact, this message approving minimal support convinces these individuals whether they are interested in the ad or not. **Why Not** – Despite the fact that they know they can contribute, this group is simply not interested in the advertisement. Therefore, a message that indicates they do not need to do much to participate resonates with them and can increase donations and volunteerism. **Don't Tell Me What to Do** – Because these individuals believe in their abilities to contribute to a nonprofit, and they are paying close attention to the ad's messages, they react negatively when told what to do, but positively when left to their own devices. Therefore, a message indicating that minimal support for the cause is	When it comes to an individual's belief in their own abilities to donate or volunteer, those who believe they are not able to contribute are more likely to give time or money when they encounter a message that says the minimum effort is socially acceptable. This is true whether they are interested or not. But when it comes to those who believe they can help out, such a message generates different reactions. Those paying attention will give less when they see this message, and those not paying attention will give more. Therefore, marketing managers must be sure not to insult their regular donors by making minimal gift requests. These messages should be saved for people who are likely to give, but might not be familiar with the NPO. Because of their unfamiliarity, a message about minimal giving should be effective. But do not show this advertisement when existing donors might be tuned in, or at the annual donor/volunteer thank you

	indicate that messages justifying minimum giving have a dampening effect on those who believe they have the ability to give. However, the opposite is true when involvement is low, where the minimal giving message increases donations and volunteerism.	acceptable makes them less likely to donate or volunteer, while an ad that contains no such directive allows these individuals to make a contribution based on their own beliefs, which they typically will.	reception. NPOs that ask potential donors in one country to help individuals in another should incorporate this strategy. Examples of such an execution include Kiva.org and the Clinton-Bush Haiti Fund.

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