

Advertising for a good cause or simply good advertising?

A quantitative study of the brand-related and social effects
of purpose-driven advertising claims

Abstract: Brands frequently engage in purpose-driven advertising where they promote a social issue, often without communicating any information about related CSR activities. Still, little is known about the effects of such purpose-driven advertising claims, both on the brands engaging in such advertising (brand-related effects) and the societies in which it is present (social effects). This thesis investigates the effects of purpose-driven advertising on consumer evaluations, purchase intentions, and issue-related support behaviors. A quantitative experimental study with 313 Swedish respondents was used to examine the effects of exposure to purpose-driven advertising with claims addressing two different social issues; environmental protection and gender equality. The results indicate that purpose-driven advertising claims can have significant positive brand-related effects but show no evidence of influence on consumers' issue-related support behaviors. The present study adds to the existing body of research on advertising with a social dimension and suggests that advertisers can benefit from the positive brand-related effects of purpose-driven advertising by showing public-serving intentions. Further, the thesis examines value theory in an advertising context and highlights the boundaries of influencing individual values and behaviors through advertising as a situational cue.

Keywords: Purpose-driven advertising, goodvertising, CSR advertising, social effects of advertising, value theory

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Definitions

Purpose-driven advertising	For the purpose of this thesis, purpose-driven advertising is defined as advertising that promotes societal improvement by explicitly taking a stand on or supporting a social issue (Nas, 2017; Minár, 2016).
Purpose-driven advertising claim	For the purpose of this thesis, a purpose-driven advertising claim refers to the message communicated in purpose-driven advertising.
Advertising with a social dimension	An umbrella term used to describe advertising associated with social topics, including, but not limited to cause marketing, cause-related marketing, corporate issue promotion, corporate social marketing, social issues marketing, mission marketing or passion branding (Drumwright, 1996).
Traditional advertising	For the purpose of this thesis, traditional advertising is a term used to describe advertising that is not purpose-driven and hence, lacks a social dimension.
Issue-related support behaviors	For the purpose of this thesis, issue-related support behaviors are defined as behaviors in line with the message of a purpose-driven advertising claim in a situation unrelated to the ad.
Values	A desirable transsituational goal in varying importance, which serves as a guiding principle in the life of a person (Schwartz, 1992, p. 21).
Brand-related effects	Consumer reactions that are related to the sender or the persuasive purpose of the ad (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016).
Social effects	Consumer reactions that need not be related to the sender or the persuasive purpose of the ad (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016).

I Introduction

The new and popular advertising phenomenon of purpose-driven advertising, where for-profit organizations promote social issues, poses questions for both practitioners and researchers. This section outlines the background to purpose-driven advertising and identifies a need for further research on the brand-related and social effects of such advertising. Thereafter, the purpose, scope and expected knowledge contribution of this thesis are presented.

Today's consumers are becoming increasingly empowered. With improved access to information, a broadening range of products and services, and the opportunity to instantly share their brand experiences with the world, consumers are putting higher demands on brands to live up to their expectations (Perkin & Fenech, 2014). Simultaneously, contemporary consumers expect companies not just to have functional benefits, but to also serve a societal purpose (Rodriguez & Bharadway, 2017). Not only have consumers started to boycott brands that do not align with their values (YouGov, 2017), but they are expecting firms to take responsibility for making positive societal impact (Cone, 2017). There has been a significant shift in the beliefs regarding what role businesses should play in society and consumers now trust businesses to meet social challenges while a growing number of companies are integrating CSR initiatives into their corporate practices (Meier & Cassar, 2018).

Within advertising, this development toward increasing corporate social engagement is clearly visible. Minár (2016) describes the inclination of brands to communicate on topics with a social dimension, or even advocating for social change, as one of the most recent and important trends in contemporary advertising. The increasing competition for consumers' attention induces brands to, through their advertising, not only offer entertainment or information (e.g. Dahlén, Rosengren, & Törn, 2008; Ducoffe, 1995) but speak to their hearts (Minár, 2016). Researchers and professionals have argued that the pressure from contemporary, empowered consumers has encouraged brands to integrate communication linked to social, cultural and environmental issues into their marketing activities (Minár, 2016). Confirming these ideas, recent market research shows that brands engaging in social issues build stronger relationships with young customers and that most of young consumers believe brands should use their advertising to raise awareness about social issues (Edelman, 2018; Glenday, 2018).

As a response to the growing consumer demands of social responsibility, brands are increasingly engaging in what has been referred to as purpose-driven advertising or goodvertising (e.g. Blanaru, 2018; Hein, 2017; Färilin, 2016; Minár, 2016). The term purpose-driven advertising refers to when brands through their advertising, communicate that they are interested in something else than just products and sales figures and show that they are “brands that care” (Nas, 2017; Minár, 2016). These purpose-driven campaigns are becoming increasingly common in Sweden as well as internationally (Orlic, 2017), indicating that commercial brands are globally and creatively entering an area previously owned by charities, NGOs, governments and scientific institutions.

As the companies behind purpose-driven advertising generally have a primary goal of profit-maximization, the growing number of ads with social dimensions has spurred debate about what roles brands and advertising should play in society (Biraghi, Gambetti, & Schultz, 2017). Some scholars argue that advertising’s primary and final purpose always is to create favorable brand-related reactions (Eisend, 2016). Hence, incorporating social dimensions in advertising is solely a means to an end, where brands are depicting existing social values prevalent in society to appeal to consumers (ibid.). This would infer that purpose-driven advertising merely is a response to changing consumer demands (Minár, 2016). On the other hand, others have argued that purpose-driven advertising is a way for industry actors to show that they take responsibility and promote the positive social effects of advertising (Nas, 2017; Kolster, 2012). According to this view, purpose-driven advertising is not only a response to changing consumer demands but a way for companies to proactively make an effort to create real societal impact (Kolster, 2012).

While brands taking a stand on a social issue, communicating a higher purpose, or calling for social change is not a new phenomenon, the amount of such advertising and the diverse set of brands behind it have never been greater (Orlic, 2017). For instance, several of the US Super Bowl advertisements in 2017 incorporated social messages rather than only promoting brands or products (Williams, 2017). Examples include Budweiser’s “Born the hard way” (AdAge, 2017a) adhering to inclusivity and work ethic and Kia’s “Hero’s journey” (AdAge, 2017b) celebrating all actions undertaken to save the environment. These commercials exemplify how brands, through purpose-driven advertising, are trying to become relevant by aligning their conversation with what consumers care about, while calling for social change.

1.1 Problematization

Out of the myriad of purpose-driven campaigns, many have successfully managed to find the sweet spot where they are both celebrated by the public, awarded for their creativity, and are driving sales (Horst, 2017). Recurring examples include Dove's "Real Beauty" campaign (Taylor, Johnston, & Whitehead, 2016), Always' "Like a Girl" campaign (Griner & Ciambriello, 2015), and AT&T's "The Unseen" (Natividad, 2016). However, brands' attempts to make social statements have also been met with criticism and spurred debate about the advertisers' actual intentions. Some brands have evidently failed in their purpose-driven advertising efforts. Pepsi's campaign with Kendall Jenner was, for example, blamed for trivializing the Black Lives Matter movement and criticized to the point that Pepsi had to withdraw the ad (Victor, 2017). Even when it comes to seemingly successful campaigns, opinions diverge. For example, advertising that empowers women, also referred to as "femvertising," has been criticized for using the feminist movement to increase sales, resulting in journalists labeling such advertising as corporate hypocrisy or "goodwashing" (Martell, 2018). Dove's successful "real beauty" campaign promoting different body types has, for instance, not only been accoladed but also criticized for exploiting women's insecurities (Duffy, 2015).

While the increased use of purpose-driven advertising implies that most consumers favorably evaluate these campaigns, limited academic research has been conducted to explore purpose-driven advertising's brand-related effects. Several scholars have investigated how CSR advertising, such as cause-related or advocacy advertising, is evaluated by consumers. However, purpose-driven advertising where claims for social change are not complemented with information about CSR activities such as corporate donations or community engagement, is still relatively unexplored. Further, several purpose-driven advertising campaigns have been met with critique, where consumers question the brands' true intentions. This raises the question of how consumers perceive the underlying objectives of advertising with such unsupported claims, and whether this perception influences consumer evaluations. Thus, to increase the understanding of how purpose-driven advertising with claims concerning social change impacts consumer responses and perceptions, more research needed.

Moreover, the debate of whether purpose-driven advertising has potential to drive real social change and improve consumers' lives, or if it simply represents a clever way for companies to tap into what their audiences care about at the moment, is ongoing. Prior research has mainly focused on the brand-related effects of advertising, such as cognitive, affective and behavioral consumer responses, including brand attitudes, ad liking and purchase intentions (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016). When it comes to the social effects of advertising, i.e. the effects not related to the company or the persuasive message of the ad (ibid.), they have historically been assumed to be negative (Pollay, 1986). For instance, it has been suggested that advertising reinforces materialism, cynicism, irrationality, social competitiveness and powerlessness (Pollay, 1987). Many scholars have focused on the connection between advertising and negative social effects such as eating disorders (Stice & Shaw, 1994), life dissatisfaction among children (Buijzen & Valkenburg, 2003), body dissatisfaction (Smeesters, Mussweiler, & Mandel, 2009; Lavine, Sweeney, & Wagner, 1999) and childhood obesity (Chou, Rashad, & Grossman, 2008). Opposed to this traditional point of view that advertising's primary social effects are negative, a growing body of research suggests that the social impact of advertising actually can be positive (e.g. Åkestam, Rosengren, & Dahlen, 2017b; Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016; Rosengren, Dahlén, & Modig, 2013; Defever, Pandelaere, & Roe, 2011; Halliwell & Dittmar, 2004). Research on the positive social effects of advertising include, for example, empathy and social connectedness (Åkestam et al., 2017b), perceptions of body ideals (Bissell & Rask, 2010), creativity (Rosengren et al., 2013; Fitzsimons, Chartrand, & Fitzsimons, 2008), benevolent behaviors (Chang, 2014; Defever et al., 2011) and green or healthy consumption (Yoon, 2015; Tucker, Rifon, Lee, & Reece, 2012).

One obvious explanation for why the research on the social effects of advertising is sparse is that it is challenging to capture advertising's social impact. However, while being an ambitious research aim, Dahlen and Rosengren (2016) argue that advertising must continuously "extend the range of effects to stay relevant" (p. 337). As companies carefully evaluate the effectiveness of their advertising in terms of sales and brand-related effects, it appears relevant to also, despite the inherent difficulty, make an effort to assess the social effects of campaigns calling for a social change to fully understand the impact of such advertising.

To summarize, if purpose-driven advertising can improve brand-related effects, have a positive social impact, or maybe both is a question relevant to both practitioners and researchers. However, without a sufficient amount of empirical studies on how purpose-driven advertising affects the consumers' evaluations, values and behaviors and in the long run even societies, there is no clear answer to this question. Thus, there is an evident need to further explore the effects of purpose-driven advertising claims.

1.2 Purpose of the study

This thesis aims to enrich the understanding of the effects of for-profit companies' purpose-driven advertising claims, not complemented with information about the company's CSR activities, regarding both brand-related and social effects. This is to fully grasp whether purpose-driven advertising claims can have benefits for the advertising firm, society at large, or both. Regarding the brand-related effects, the study seeks to explore purpose-driven advertising claims' impact on ad attitude, brand attitude, company attitude, and purchase intentions. Additionally, it aims to investigate what role consumers' perception of the advertisers' intentions plays in shaping consumer responses to purpose-driven advertising. Further, regarding the social effects, the purpose of this thesis is to capture potential impact on engagement in issue-related support behaviors (socially beneficial behaviors in situations unrelated to the advertisement). We also seek to explore whether purpose-driven advertising claims may influence an individual's values and if this, in turn, can influence engagement in issue-related support behaviors.

To summarize, the purpose of this thesis is to answer the following research question:

- *Can exposure to purpose-driven advertising claims positively impact consumers' brand-related responses and issue-related support behaviors?*

1.3 Expected knowledge contribution

The trend of brands responding to consumers' demands for companies to engage in social issues has received attention from both scholars and practitioners. Yet, there are still unexplored areas and effects of this type of advertising, especially those transcending brand-related effects (i.e. the social effects).

The lack of research on the effects of for-profit organizations' use of purpose-driven advertising claims without communicating any evidence of other corporate support of the

addressed issue, calls for further investigation. Through a survey-based quantitative experiment on Swedish consumers, this thesis aims to expand the existing advertising research on advertising with a social dimension from two main perspectives. First, as previous research has looked at the brand-related effects of advertising with CSR components, but not the isolated brand-related effects of advertising claims that promote a social issue, this thesis builds on existing research on corporate image advertising to contribute to filling this research gap. Secondly, largely due to the critique aimed towards contemporary advertising, the positive social effects of advertising have recently gained increased attention. While there seems to be a shift within the advertising industry, where many advertisers are actively engaging in advertising that tries to have a positive societal impact (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016), research on the social effects of such efforts is limited. By investigating if purpose-driven advertising claims can generate positive behaviors in situations unrelated to the advertisement (issue-related support behaviors), we expect to contribute to the growing body of research on the social effects of advertising (e.g. Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016; Rosengren et al., 2013), where behavior is still a relatively unexplored area. Further, by investigating individual values' role as a predictor of behaviors in an advertising context, we seek to contribute to existing value theories by addressing the potential relationship between advertising, values, and behaviors in a new situational context.

In addition to the theoretical contribution, the results are expected to have direct implications for brand managers, advertisers, consultants, and other marketing professionals, contemplating whether a purpose-driven advertising campaign could benefit the brand and, in extension, society as a whole.

1.4 Delimitations

The current study focuses only on the claim in a purpose-driven print ad to enable examination of the effects of these claims in isolation. Consequently, potential influences of the type of media format, previous knowledge of the advertiser and its CSR activities related to the advertising claim are intentionally beyond the scope of this thesis. Further, the present study assesses purpose-driven advertising claims promoting two particular social issues, gender equality and environmental protection, and ads representing two product categories, all carefully chosen (see section 3.5 *Preparations for the main study*). While this breadth increases

the potential of generalization of results, the present study is still delimited to those particular social issues and product categories.

While prior research on the social effects of advertising does not explicitly differentiate between social effects that improve the lives of individual consumers (e.g. consumer well-being) and effects that generate social change for the benefit of the general public (e.g. reducing environmental impact), this thesis is delimited to the latter. Both of these types of social effects are considered positive. However, it should be recognized that their societal impact may be inherently different. As this study aims to capture the potential advertising effects with societal impact, it specifically investigates behaviors that are positive for the society, but not necessarily positive for the individual consumer.

The study is further delimited to the social effects in terms of issue-related support behaviors. While aiming to capture behavioral changes poses practical research challenges, behaviors were deemed to be of particular interest as behavioral change is a vital factor for societal improvement. Selecting values as a predictor of behavior was done because of the previously established relationship between the two, particularly in the field of social psychology (e.g. De Groot & Steg, 2010; Eyal, Sagristano, Trope, Liberman, & Chaiken, 2009; De Groot & Steg, 2008; Verplanken & Holland, 2002; Karp, 1996). Hence, this thesis is delimited to investigating purpose-driven advertising claims' social impact in terms of individual values and issue-related support behaviors.

Finally, while purpose-driven advertising is a global phenomenon (Orlic, 2017), this study is delimited to a Swedish advertising context and Swedish respondents. First, Sweden is a good example of a market where purpose-driven advertising is of high interest for professionals (Sveriges Annonsörer, 2017). Secondly, limited resources and access to respondents constrained the study to a single nation sample.

1.5 Research outline

This thesis consists of six main sections. Above, the *Introduction* outlined the background and problematization of the research topic and defined the purpose of the study. Succeeding this section, the *Theory and hypothesis generation* reviews the existing theories and previous relevant research and presents hypotheses to be tested. In the *Method* section, the methodological approach applied to answer the research question is described together with the reasoning

behind methodological choices. The results, generated from a quantitative, experimental approach are then presented in the *Results and analysis* section. In the *Discussion*, the analytical results are discussed in relation to previous research and existing theories. Lastly, in the *Conclusion*, the key findings are summarized and presented, the research question answered and the theoretical and managerial implications for the main findings are discussed. This last section ends with a discussion about the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research on the topic of purpose-driven advertising.

2 Theory and hypothesis generation

This section outlines existing literature on advertising with social dimensions and describes the theoretical framework applied to generate hypotheses. First, a general introduction to corporate image advertising and CSR advertising is outlined. Then, hypotheses of the suggested effects of purpose-driven advertising are generated from existing research in related fields.

2.1 Corporate image advertising

In a marketplace with increasing competition, the role of corporate and brand images as bases for consumer discrimination is becoming more and more important (Meenaghan, 1995). A corporate image reflects “the immediate mental picture that audiences have of an organization” (Gray & Balmer, 1998, p. 697). Previous research suggests that a favorable corporate image can give a company a distinctive appeal and be a source of competitive advantage (Chung, Yu, Choi, & Shin, 2015; Yeo, Goh, & Tso, 2011; Marziliano, 1998). One common way for brands to promote a desired corporate image, rather than promoting specific products or services, is through corporate image advertising (Pomeroy & Johnson, 2009; Sinclair & Irani, 2005). Corporate image advertising is a general term to describe advertising activities with the objective to favorably impact stakeholders’ overall perception of a company (Pomeroy & Johnson, 2009). Through corporate image advertising, a company can inform their key stakeholders, including their customers, about their desired corporate identity through cues, which in turn can support the development of positive corporate associations (ibid.), not related to the products or services.

2.1.1 Corporate image advertising with a social dimension

Already in 1996, Drumwright identified that corporate image advertising with social dimensions was on the rise. Since then it has become even more common that companies affiliate with causes such as fighting cancer (e.g. Yoplait; General Mills, 2011), gender equality (e.g. Audi; Dwyer, 2017), HBTQ rights (e.g. Guinness; Macleod, 2015) and environmental protection (e.g. Adidas; AdNews, 2018). Such advertising communicating about a social issue includes, for example, cause marketing (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988), advocacy advertising (Haley, 1996) corporate social marketing (Hoeffler & Keller, 2002; Drumwright, 1996) and passion branding (Arnott, 1994).

A suggested reason for why social dimensions are commonly used in corporate image advertising is that they help build favorable associations, which in turn increase brand equity (Yoon, Gürhan-Canli, & Schwarz, 2006; Hoeffler & Keller, 2002; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001; Brown & Dacin, 1997). These cognitive associations work as strategic assets and may function as a source of sustainable competitive advantage (Aaker, 1997). Unlike other types of corporate information, such as product quality or innovative abilities, a companies' social engagement information helps build aspects of the corporate image that are both enduring and distinctive (Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2010). Fundamentally, corporate image advertising with social a dimension is a way to create a brand meaning and influence what the brand stands for in consumers' minds. For example, social dimensions may help develop a sincerer brand personality (Aaker, 1997), where the consumers perceive the people behind as caring (Hoeffler & Keller, 2002). For instance, when Procter & Gamble (P&G) links their women's hygiene brands Always and Tampax to women's health issues, this may be to create associations that the brands care about women's health. If successful, consumers will then transfer any positive feelings they may have regarding the importance of women's health to P&G as well as Always and Tampax (ibid.). In turn, consumers may believe that P&G is a caring and genuine company that cares about good causes.

2.2 CSR communication in advertising

A common way to incorporate social dimensions into a firm's corporate image advertising is through communication of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) activities (Pirsch, Gupta, & Grau, 2007). CSR is a concept used to describe how businesses go beyond economic criteria, such as creating products and profits, to pursue broader social and environmental goals (Pomering, Johnson, & Noble, 2013). Out of the different CSR frameworks, Carroll's work (1979; 1999) has received the most attention (Mohr, Webb, & Harris, 2001). Carroll outlines four kinds of responsibility dimensions, including economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic (Carroll, 1979). In social marketing, the concept of CSR is defined at a more abstract level as "a commitment to improve community well-being through discretionary business practices and contributions of corporate resources" (Kotler, Hessekiel, & Lee, 2012, p. 5). While different definitions are offered, CSR engagement generally refers to corporate social activities that exceed what is ethically expected or mandated by law (ibid.).

While CSR is considered more than a marketing activity, several scholars have highlighted the communicative value of CSR. For instance, CSR has been linked to improved corporate image and brand equity (Pomeroy & Johnson, 2009; Hoeffler & Keller, 2002), enhanced product evaluations, decreased risks in a market crisis (Pirsch et al., 2007) as well as increased purchase intentions and customer loyalty (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001; Brown & Dacin, 1997). Rather than only reflecting the ideological idea that companies can be positive, powerful forces for social change, CSR communication can serve as an essential corporate image tool that helps to improve financial performance (Simpson & Kohers, 2002; Ruf, Muralidhar, Brown, Janney, & Paul, 2001). Previous research has defined two main types of corporate advertising used to create a socially responsible corporate image; advocacy advertising (Haley, 1996) and cause-related advertising (Sinclair & Irani, 2005). To deepen the understanding of the effects of incorporating a social dimension to a firm's corporate image advertising, previous research on these two types of CSR advertising is further described below.

2.2.1 Advocacy advertising

Advocacy advertising is a specific type of image advertising where the company advocates for a social cause (Lee, Haley, & Yang, 2013). It is often referred to as a marketing tool to impact the public opinion and the environment in a way that makes it more favorable to their business (Haley, 1996). Sethi (1979) emphasized the aggressive and controversial nature of such advertising. Compared to other types of CSR advertising which can be applied by most organizations, advocacy advertising refers explicitly to that of organizations within criticized industries such as oil, gas, alcohol, tobacco and fast food (Irani & Sinclair, 2005; Menon & Kahn, 2003). Depending on what threat the company is facing, there are different types of deflection strategies it can employ through advocacy advertising. Researchers have primarily defined three different types of advocacy advertising (Lee et al., 2013), including marketplace advocacy advertising which tries to build acceptance for the company's products or services (Sinclair & Irani, 2005), political advocacy advertising which supports legislation or other legislative and regulatory actions (ibid.), and value advocacy advertising which tries to deflect criticism by associating the organization with accepted social values (Sinclair & Irani, 2005; Bostdorff & Vibbert, 1994). While this categorization serves theoretical value, one must recognize that, in practice, these three types of advocacy advertising are not mutually exclusive, and often appear in combination (Sinclair & Irani, 2005). For example,

advertising can associate the company's products with important societal values (e.g. by promoting them as environmentally friendly) and thus use a combination of value and marketplace advocacy advertising.

2.2.2 Cause-related advertising

Another type of CSR advertising is cause-related advertising which, similarly to advocacy advertising, tries to build a pro-social image for the organization (Sinclair & Irani, 2005). Cause-related advertising does this by connecting the company to a non-profit organization and linking the purchase of the firm's products or services to fundraising (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988). For example, when the Swedish grocery chain ICA promotes their "Pink Products" campaign during October every year, where up to 10 SEK is donated to the Swedish Cancer Society for every product purchased (ICA, n.d.), they are engaging in cause-related advertising. The main objectives for engaging in cause-related advertising are often both related to corporate gains, such as increased sales and enhancement of the firm's corporate image, and to generating funds to the chosen cause (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988).

2.3 Purpose-driven advertising

Despite numerous trade publications on the topic of purpose-driven advertising, very little academic research has been conducted on the subject (Hsu, 2017). The term goodvertising, which refers to the same phenomenon, was introduced in 2012 by marketing professional Thomas Kolster and defined as "creative advertising that cares" (Nas, 2017). Both concepts are used to describe how advertising can contribute to social good by taking the needs and values of society into consideration (Kolster, 2012). Minár (2016) describes this type of advertising as corporate communication that makes a moral or ethical statement about the state of the world with the intention of improving it. Hence, purpose-driven advertising or goodvertising is advertising that shows that the brand cares and takes responsibility, by calling for social change (ibid.). Nas (2017) argues that purpose-driven advertising offers a third perspective to the understanding of advertising's societal implications, in addition to the existing critique and defense of advertising's social impact. The new approach both criticizes the traditional application of advertising while emphasizing advertising's important role in creating social good by adding value to individual and social life (ibid.).

While purpose-driven advertising and CSR advertising concepts such as cause-related advertising and advocacy advertising may appear similar, they are inherently different and should not be confused (Garbe & Stengel, 2012). Hsu (2017) argues that while purpose-driven advertising often embraces CSR activities, purpose-driven advertising is a much broader concept than CSR advertising. First, while advocacy advertising may, just like purpose-driven advertising, promote social issues or advocate for social causes, advocacy advertising, by definition, refers to such initiatives taken by firms in criticized industries with the objective to deflect criticism. Consequently, the concept does not adequately include when companies in other industries engage in similar advertising activities, with other than defensive objectives. Secondly, purpose-driven advertising is clearly broader than cause-related advertising as all cause-related ads, but not all purpose-driven ads include the element of fundraising. Further, not all cause-related advertising campaigns would be considered purpose-driven as fundraising does not automatically come with ethical or moral statements about the world with the intention of improving it, a central element of purpose-driven advertising.

Further, there are several examples of purpose-driven advertising that would not be considered CSR as CSR initiatives are expected to extend beyond the firm's marketing activities (Singh, Iglesias, & Batista-Foguet, 2012). For example, Always' purpose-driven advertising campaign "Like A Girl" aimed to challenge how society speaks about women and the inherent meaning of doing something "like a girl" (D&AD, n.d.). As the campaign did not involve any donations, changes in business practices or other corporate community contributions it would not be considered CSR. Rather, the potential social impact of the campaign was solely that of attitude and behavior changes of its audience. There are several other examples of brands that have engaged in purpose-driven advertising, communicating a stand on a social issue, without communicating any proof of other issue-related CSR activities. For example, H&M's campaign "LadyLike" (H&M, 2016) and Åhléns' campaign "The new clothing power structure" (Törner, 2016), both challenged the traditional gender norms in fashion and expressed a need for change in what is considered male and female clothing. Still, none of these represent CSR initiatives.

Such campaigns with messages calling for changes in norms are often considered purpose-driven advertising, as they express a need for societal change. They do not, however,

necessarily fit with the existing definition of CSR practices. Hence, it can be concluded that the concept of purpose-driven advertising refers to the message claims in the advertising, while the concept of CSR refers to ethical business practices. While these concepts evidently can coexist in the same advertising campaign, there are multiple examples of when they are used separately. An overview of the presented concepts and their relations to each other is presented in Figure 1 where the grey area highlights the focus of this study.

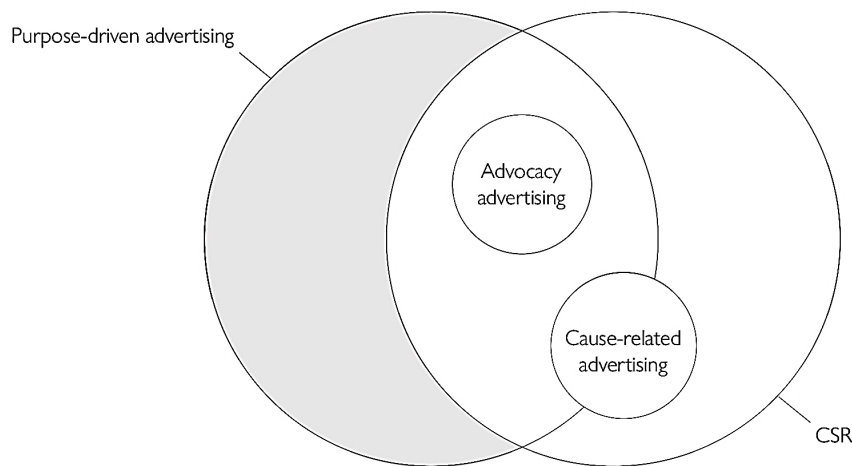


Figure 1 – Overview of CSR and communication with a social dimension

In summary, for the purpose of this thesis, purpose-driven advertising is defined as advertising that promotes societal improvement by explicitly taking a stand on or supporting a social issue (Nas, 2017; Minár, 2016). While there is already a large body of research on the brand effects of CSR advertising, the effects of advertising with purpose-driven claims are still relatively unexplored (Hsu, 2017). Therefore, this thesis is concerned with investigating the effects of purpose-driven advertising claims not communicated in combination with information about the firm's issue-related CSR activities.

2.3.1 Potential effects of purpose-driven advertising claims

As research on purpose-driven advertising claims is still limited, the theoretical framework used in this thesis to generate hypotheses regarding the effects of such claims is largely based on research related to the adjacent concepts of CSR advertising; cause-related marketing and advocacy advertising. Within this field, a large body of research has focused on the factors that influence such advertising's effectiveness (e.g. Lee, Haley, & Mark, 2012; Nan & Heo,

2007; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; Mohr et al., 2001; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001; Drumwright, 1996). While the effectiveness depends on the objectives of the advertising campaign, and the objectives are up to the company, there are two different objectives commonly claimed; brand-related and social effects. The first is to enhance the image of the brand (ibid.) and drive sales (Polonsky & Speed, 2001). The second is to promote a social issue, for example, to generate donations, increase awareness or to encourage behavioral change (Lee, Haley, & Yang, 2017). Companies engaging in purpose-driven advertising often argue for having philanthropic intentions (i.e. focusing on the social effects) while critics have argued that most social engagements are purely branding tools where firms exploit social issues for financial reasons (i.e. focusing on brand-related effects). Below, we outline the suggested brand-related and social effects of purpose-driven advertising claims.

2.4 Suggested brand-related effects of purpose-driven advertising claims

2.4.1 Ad, brand, and company attitudes

Attitude, defined as “an individual’s internal evaluation of an object” (Mitchell & Olson, 1981, p. 318) is a frequently encountered concept in the field of advertising, mainly because of its value in indicating advertising effectiveness and predicting purchase intentions (ibid). Ad, brand and company attitudes are essential for marketers to acknowledge because they represent the consumers’ overall evaluations and are thus fundamental for understanding consumers’ evaluations of marketing messages.

A consumer’s attitude towards the ad has been defined as a “predisposition to respond in a favorable or unfavorable manner to a particular advertising stimulus during a particular exposure occasion” (Lutz, 1985). Because evaluations of and reactions to an ad can be transferred to the brand and company behind the advertising, as well its products or services, the concept is highly relevant within marketing research (MacKenzie, Lutz, & Belch, 1986). While it has been theoretically suggested that social claims in advertising can favorably impact ad attitudes as consumers generally have positive associations toward social engagements (Nan & Heo, 2007), such research is sparse. Instead, rather than studying the relative effects of advertising including a social dimension compared with advertising without it, research has been concerned with the absolute effects measuring how different factors (e.g. message source and perceived fit between brand and issue) impact how a CSR ad is evaluated (ibid.). Further, Nan and Heo’s (2007) study, which is one of few comparing cause-related with

traditional advertising, showed no significant effects on ad attitude, but favorable effects on company attitudes. Hence, there is still limited empirical evidence that supports the relationship between advertising with a social dimension and favorable ad attitudes.

On the other hand, there is a large body of research on how CSR advertising influences attitudes toward the brand and the company. Brand attitude refers to an individual's internal evaluation of a brand (Mitchell & Olson, 1981) and could, like ad attitude, be positively influenced by the associations toward engagement in a social cause (Nan & Heo, 2007). Similarly, if the consumer perceives the firm as altruistic or public-serving as a result of their social engagement, this can result in a positive company attitude (*ibid.*). Confirming these theoretical suggestions, several researchers have found that CSR advertising enhances consumer perception of the advertising brand (Lafferty & Goldsmith, 2005; Maignan, 2001) and the company (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004; Mohr & Webb, 2001; Webb & Mohr, 1998). Interestingly, Maignan (2001) also proposes that CSR claims in advertising can potentially be positive for a brand, regardless of the business's actual CSR performance, which emphasizes the role of the message claim.

2.4.2 Purchase intentions

Purchase intention refers to an "individual's conscious plan to make an effort to purchase a brand" (Spears & Singh, 2004, p. 56) and the relationship between consumer attitudes and purchase intentions have gained significant empirical support within advertising research. As it is theoretically suggested that social dimension claims in advertising can positively impact consumers' attitudes, the idea is that these attitudes may transfer to the company's products or services, which will, in turn, impact purchase behaviors (Lee & Yoon, 2018; Smith & Alcorn, 1991). Furthermore, consumers may use their purchasing power to show their support or opposition of the company's social engagement (Mohr et al., 2001; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001) or stance in social issues (Sen & Morwitz, 1996). Several researchers have provided empirical evidence for this relationship. For example, in a study of four large corporations, David, Kline, and Dai (2005) showed that perceived CSR values were significant predictors of purchase intentions. Further, through an experimental study, Brown and Dacin (1997) showed that CSR associations influenced product evaluations, primarily through its impact on company evaluations.

This previous research provides theoretical support for the proposition that purpose-driven advertising claims and the associations they create can positively impact ad, brand and company attitudes as well as purchase intentions. This reasoning leads to the following hypothesis:

The link between purpose-driven advertising claims and brand-related effects

H1: Exposure to a purpose-driven advertising claim generates more favorable brand-related effects in terms of (H1a) attitude toward the ad, (H1b) attitude toward the brand, (H1c) attitude toward the company and (H1d) purchase intentions, than exposure to traditional advertising.

2.4.3 The influence of perceived advertiser intentions

According to attribution theory, consumers make causal attributions to make sense of their surroundings (Friestad & Wright, 1994). For instance, people often try to determine the causes of their own and others' behaviors which helps them to restore balance to both their social and self-perceptions (Ellen, Mohr, & Webb, 2000; Friestad & Wright, 1994). Typically, attribution theory has been used in research studying situations related to the self or others. However, it has also been widely used in the context of companies and organizations, particularly in CSR communications research (Friestad & Wright, 1994). Friestad and Wright (1994) suggest that attribution theory can be used to understand how the perceived advertiser intentions shapes consumers' response to advertising. The theory suggests that when a firm engages in advertising, consumers are likely to through an attribution mechanism ascribe one of two main motives to the firm (ibid.). Either the firm will be perceived as self-serving with financial purposes such as increasing profits or sales (ibid.), or the firm will be perceived as public-serving and altruistic with motives such as helping the community or raising awareness of a specific social issue (ibid.).

In the case of traditional advertising, that process is likely to be short or even subconscious as most consumers have learned that advertising is a persuasion attempt undertaken by firms to increase sales (Friestad & Wright, 1994), reflecting the firm's self-serving motives. However, when it comes to advertising with a social dimension, the process is more likely to lead to perceived public-serving motives as the act of supporting or driving a social cause through advertising is presented as a public-serving activity (Becker-Olsen, Cudmore, & Hill, 2006). Prior research suggests that consumers evaluate firms less favorably if they attribute

the firm's business practices to self-serving intentions and more favorably when they perceive the intentions as public-serving (Forehand & Grier, 2003). In turn, these attributions have been shown to influence several consumer effects, including attitude towards the ad (Sinclair & Irani, 2005), attitude toward the company (Yoon et al., 2006; Rifon, Choi, Trimble, & Li, 2004; Forehand & Grier, 2003) and purchase intentions (Lee et al., 2013).

Recent research has mainly been concerned with what influences perceived advertiser intentions of CSR communication (e.g. Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Forehand & Grier, 2003; Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002). Yet, no researchers have compared the perceived advertiser intentions of advertising with and without a social dimension. Further, no research has established whether perceived advertiser intentions may be a factor that partly mediates the relationship between advertising with a social dimension and favorable customer evaluations. However, as attribution theory suggests that a social message in advertising should increase the likelihood of the advertiser being perceived as public-serving, the following hypothesis is derived:

The link between purpose-driven advertising and advertiser intentions

H2: The effects of purpose-driven advertising claims on (H2a) ad attitude, (H2b) brand attitude, (H2c) company attitude, and (H2d) purchase intentions are mediated by perceived public-serving advertiser intentions.

2.5 Suggested social effects of purpose-driven advertising claims

While the definition of purpose-driven advertising includes the notion that such advertising has the intention of improving society (Minár, 2016), the link between purpose-driven advertising claims and social effects is currently fairly unexplored. Several researchers have suggested that corporate advertising supporting social issues could contribute both to financial performance and societal improvements (Yoon et al., 2006; Szykman, Bloom, & Blazing, 2004; Craig & McCann, 1978). While the research on advertising's positive effects beyond the traditional brand-related effects is limited (Barnett, 2007), the field has recently gained increased attention (Rosengren et al., 2013; Powell, 2011; Eisend, 2010; Fitzsimons et al., 2008; Jamal, 2003; Borgerson & Schroeder, 2002). Dahlen and Rosengren (2016) define social effects of advertising as the consumer reactions to advertising not related to the sender or the persuasive purpose of the ad. These effects may take form in many ways. As

mentioned in the introduction, the social effects of advertising (also referred to as the extended or unintended effects of advertising) have historically been considered mainly negative (Pollay, 1986). For instance, Pollay (1987) argued that advertising reinforces negative societal values such as greed, lust, sloth, and pride. However, if advertising can have such strong negative influence on the values within the society it is present, it is possible that advertising also could promote opposing positive values such as justice, faith, hope and love (ibid.). In fact, recent scholars have studied the positive social effects of advertising in terms of, for example, social connectedness and empathy (Åkestam et al., 2017b), decreased body-focused anxiety of women (Halliwell & Dittmar, 2004) and increased creativity among consumers (Rosengren et al., 2013; Fitzsimons et al., 2008).

While all these social effects relate to the emotional or cognitive responses of the individual consumer, when it comes to achieving societal improvements, it should however also be of high relevance for both researchers and practitioners to study behavioral effects of advertising that seemingly contributes to the good of society. So far, only a small number of studies have looked at how advertising with social dimensions impacts individuals' intentions to engage in positive behaviors. Further, these studies have mainly been concerned with behaviors promoted by the message (for example preventing binge drinking or eating healthier), which are referred to as "issue support behaviors" (e.g. Lee, O'Donnel & Hust, 2018; Lee, Haley, & Yang, 2017; Lee et al., 2013). These studies have found a positive relationship with CSR advertising and intentions to engage in issue support behaviors, which has also been confirmed in a focus group study by Bhattacharya and Sen (2004). They found that corporate involvement in social issues could impact consumers to modify their existing behaviors and increase engagement in issue support behaviors such as donating money or volunteering (ibid.)

These examples indicate that advertising promoting social issues can potentially impact individuals' behaviors related to the addressed social issue. However, if advertising also has the potential to impact values (Defever et al., 2011; Pollay, 1987), individual behaviors may also be influenced in situations with less direct links to the advertisement. In the following sections, the theoretically suggested process of how advertising could impact behaviors in situations unrelated to those promoted in the advertising is presented. For the purpose of this thesis, such behaviors are referred to as issue-related support behaviors. This term is

used to differentiate them from issue support behaviors which represent behaviors directly promoted in advocacy advertising (e.g. Lee et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2013).

2.5.1 Influencing behaviors positive for society

While defining what behaviors can be considered positive or negative for society is an ideologically driven task, not deemed appropriate for this thesis, there are some general behaviors that researchers have agreed contribute to the well-being of society. These include behaviors that are seen as altruistic or pro-social. Pro-social behaviors refer to behaviors beneficial to others or society at large and include actions such as helping, sharing and defending others (Aronson, Wilson & Akert, 2005). Such behaviors also include what has been defined as pro-environmental behaviors, including recycling or minimizing resource and energy consumption (De Groot & Steg, 2010; De Groot & Steg, 2009; Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002). Several studies have explored how such positive behaviors can be influenced (e.g. Han, 2015; Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002; Karp, 1996). As argued throughout a large body of psychological research, one of the most important predictors of these behaviors are the *values* an individual holds (e.g. Fransson & Gärling, 1999; Schwartz, 1992; Naess, 1990; Staub, 1989; Dunlap, Grieneeks, & Rokeach, 1983; Allport, 1961).

2.5.2 Values' influence on behavior

Schwartz defines a value as “a desirable transsituational goal in varying importance, which serves as a guiding principle in the life of a person” (1992, p. 21), a definition highly compatible with that of other influential researchers, including Rokeach (1973). According to Schwartz (2012), values have five main characteristic features. First, values are beliefs that are linked to emotions (Schwartz, 2012). Secondly, values refer to desirable end goals (ibid.). Third, since values are abstract, they transcend specific situations or actions (ibid.). Compared to attitudes and norms which generally refer to specific actions, objects or situations, values are often relevant in a range of different contexts. Fourth, values serve as guiding principles for selecting and evaluating behavior, people and events (ibid.). Finally, values are ordered in a system of value priorities (ibid.), and every individual's ordering characterizes him or her as an individual.

While research on the relationship between values and behaviors is relatively small compared to that of the attitude-behavior relationship which is more commonly used in advertising

research, a large body of research has highlighted values' explanatory importance (e.g., Verplanken & Holland, 2002; Stern & Dietz, 1994; Oskamp et al., 1991). The main reason for studying values rather than attitudes is because values can be applied to a wider range of behaviors (Verplanken & Holland, 2002; Rohan, 2000; Feather, 1995; Schwartz, 1992; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). For example, if an individual attaches high importance to the value of security, it will impact a diverse set of behaviors such as striving for safety at work, at home, while driving, and at a national level (Eyal et al., 2009). Hence, it is suggested that impacting individual values can impact behaviors in several situations as they, compared to attitudes, are fewer in number (Rokeach & Ball-Rokeach, 1989) and more stable over time (Karp, 1996). Within marketing research, the area of individual values is still not commonly encountered to explain behavioral outcomes, but the exceptions (see e.g. Defever et al., 2011) have shown support for the advertising-value-behavior relationship.

In research on pro-social and pro-environmental behaviors, the most elaborate and validated value theory is Schwartz's theory of basic values (Tal, 2014). The theory defines ten different broad values; benevolence, universalism, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power, security, conformity and tradition (Schwartz, 1992). While theoretically distinct, in reality these values form a continuum of motivations related to each other, often presented in a two-dimensional space in a circular structure (see Figure 2, adapted from Schwartz, 2012). Within the continuum, the ten values can be separated into four distinct value clusters (De Groot & Steg, 2008).

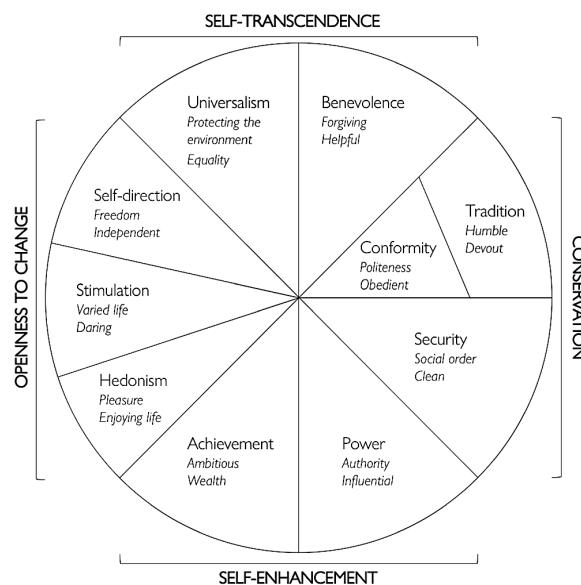


Figure 2 – Schwartz (2012) circular model of social values

The first dimension, conservation (tradition, security, and conformity) versus openness to change (self-direction, stimulation, and hedonism) differentiates values that emphasize conformity and tradition from those that stress independence (ibid.). The other dimension separates self-transcendent values (universalism and benevolence) from those related to self-enhancement (achievement and power) (ibid.).

Both pro-social and pro-environmental behaviors have been extensively linked to self-transcendent values (Stern, Dietz & Guagnano, 1998; Karp, 1996; Stern, Dietz, Kalof, & Guagnano, 1995; Stern & Dietz, 1994; Schwartz, 1992). This link, and the fact that these values represent a pro-social value orientation (De Groot & Steg, 2008), make them of particular interest for this thesis. The self-transcendent values include the altruistic value types benevolence, which emphasizes voluntary concern for close ones, and universalism which emphasizes understanding, tolerance, and protection of all people and nature (Schwartz, 2012). In further detail, benevolence includes value items of helpfulness, honesty, loyalty, and responsibility, while universalism includes value items of social justice, equality and protecting the environment (ibid.)

The key reason for why values serve as powerful predictors of behavior is that, while most values are culturally shared, individuals differ in how important they believe different values to be (Defever et al., 2011; Verplanken & Holland, 2002). For example, in a situation that requires a tradeoff between competing values, it is the relative importance of values that impact behavioral choice. Further, rather than being static, several researchers argue that each individual's system of values is dynamic and that the hierarchy of values is impacted by features in the environment (Bargh, Chen, & Burrows, 1996). Such features are reflected in the concept of "priming", which refers to how mental structures can be activated and have powerful effects on behaviors without any conscious awareness of the individual (Defever et al., 2011; Verplanken & Holland, 2002; Bargh et al., 1996). For example, the same individuals tend to rank the same values differently after they have read or written a text highlighting some specific values (Verplanken & Holland, 2002; Seligman & Katz, 1996) or when they are exposed to messages emphasizing those values (Defever et al., 2011; Bargh et al., 1996). Such situational cues explain why the same people act differently in similar situations that seemingly involve the same tradeoff between values. The value activation achieved by priming is of particular interest in the field of advertising.

2.5.3 Advertising as a situational cue

It has been suggested that advertising can work as a situation cue to activate specific values (Defever et al., 2011; Nairn & Berthon, 2003; Brumbaugh, 2002). For example, Nairn and Berthon (2003) found that consumers primed with romantic advertising rated themselves as more romantic than participants in the control group. Further, Defever et al. (2011) found that advertising with self-direction and benevolence messages impacted subsequent behaviors in unrelated situations to be more congruent with the values of the ads. Hence, it has been shown that advertising can function as a situational cue that generates behavioral changes, even when the behavior is unrelated to the advertising.

2.5.4 Values related to environmental protection and gender equality

To limit the scope of this thesis, the study investigates two particular social issues chosen through a pre-study; gender equality and environmental protection (see section 3.5 *Preparations for the main study*). After this delimitation, the literature review was complemented with existing research regarding values and behaviors related to those specific issues, which is summarized in this section.

Since self-transcendent values are common drivers of many altruistic behaviors and are considered “moral values” (Schwartz, 2007), they may serve as predictors of both environment-related support behavior and equality-related support behavior. Further, the value of universalism includes value items specifically reflecting equality and environmental values, which have been studied in isolation in relation to these specific social issues.

There are several previously proven links between self-transcendent values and both environmentally friendly behavior and gender equality. For example, Schwartz and Rubel-Lifschitz (2009) found that self-transcendent values, including the equality value item, correlated with societal gender equality, and Fernández, Castro, and Torrejón (2001) found that the same values were negatively correlated with sexism. Similarly, self-transcendent values, and “biospheric value items”, used to study environmental values in isolation, have been shown to impact environmentally friendly behaviors (De Groot & Steg, 2008; Dietz, Fitzgerald, & Shwom, 2005; Stern et al., 1998).

Based on the above reasoning, it is suggested that purpose-driven advertising claims may be able to impact issue-related support behaviors. As the claims in these ads potentially function

as priming, they may temporarily increase the importance of self-transcendent values in general, and value items related to the social issue in the ad (equality or biospheric values), in particular. Consequently, they may trigger behaviors aligned with those values, even in situations unrelated to the ad. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

The link between purpose-driven advertising claims and issue-related support behaviors

H3a: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim addressing environmental protection are more likely to engage in environment-related issue support behaviors than participants exposed to traditional advertising.

H3b: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim addressing gender equality are more likely to engage in gender equality-related issue support behaviors than participants exposed to traditional advertising.

The link between purpose-driven advertising claims and values

H4a: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim are more likely to rate self-transcendent values as more important than participants exposed to traditional advertising.

H4b: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim addressing environmental issues are more likely to rate biospheric values as more important than participants exposed to traditional advertising.

H4c: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim addressing gender equality are more likely to rate equality values as more important than participants exposed to traditional advertising.

The link between values and issue-related support behaviors

H5a: Participants with a high level of self-transcendent values are more likely to engage in issue-related support behaviors than participants with a low level of self-transcendent values.

H5b: Participants with a high level of biospheric values are more likely to engage in environment-related support behaviors than participants with a low level of biospheric values.

H5c: Participants with a high level of equality values are more likely to engage in gender equality-related support behaviors than participants with a low level of level of equality values.

2.6 Summary of hypotheses

The hypotheses generated from the theoretical framework and existing research presented in the sections above are summarized in Table 1:

Table 1 – Summary of hypotheses

Brand-related effects
H1: Exposure to a purpose-driven advertising claim generates more favorable brand-related effects in terms of (H1a) attitude toward the ad, (H1b) attitude toward the brand, (H1c) attitude toward the company and (H1d) purchase intentions, than exposure to traditional advertising. H2: The effects of purpose-driven advertising claims on (H2a) ad attitude, (H2b) brand attitude, (H2c) company attitude, and (H2d) purchase intentions are mediated by perceived public-serving advertiser intentions.
Social effects
H3a: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim addressing environmental protection are more likely to engage in environment-related issue support behaviors than participants exposed to traditional advertising. H3b: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim addressing gender equality are more likely to engage in gender equality-related issue support behaviors than participants exposed to traditional advertising. H4a: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim are more likely to rate self-transcendent values as more important than participants exposed to traditional advertising. H4b: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim addressing environmental issues are more likely to rate biospheric values as more important than participants exposed to traditional advertising. H4c: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim addressing gender equality are more likely to rate equality values as more important than participants exposed to traditional advertising. H5a: Participants with a high level of self-transcendent values are more likely to engage in issue-related support behaviors than participants with a low level of self-transcendent values. H5b: Participants with a high level of biospheric values are more likely to engage in environment-related support behaviors than participants with a low level of biospheric values. H5c: Participants with a high level of equality values are more likely to engage in gender equality-related support behaviors than participants with a low level of level of equality values.

The hypothesized relationships are summarized and visually presented in Figure 3 below.

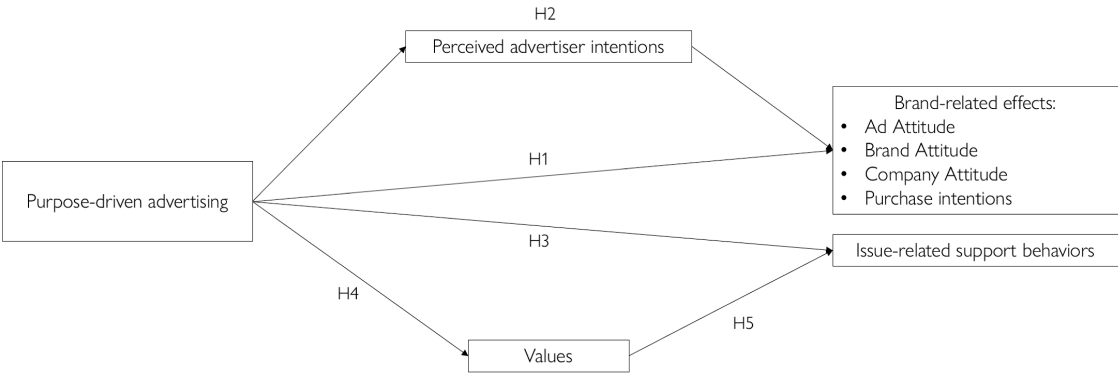


Figure 3 – Visual representation of conceptual model

3 Method

In this section, the scientific research and methodological approaches of this study are outlined. The steps undertaken in the conduction of the pre- and main studies are described in detail, along with the reasoning behind methodological choices. Finally, the quality of the data is critically discussed.

3.1 Scientific research approach

This thesis uses a deductive research approach where hypotheses were generated from existing theories within both marketing and related fields and then tested in an empirical study (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The reason for this choice was threefold. First, as the thesis aims to contribute to existing research on advertising's effects where a deductive approach is the most common (Hunt, 2014), a research approach aligned with prior studies is appropriate. Secondly, since the purpose was to investigate potential causal relationships, a deductive approach would best fulfill this purpose (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Thirdly, while purpose-driven advertising claims is an unexplored advertising area, there are several related theories relevant for generating hypotheses. While the chosen approach offers several advantages it certainly has limitations. Since a deductive approach is common in advertising research an inductive or abductive approach could potentially have brought new perspectives and contributions to the field (Holbrook & O'shaughnessy, 1988).

3.2 Collection of theory

The thesis work was initiated with a comprehensive review of previous research within the fields of marketing and advertising research. Because of limited previous research within these fields, the review later expanded into related fields such as social psychology, business ethics, communication, and environmental psychology. By choosing some keywords, including social effects, pro-social behavior, purpose, social marketing, CSR communication, CSR advertising, and pro-social values, the theoretical field was thoroughly explored for relevant research. During the process, potential research questions and hypotheses were continuously discussed and adjusted along with the literature reviewed.

3.3 Research design

The main study of this thesis was a quantitative study with an experimental design. Such a design is aligned with a deductive approach, as it allows to test theory using data (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). All respondents were randomly assigned to one treatment group and exposed to only one stimulus, in line with an experimental full factorial between-subject design (ibid.). Such a design has several advantages for the purpose of this study. Firstly, because it allows for control and manipulation of the stimuli, it enables the study of cause-and-effect relationships, rather than only allowing the establishment of correlations (Lynn & Lynn, 2003; Perdue & Summers, 1986). Secondly, an experimental design allows isolation of effects if the stimuli are similar in all aspects except the manipulated variable, which in this study was the purpose-driven ad claim (Perdue & Summers, 1986). Thirdly, an experimental design allows results to be generalized to the population which the sample represents (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Lastly, the method makes it possible to study psychological processes that the respondent may be unaware of, particularly important in the such of advertising where individuals tend to underestimate how much they are influenced (Rosengren & Dahlén, 2013).

3.4 Preparations for the main study

3.4.1 Pre-study I

The first pre-study aimed to find two social issues and two product categories that could be matched to develop two ads with purpose-driven advertising claims and two ads without purpose-driven advertising (traditional ads) as presented in Table 2.

Table 2 - Stimuli Combinations

	Purpose-driven advertising (Treatment stimuli)	Traditional advertising (Control stimuli)
Design 1	Social issue 1 + Product category 1	No social issue + Product category 1
Design 2	Social issue 2 + Product category 2	No social issue + Product category 2

3.4.2 Choice of social issues

To choose two social issues suitable to study in a purpose-driven advertising context, both the practical relevance and consumers' beliefs about social issues were considered. The aim was to find two social issues that (i) reflect issues popular in existing purpose-driven, (ii) are relevant in terms of that many individuals find them important, and (iii) show promising variance in how important different individuals perceive them to be. Based on these criteria, it was identified that women's empowerment, community aid, adversity, and sustainability represent the most popular social issues to address in video commercials (Hein, 2017). Further, market research by Edelman (2017) showed that the issues that matter most to consumers are immigration, gender equality, and economic policy. Hence, to be both relevant and familiar, the stimuli ads should promote two of these issues. All the above issues, including some additional social issues that had been featured in Swedish purpose-driven advertising, were tested for importance and variance in Pre-study 1 ($n = 40$, $m = 18$, $f = 22$, median age = 32). Participants were similar to, but not included in the main study. An online questionnaire using the online survey tool Qualtrics was distributed through Facebook to a convenience sample, and 40 complete responses were collected between Oct 5th and Oct 10th, 2018. In the questionnaire, respondents were asked how important they believed each of the different issues to be on a scale from 1-100. The results (see Appendix 1) showed that *gender equality* and *environmental protection* yielded the highest mean importance ($M_{\text{gender}} = 20.22$, $M_{\text{environment}} = 18.13$). These two issues also indicated relatively high, as well as similar variances. Thus, these issues were chosen for the study and incorporated into the literature review and hypotheses, as stated in the previous section.

3.4.3 Choice of product category

In addition to assessing social issues, Pre-study 1 also aimed to find two product categories the stimuli ads could represent. This was done by compiling a list with 18 different product categories within both criticized (e.g. tobacco) and non-criticized (e.g. bicycles) industries as well as high involvement (e.g. cars) and low-involvement (e.g. toothpaste) products. Each respondent was asked to rate how appropriate they thought it would be for a brand within that product category to engage in a social issue on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from Inappropriate to Appropriate. The outcome resulted in the choice of *toothpaste* and *sportswear*

as the two product categories because they yielded an average appropriateness to engage in a social issue, and both showed promising variance (see Appendix 1).

3.4.4 Stimuli development

For the study, four ads were developed. Two ads included purpose-driven advertising claims and two were corresponding ads without purpose-driven claims (traditional ads). The ads were developed based on the results of Pre-study 1 and available real examples of purpose-driven ads from the chosen product categories and social issues. The real ad examples functioned as inspiration for the ad and message development of the purpose-driven ads. For the sportswear brand ad, a campaign by Sport England (Faull, 2018) was used as inspiration, and for the toothpaste ad a Colgate campaign (Colgate US, 2016) was used. These campaigns were chosen as they had not run in the Swedish market and should thus be unfamiliar to the respondents in this study. The messages in the traditional ads were product selection-focused and inspired by several ads by brands in the chosen categories. Apart from the written messages in the ads (the copy), the traditional and purpose-driven ads were identical within each product category. The copy of the ad was adjusted to be as similar in length as possible while still effectively delivering the messages which resulted in only small differences in word count for the heading (H) and the main text (MT) (T_{equality} : H=5, MT=59; P_{equality} : H=6, MT=65; $T_{\text{environment}}$: H=8; MT= 35; $P_{\text{environment}}$: H=5, MT=39). As the stimuli aimed to be perceived as real professional ads, the use of English texts was deemed as most appropriate in the context of purpose-driven advertising and the ads were developed with the help of a graphic designer. Further, two fictitious companies were used as the firms behind the stimuli advertising and brand name and logos were blurred to control for existing credibility and prior knowledge (Lee, Haley & Avery, 2010). An overview of the four stimuli combinations are presented in Table 3, and the graphics can be found in Appendix 2.

Table 3 - Stimuli combinations with social issues and product categories

	Purpose-driven advertising (P, Treatment stimuli)	Traditional advertising (T, Control stimuli)
Gender equality	Sportswear ad with gender equality message (P_{equality})	Sportswear ad with product/selection message (T_{equality})
Environmental protection	Toothpaste ad with environmental protection message ($P_{\text{environment}}$)	Toothpaste ad with product/selection message ($T_{\text{environment}}$)

3.4.5 Pre-study 2

Pre-study 2 was conducted with the aim of ensuring satisfactory manipulation of the stimuli (Perdue & Summers, 1986), as well as to ensure that the scales and measurements intended for the main study were comprehensible in the context of the research area and showed promising internal consistency. Once again, an online questionnaire using Qualtrics was distributed to a convenience sample through Facebook. A total of 53 complete responses ($M = 53$, $f = 36$, $m = 17$, median age = 25) were collected between Oct 16th and Oct 20th, 2018, resulting in 13 to 14 responses per stimuli (see Table 4). Participants were similar to, but not included in the main study. The manipulation check of the perceived purposefulness of an ad was operationalized based on the theoretical description of purpose-driven advertising (Nas, 2017; Minár 2016), resulting in a three-item scale. Respondents rated the extent to which they agreed with the statements “This advertisement promotes social good”, “The company behind the advertising cares about something else than sales” and “The company behind the advertising takes a stand on a social issue” on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Pre-study 2 showed that the purpose-driven ads were perceived as significantly more purposeful than the traditional ads ($M_{\text{purpose}} = 5.85$, $M_{\text{trad}} = 3.38$, $p < .001$, Cronbach’s $\alpha = .90$). This was true also for each of the treatment ads, where the mean of perceived purposefulness was significantly higher for both the gender equality ad ($M_{\text{purpose-equality}} = 5.73$, $M_{\text{trad-equality}} = 3.69$, $p < .001$) and the environmental protection ad ($M_{\text{purpose-environment}} = 5.96$, $M_{\text{trad-environment}} = 3.08$, $p < .001$).

Table 4 – Results of manipulation check in Pre-study 2

Group	Manipulation	N	Mean	St. Deviation	t	p
Environment	Purpose-driven	14	5.964	1.168	-5.293	.000***
	Traditional	13	3.077	1.644		
Gender equality	Purpose-driven	13	5.731	1.183	-4.126	.000***
	Traditional	13	3.692	1.331		
Total sample	Purpose-driven	27	5.852	1.159	-6.720	.000***
	Traditional	26	3.385	1.499		

Significance level: *** $p \leq .001$

For Pre-study 2, the scales intended to be used in the main study were translated into Swedish as all respondents in the sample for the main study were native Swedish speakers. Further, the internal consistency and comprehensibility of the scales were tested. Most of the scales used showed internal consistency, Cronbach’s $\alpha > 0.7$ (Schmitt, 1996). Further, a few

translations of items were adjusted based on input regarding unclarity from the respondents. The final scales are described in further detail in section 3.6.2 *Scales and measures*.

3.5 Main study

The main study used an experimental, between-subject research design where each respondent was randomly exposed to one of the four stimuli ads. As in the pre-studies, an online-based, self-completion questionnaire designed in Qualtrics, was used to collect data.

3.5.1 Survey design

Before the survey was distributed, the structure and phrasing of questions were pilot tested on a few respondents (N=7) to ensure that all questions and tasks were clear and easy to understand, as suggested by Bryman and Bell (2015). As all questions were perceived as clear, no adjustments were made.

The final survey (see Appendix 3) consisted of six main blocks featuring structured questions and closed answers. In the first block, respondents were first introduced to the survey with a message stating that the purpose of the study was to evaluate a hypothetical advertising concept. Then, respondents were through the Qualtrics tool randomly assigned to one of the four stimuli ads which constituted block two. They were told that the ad was from a sportswear or toothpaste brand (depending on the treatment group) but that this brand was blurred for them to be able to evaluate the message of the ad independently from other information. In the third block, all respondents got the same questions covering the manipulation check used in Pre-study 2 (perceived purposefulness), brand-related effects and perceived advertiser intentions. Two control questions were included to check respondents' attention to the stimuli and ensure no belief of prior exposure to the ad. In the fourth block, respondents were asked to complete two multi-attribute choice tasks, testing their issue-related support behaviors, both gender-related and environment-related. This was to minimize suspicion of what behaviors were tested and the risk of behaviors influencing responses on subsequent value-related questions. The fifth block contained an adapted Portrait Value Questionnaire (PVQ) used to evaluate individual values. This block was placed after the multi-attribute choice tasks to minimize the risk that the values described in the PVQ would influence choices in the multi-attribute choice task. In the last block, respondents filled out their demographic information. The items used for each variable are

described in detail in section 3.6.2 *Scales and measures*. Additionally, between block three and four as well as between four and five, respondents had to complete filler tasks, unrelated to the study. These tasks were included to distort the respondents' sentiment of the aim of the study (Defever et al., 2011).

3.5.2 Scales and measures

3.5.2.1 Perceived purposefulness

As a manipulation check, the same scale as used in Pre-Study 2 was applied. The items were combined into an index, showing high internal reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .87$).

3.5.2.2 Perceived advertiser intentions

The construct of perceived public-serving advertiser intentions was measured as suggested by Dean (2003) and in line with previous research (e.g. Lee et al., 2013; Lee, Liu, & Lee, 2012). Respondents were asked to rate how well they agreed with the statements that the company behind the advertising was; altruistic, genuine, generous, unselfish and kind. Respondents rated the five items on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". The items were combined into an index, showing high internal reliability with a Cronbach's α of .92.

3.5.2.3 Attitudes

Measures of ad attitude, brand attitude, and company attitude were adapted from Allen and Janiszewski (1989). Prior studies (Åkestam, Rosengren, & Dahlen, 2017a) have found that consumers can form an opinion on a brand based on the advertising, even when the brand name or logo is not presented in the ad. Respondents were, therefore, asked "What is your opinion on the ad?", "What is your opinion on the brand behind the ad?" and "What is your opinion on the company behind the ad?". Each attitude scale consisted of these three items measured on a seven-point semantic differential scales with the labels "bad/good", "dislike/like" and "negative opinion/positive opinion". The three items for each construct were combined to an index showing high internal reliability, which a Cronbach's α of .97 (ad attitude), .97 (brand attitude) and .98 (company attitude).

3.5.2.4 Purchase intention

Purchase intentions were measured with a scale adapted from Chapman and Aylesworth (1999). By asking "If you were in the market for [product category], how likely is it that you

would purchase it from this brand?”, respondents’ intentions were measured on a two-item seven-point semantic differential scale with the labels “unlikely/likely” and “improbable/probable”. The two items were combined into an index showing high internal reliability with a Cronbach’s α of .97.

3.5.2.5 Values

Over the years, a range of different scales has been used to measure differences in individual values. A recently developed scale is the Portrait Value Questionnaire (PVQ) by Davidov, Schmidt and Schwartz (2008), designed to measure the same values orientations as the original Schwartz Value Survey. As the PVQ is better suited for online surveys than the original scale (Schwartz, 2009) it was chosen for the questionnaire. The PVQ includes descriptions of fictional people’s goals and aspirations to implicitly point to the importance of a specific value. For each description, the respondent is asked to rate “How much like you is this person?” on a six-point Likert scale from “not like me at all” to “very much like me” (Davidov et al., 2008). Similar to previous research on specific values (e.g. Bouman, Steg, & Kiers, 2018), the PVQ used in this study only included the items theoretically relevant, i.e. the self-transcendent values of benevolence, biospheric, universalism and equality as well as their opposing self-enhancement values of power and achievement. The two latter values were included to capture the full continuum of self-transcendent and self-enhancement values.

Each value construct consisted of two items of descriptions, which can be found in Appendix 3. The measurements of benevolence, power, and achievement values were directly adapted from Davidov et al. (2008). To fully capture environmental values, items were adapted from the Environmental-PVQ (Bouman et al., 2018) to separate biospheric values from other universalism values. Further, equality values were also separated from universalism to enable analysis of those values on their own (Verplanken & Holland, 2002). To extend the equality value construct to also include the gender equality dimension in particular, one of the original equality items was adapted to cover this aspect. This resulted in a twelve-item portrait questionnaire, where two items corresponded to each of the benevolence, universalism, achievement, power, biospheric and equality values. Translations to Swedish were adapted from Ivanisevic and Nordenstedt (2009). The internal reliabilities of each of the six values were low, with an average Cronbach’s α of .55 ranging from .28

(achievement) to .76 (biospheric). As argued by Schwartz and Rubel-Lifschitz (2009), this is necessary as each item is intended to cover the conceptual breadth of the value and not a core idea, which is why the measurements were accepted despite low alpha levels (see Appendix 4).

3.5.2.6 Issue-related support behaviors

To measure the dependent variable, intention to engage in issue-related support behavior, two multi-attribute choice tasks were used. One aimed to measure environment-related support behavioral intention and one equality-related support behavioral intention. The design of the multi-attribute choice tasks was adapted from Verplanken and Holland (2002). Both tasks consisted of a choice between 5-6 options, rated from unfavorable to favorable on a three-point scale on seven different aspects. For each task, only one of the aspects represented the dimension relevant to the study. The information was presented in one 6 x 7 and one 5 x 7 matrix where the rows presented the options, and the columns the different aspects. Each task was initiated with a scenario that described a situation and the choice to be made.

The pro-environmental choice task consisted of a scenario where the respondent was to choose a travel option for a domestic trip within Sweden (see Appendix 3). The relevant aspect “environmental impact” was either labeled as favorable or unfavorable for each option. Hence, each respondent’s choice resulted in a pro-environmental score of either low (0) or high (1).

The gender equality choice task (see Appendix 3) was a scenario where the respondent was to recommend a candidate for an executive position at a company in a male-dominated industry (IT- and telecom). The candidates consisted of three female candidates and three male candidates that, similar to the pro-environmental choice task varied in their skills and experience in seven different areas. All candidates were of similar total competence and differences in choices were hence a result of the weight each respondent put on each aspect. In this task, the only analyzed dimension was whether the respondent chose a male or a female candidate, as such an action could be seen as a conscious or unconscious act of gender equality in a male-dominated context. Hence, each option resulted in either a score of 0 for a male candidate or 1 for a female candidate.

3.5.3 Data collection

Participants for the main survey were accessed through an online panel, managed by a large Swedish advertising agency. The participants of the consumer panel had been recruited over several years and were of a broad range when it comes to demographic variables such as age, civil status, geography and income with a slight overrepresentation of women and individuals living in urban areas. All respondents were given credit that they could trade for a cinema ticket or a gift card of 100 SEK after completing five different online surveys.

The data was collected between Oct 25th and Nov 6th, 2018. The online questionnaire was distributed to the members of the consumer panel through email and two reminder emails were sent out on Oct 31st and Nov 4th. Out of the 389 individuals who started the survey 321 completed it. Out of them, eight respondents had failed to correctly answer one or both of the control questions and were therefore omitted to ensure qualitative data. This resulted in a total of 313 complete responses. The 313 respondents were randomly exposed to one of the four stimuli ads, which resulted in an almost even distribution across the four cells of the experiment (see Table 5).

The final sample consisted of 64 percent women and 36 percent men and less than one percent of respondents that did not want to specify their gender. The age of the respondents ranged from 20 to 80 years, with a median age of 45. All respondents lived in Sweden by the time of the data collection.

Table 5 - Main study respondent demographics

	Environmental protection		Gender equality		Total sample
	Purpose-driven	Traditional	Purpose-driven	Traditional	
Number of respondents	79	76	79	79	313
Age median	45	46	45	48	45
Gender (%) f/m/not specified	67/33	63/34 /3	63/37	62/38	64/36

3.6 Structure and analysis of data

3.6.1 Analytical tools

The collected data was directly transferred from Qualtrics to IBM SPSS 25 for processing and analyses. The direct transfer rules out the possibility of human error in this step. Subsequently, preliminary data checks were conducted where (i) invalid responses were omitted, (ii) multi-scale measures were checked for internal reliability, (iii) recoding of variables was made to enable further analyses and (iv) distributions and comparability were tested and ensured.

3.6.2 Data checks

After excluding the respondents with incomplete or invalid answers, the final sample consisted of 313 respondents. The hypotheses were tested by linear regression analysis, binary logistic analysis, independent sample t-tests and mediation analysis using the add-on program Hayes's PROCESS tool for SPSS. Before conducting the tests, the data was checked for the assumptions needed to perform these analyses. Normal distribution of the relevant variables was established with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, and no problematic multicollinearity or heteroscedasticity prevailed. Furthermore, no outliers were discarded from the data set, and the confidence interval of 95% was used for all analyses.

3.6.3 Recoding of variables

The variables measured by multi-item scales were combined into index variables. Alpha values and number of items for each variable are reported in Appendix 4. The two behavioral tasks were recoded into binary variables, where each option resulted in a score of negative/neutral (0) or positive (1) issue-related support behavior. Hence, both of the variables were suited for binary logistic regressions and comparisons of means by independent samples t-tests. The modified PVQ was used to determine the relative importance each respondent assigned to a specific value. As suggested by Schwartz (2012), to capture the relative importance of every person's values, all ratings were centered on each individual's mean for all value items. Then, the mean of all respondents (4.13) was added back to restore the range to the original scale (1-6). Subsequently, the self-transcendent, biospheric and equality value-items were combined into index-variables for each value, to prepare for analysis.

3.7 Data quality

As in all quantitative studies, there was a concern about the quality of the collected data (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Therefore, the data quality is discussed below in relation to the reliability and validity of the data collection method.

3.7.1 Reliability

To increase the experiment's reliability, which refers to whether the data collection and analytical methods would lead to consistent findings if the study was repeated or replicated (Bryman & Bell, 2015), this study was carried out in a methodologically rigorous way. By continually evaluating and planning for all steps in the research process, we tried to limit logic leaps and false assumptions. Further, to allow the reader to judge the reliability herself and allow replication, the study of this thesis is described in detail with full transparency (Saunders et al., 2012).

In this thesis, Cronbach's α indicates satisfactory internal reliability for most constructs with Cronbach's $\alpha > 0.7$ (Schmitt, 1996). This indicates that the items in the multi-item scales are consistent in measuring the underlying variable (Bryman & Bell, 2015). In the case of the PVQ scale used to measure individual values, the alphas are below the commonly accepted level. However, as previously argued this is expected and acceptable for the value construct (Schwartz, 1992).

3.7.2 Validity

3.7.2.1 Statistical inference validity

Statistical inference validity can be established when it is ensured that the differences in effects between treatment groups are not caused by chance (Lynn & Lynn, 2003). In this thesis, the threats to statistical-inference validity have been limited by only accepting scales with appropriate alpha levels (see above reasoning for exception) and using large enough sample sizes (*ibid.*). Limiting the number of treatment groups being compared to two further minimizes the risk of false statistical conclusions being drawn.

3.7.2.2 Measurement validity

To increase measurement validity, this study used well-established and commonly used scales for all concepts where such were available (Saunders et al., 2012). However, as no previous research had studied the perceived purposefulness of advertising, used here to check satisfactory manipulation, this scale had to be developed for the purpose of the study. It was argued that the benefits of developing a new measurement to check whether the manipulation was sufficient outweighed the drawbacks of using a measurement not previously used. To limit the risks posed on measurement validity, the items were developed by operationalizing the definition used by Minár (2016) and should hence capture the concept it intends to. However, future research within this field is needed to ensure a measurement with high validity is used to evaluate the consumers' perceived degree of purposefulness within a marketing message.

3.7.2.3 Internal validity

Internal validity, which refers to the confidence with which one can conclude that it was the manipulation in the stimuli that caused the effects in the outcome variables (Lynn & Lynn, 2003), can be considered satisfactory due to the experimental design of this study. As respondents were randomly assigned to one of four stimuli ads, and sample sizes were sufficient, all four groups should be comparable and have a similar likelihood of being influenced by external circumstances. Hence, as the stimuli ads were the only differences between groups, all differences in outcome variables between control and treatment groups could confidently be attributed to the independent variable.

3.7.2.4 External validity

External validity refers to “the extent to which an experiment’s results apply or generalize to the real marketing environment of interest” (Lynn & Lynn, 2003, p. 82-83) and hence the degree of external validity can be limited by the differences between the real-world context and the experimental context. Therefore, this experiment was designed to make the features of the constructed stimuli and behavioral choice task as similar to real life advertising and situations as possible. However, as making the situation reflect a reality completely would have been extremely time- and resource consuming, some active decisions to make the experiment feasible to carry out was made. For example, attitudes and purchase intentions were measured using self-reported data rather than using actual purchase behaviors as a

dependent variable. This limits the generalizability to a real-life setting as such attitudes or intentions may be limited in their predictive value of actual behaviors (ibid.). Further, the fact that the sample is not a probability sample for the population it aims to generalize to further poses some limitations on generalizability. Still, it is argued that the consumer panel used offers a better prediction of effects in the larger population than, for example, a convenience or student sample, which strengthens the external validity of the study (Cook, Campbell, & Shadish, 2002). Lastly, as the study tests two different types of social issues featured in purpose-driven advertising, it tries to generalize the observable effects to a wider context than only studying one issue. Hence, the risk of the effects being specific to only the social issue in question has been limited. Based on this reasoning, it can be concluded that the external validity of the thesis' main study is acceptable, while the experimental study sacrifices some external validity for improved internal validity.

3.7.2.5 Ecological validity

Because this experiment studies advertisement reactions in an online survey format, not properly reflecting the context in which individuals normally encounter advertising, ecological validity (Bryman & Bell, 2015) is somewhat limited, in favor for, for example, internal validity. However, reasoning about ecological validity guided the stimuli development, where ads were designed to reflect real ads for social issues often encountered within purpose-driven advertising. Further, using a professional graphic designer also helped to increase the similarity between the stimuli ads and real ads.

4 Analysis and results

The following section presents the results based on the analysis of the empirically collected data with the aim of answering the thesis' research question. Results are outlined in the order of the hypotheses.

4.1 Manipulation check

The manipulation check conducted produced similar results as in Pre-study 2, confirming that the respondents perceived the purpose-driven ads as more purposeful compared to the traditional ads. An independent samples t-test showed significant differences in mean values between the treatment group and the control group for the variable perceived purposefulness ($M_{\text{purpose}} = 5.25$ vs. $M_{\text{trad}} 3.24$, $p < .001$), as presented in Table 6. Furthermore, the differences were also significant between each social issue group and the corresponding control group.

Table 6 - Manipulation check

Group	Manipulation	N	Mean	St. Deviation	t	p
Environment	Purpose-driven	76	5.236	1.423	10.007	.000***
	Traditional	79	2.890	1.495		
Gender equality	Purpose-driven	79	5.262	1.444	7.669	.000***
	Traditional	79	3.570	1.327		
Total sample	Purpose-driven	158	5.249	1.429	12.375	.000***
	Traditional	155	3.237	1.448		

Significance level: *** $p \leq .001$

4.2 Hypothesis testing

4.2.1 Testing the brand-related effects of purpose-driven advertising claims

4.2.1.1 Purpose-driven advertising claims and brand-related effects

Hypotheses 1-4 state that purpose-driven advertising will generate positive effects on the dependent brand-related variables, compared to traditional advertising. To test the hypotheses, four independent samples t-tests were conducted to compare the manipulation and control groups for each of the dependent variables. Levene's test indicated that group variances could be treated as equal for all variables ($p > .05$). The results are presented in Table 7 and show that the manipulation group had significantly higher means compared to the control group. Thus, it is suggested that purpose-driven advertising claims have a more positive effect on each of the brand-related effects, compared to traditional ads.

Supporting H1a, the independent samples t-test showed that ad attitude was significantly higher for respondents in the group who had been exposed to a purpose-driven ad claim than the group exposed to a traditional ad ($M_{\text{purpose}}=4.88$ vs. $M_{\text{trad}}=3.97$, $p<.001$).

Supporting H1b, the independent samples t-test showed that brand attitude was significantly higher for respondents in the group who had been exposed to a purpose-driven ad claim than the group exposed to a traditional ad ($M_{\text{purpose}}=4.90$ vs. $M_{\text{trad}}=4.26$, $p<.001$).

Supporting H1c, the independent samples t-test showed that company attitude was significantly higher for respondents in the group who had been exposed to a purpose-driven ad claim than the group exposed to a traditional ad ($M_{\text{purpose}}=4.93$ vs. $M_{\text{trad}}=4.19$, $p<.001$).

Supporting H1d, the independent samples t-test showed that purchase intention was significantly higher for respondents in the group who had been exposed to a purpose-driven ad claim than the group exposed to a traditional ad ($M_{\text{purpose}}=4.14$ vs. $M_{\text{trad}}=3.62$, $p<.01$).

Table 7 - Purpose-driven advertising claims and brand-related effects

Dependent Variable	Manipulation	N	Mean	St. deviation	t	p
Ad attitude	Purpose-driven ad	158	4.884	1.672	-4.902	0.000***
	Traditional ad	155	3.967	1.634		
Brand attitude	Purpose-driven ad	158	4.897	1.467	-3.989	0.000***
	Traditional ad	155	4.258	1.363		
Company attitude	Purpose-driven ad	158	4.933	1.507	-4.640	0.000***
	Traditional ad	155	4.187	1.327		
Purchase intentions	Purpose-driven ad	158	4.142	1.685	-2.919	0.004**
	Traditional ad	155	3.616	1.498		

Significance levels: *** $p \leq .001$, ** $p \leq .01$

H1: Exposure to a purpose-driven advertising claim generates more favorable brand-related effects in terms of (H1a) attitude toward the ad, (H1b) attitude toward the brand, (H1c) attitude toward the company and (H1d) purchase intentions, than exposure to traditional advertising.
SUPPORTED

4.2.1.2 Perceived advertiser intentions as a mediator

It was hypothesized that a person's perception of public-serving advertiser intentions is one of the underlying reasons for why purpose-driven ad claims generate more favorable brand-related effects. In other words, perceived advertiser intentions is a mediator for the effect of purpose-driven advertising claims on the dependent variables ad attitude, brand attitude, company attitude, and purchase intentions. If perceived advertiser intentions is a mediator for the effect of purpose-driven advertising claims, it implies that the relationship between the independent variable purpose-driven advertising claims and the brand-related dependent variables (*Path C*) is in fact caused by the effect of purpose-driven advertising claims on perceived advertiser intentions (*Path A*), and subsequently the effect of perceived advertiser intentions on the brand-related variables (*Path AB*)(see Figure 4).

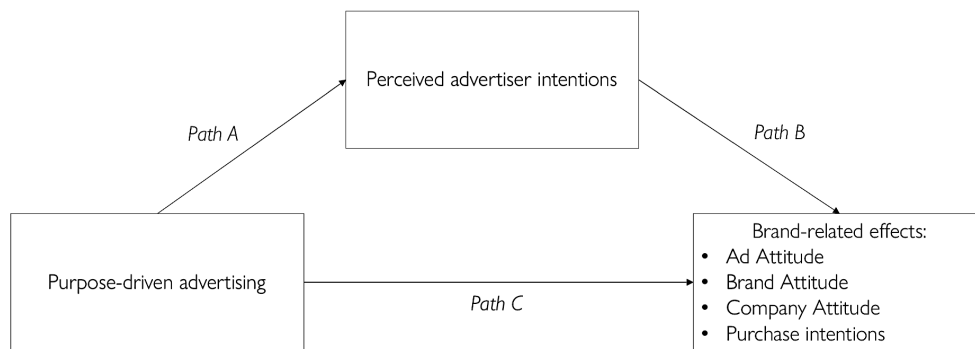


Figure 4 – Consumers' perception of advertiser intentions as a mediator

The existence of such mediation effects was tested using Hayes's bootstrapping macro PROCESS for SPSS. The mediation effect of advertiser intentions was tested separately on each of the brand-related dependent variables. Using 5000 bootstrap samples and a 95% confidence interval, the mediation analyses testing the indirect effects of advertiser intentions were run. The results are presented and interpreted as suggested by Zhao, Lynch Jr and Chen (2010) and results are summarized in Table 8.

4.2.1.2.1 The effect of purpose-driven advertising claims on advertiser intentions

To establish and classify what type of mediation prevails, the coefficients of *Path A*, *B* and *C* was estimated (Zhao et al., 2010). The effect of the independent variable purpose-driven advertising claim on the mediator perceived advertiser intentions (*Path A*) held constant for all mediation analyses for each of the dependent variables. The mediation analysis showed that purpose-driven advertising claims had a positive effect on perceived advertiser intentions ($\beta_1 = .80$, $p < .001$, LLCI = .53, ULCI = .07). Thus, the results provided prerequisites for the role of perceived advertiser intentions as a mediating variable.

4.2.1.2.2 Perceived advertiser intentions as a mediator for the brand-related effects

Each mediation analysis revealed the same results for all brand-related effects, i.e. ad attitude, brand attitude, company attitude, and purchase intentions. Firstly, the relationships between advertiser intentions and brand-related effects (*Path B*), were all positive and significant ($p < .001$). Subsequently, the effects of purpose-driven advertising claims, via perceived advertiser intentions, on all brand related-effects (*Path AB*), were all positive and significant as none of the confidence intervals crossed zero (BootLLCI to BootULCI). The direct effects of purpose-driven advertising on brand-related effects (*Path C*), were in the model non-significant, which implied an indirect-mediation only (Zhao et al., 2010). These results indicate that advertiser intentions fully mediates the brand-related effects of purpose-driven advertising claims. Hence, consumers' perception of advertiser intentions explains the impact of purpose-driven advertising on brand-related effects, why H2 can be supported.

Table 8 - Results of mediation analysis

Independent variable	Dependent variable	Mediator		Direct effects		Indirect effects
Purpose-driven adv.	Ad Attitude	Adv. Intentions	c	.229	ab	.686
			SE	.155	SE	.123
			t	1.474	LLCI	.446
			p	.142	LUCI	.936
Purpose-driven adv.	Brand Attitude	Adv. Intentions	c	.032	ab	.607
			SE	.133	SE	.114
			t	.244	LLCI	.388
			p	.807	LUCI	.830
Purpose-driven adv.	Company Attitude	Adv. Intentions	c	.153	ab	.593
			SE	.137	SE	.112
			t	1.117	LLCI	.385
			p	.265	LUCI	.822
Purpose-driven adv.	Purchase intentions	Adv. Intentions	c	-.026	ab	.552
			SE	.162	SE	.107
			t	-.158	LLCI	.350
			p	.875	LUCI	.770

Bootstrap sample = 5000, 95 % significance level

H2: The effects of purpose-driven advertising claims on (H2a) ad attitude, (H2b) brand attitude, (H2c) company attitude, and (H2d) purchase intentions are mediated by perceived public-serving advertiser intentions.

SUPPORTED

4.2.2 Testing the social effects of purpose-driven advertising claims

The second part of the study aimed to examine the social effects of purpose-driven advertising claims, i.e. if purpose-driven advertising claims can lead to issue-related support behavior in an unrelated context and if these behaviors are linked to an increased importance of the respondent's values. As some of the hypotheses concern one specific issue, the tests related to these hypotheses were therefore performed on only the group exposed to the stimuli promoting the issue in question and its corresponding control group.

4.2.2.1 Purpose-driven advertising claims and behaviors

To understand if purpose-driven advertising claims could have effects on individual's issue-related support behaviors, two independent samples t-tests were performed. The first test was conducted to understand if respondents exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim addressing environmental protection would be more likely to show intention to engage in environment-related support behavior. The results (see Table 9) showed no significant difference between the groups ($M_{\text{purpose-environment}} = .85$, $M_{\text{trad-environment}} = .80$, $p > .05$). Thus, no empirical evidence was found to support H3a. The second independent samples t-test was conducted to understand if respondents exposed to advertising with a gender equality claim would be more likely to show intentions to engage in equality behaviors. This test revealed that there was no significant effect of purpose-driven advertising on respondents' intention to engage in positive equality-related behaviors (see Table 9) ($M_{\text{purpose-equality}} = .89$, $M_{\text{trad-equality}} = .82$, $p > .05$). Thus, no empirical evidence was found to support H3b.

Table 9 - Purpose driven advertising's effect on behavior

Dependent variable	Manipulation	Mean	p	N
Environmental behavior	Purpose	.848	.459	79
	Traditional	.803		76
Equality behavior	Purpose	.890	.262	79
	Traditional	.820		79

H3a: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim addressing environmental protection are more likely to engage in environment-related issue support behaviors than participants exposed to traditional advertising.

NOT SUPPORTED

H3b: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim addressing gender equality are more likely to engage in gender equality-related issue support behaviors than participants exposed to traditional advertising.

NOT SUPPORTED

4.2.2.2 Purpose-driven advertising claims and values

To examine if purpose-driven advertising claims could have any effects on individual values, three independent samples t-tests were performed. First, a test was conducted on the total sample to identify any effects on self-transcendent values. Then, the test was conducted separately for each purpose-driven ad and its corresponding control group, to find if the social issue in the ad could generate any effects on the issue-related values, i.e. biospheric and equality values. Results are presented in Table 10.

4.2.2.2.1 Self-transcendent values

An independent samples t-test was conducted to examine if there is an effect of purpose-driven advertising claims on an individuals' assigned importance to values, specifically self-transcendent values that are related to pro-social behaviors. The results showed no significant difference in value-importance for the two groups ($M_{\text{purpose}} = 4.60$, $M_{\text{trad}} = 4.67$, $p > .05$). Thus, no empirical evidence was found to support H4a.

4.2.2.2.2 Issue-specific values

The independent samples t-test conducted to examine if a purpose-driven advertising claim promoting environmental protection could affect biospheric values showed no significant difference in respondents' assigned value importance between the manipulation and control group ($M_{\text{purpose-environment}} = 4.20$, $M_{\text{trad-environment}} = 4.46$, $p > .05$). Thus, no empirical evidence was found to support H4b. Also, concerning the group exposed to a purpose-driven ad claim promoting gender equality, the results of the independent samples t-test showed no significant difference in value importance between the manipulation group and the control group ($M_{\text{purpose-equality}} = 5.15$, $M_{\text{trad-equality}} = 5.17$, $p > .05$). Thus, no empirical evidence was found to support H4c.

Table 10 – Purpose-driven advertising claim's effects on values

	Treatment	Mean	p	N
Self-transcendent values	Purpose-driven	4.604	.079	158
	Traditional	4.677		155
Biospheric values	Purpose-driven	4.203	.062	79
	Traditional	4.458		76
Equality values	Purpose-driven	5.145	.831	79
	Traditional	5.167		79

H4a: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim are more likely to rate self-transcendent values as more important than participants exposed to traditional advertising.
NOT SUPPORTED

H4b: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim addressing environmental issues are more likely to rate biospheric values as more important than participants exposed to traditional advertising.
NOT SUPPORTED

H4c: Participants exposed to a purpose-driven advertising claim addressing gender equality are more likely to rate equality values as more important than participants exposed to traditional advertising.
NOT SUPPORTED

4.2.2.3 Self-transcendent values and issue-related support behavior

Even though the previous hypotheses of purpose-driven advertising claims' effects on issue-related support behaviors and values could not be supported, the theory's suggested relationship between values and behavior could still exist. We hypothesized that high levels of self-transcendent values could increase the likelihood of having intention to engage in issue-related support behaviors. To test this hypothesis, two logistic regressions, one for each issue-related support behavior, were performed as it is an appropriate analysis to conduct when the dependent variable is binary (Peng, Lee, & Ingersoll, 2002).

Self-transcendent values and environment-related support behavior

Regression: $Environment\ behavior_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Selftranscendentvalues + u_i$

The regression model used to estimate the effect of self-transcendent values on the likelihood that respondents would have intentions to engage in environment-related support behavior was significant ($\chi^2=12.57$, $p < .001$). Results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11 - Self-transcendent values' effect of environment-related support behavior

Variable	B	SE B	Wald χ^2	p	OR	(95% CI)
Self-transcendent values	1.402	.396	12.568	.000***	4.067	(1.873-8.833)

Significance level: *** $p \leq .001$

Self-transcendent values and equality-related support behavior

Regression: $Equality\ behavior_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Selftranscendentvalues + u_i$

The regression model used to estimate the effect of self-transcendent values on the likelihood that respondents would have intentions to engage in equality-related support behaviors was also significant ($\chi^2=9.23$, $p < .01$). Results are presented in Table 12.

Table 12 – Self-transcendent values' effect of equality-related support behavior

Variable	B	SE B	Wald χ^2	p	OR	(95% CI)
Self-transcendent values	1.271	.403	9.929	.002**	1.601	(1.61-7.852)

Significance level: ** $p \leq .01$

Hence, there was empirical support for the hypotheses that an individual's assigned importance to self-transcendent values increases the likelihood of having intentions to engage in both environment-related and equality-related issue support behaviors, why H5 could be supported.

H5a: Participants with a high level of self-transcendent values are more likely to engage in issue-related support behaviors than participants with a low level of self-transcendent values.

SUPPORTED

4.2.2.4 Issue-related values and issue-related support behavior

Two separate logistic regressions were run to predict issue-related support behavior based on individuals' issue-related values.

Biospheric values and environment-related support behavior

Regression: $Environment\ behavior_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Biospheric\ values + u_i$

The regression model used to estimate the effect of biospheric values on the likelihood that respondents would have intentions to engage in environment-related support behaviors was significant ($\chi^2=14.56$, $p < .001$). Thus, empirical support was found to support H6a. Results are presented in Table 13.

Table 13 - Biospheric values' effect of equality-related support behavior

Variable	B	SE B	Wald χ^2	p	OR	(95% CI)
Biospheric values	.680	.178	14.563	.000***	1.974	(1.392-2.799)

Significance level: *** $p \leq .001$

Equality values and equality-related behavior

Regression: $Equality\ behavior_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Equality\ values + u_i$

The regression model used to estimate the effect of equality values on equality-related support behavior also showed significant results ($\chi^2=4.70$, $p < .05$). Increased centrality of individuals' equality values was associated with an increase in the likelihood of having intentions to engage in pro-equality behaviors. Thus, empirical support was found to support H6b, results are presented in Table 14.

Table 14 - Equality values' effect of equality-related support behavior

Variable	B	SE B	Wald χ^2	p	OR	(95% CI)
Equality values	.470	.217	4.702	.03*	1.601	(1.046-2.449)

Significance level: * $p \leq .05$

H5b: Participants with a high level of biospheric values are more likely to engage in environment-related support behaviors than participants with a low level of biospheric values.
SUPPORTED

H5c: Participants with a high level of equality values are more likely to engage in gender equality-related support behaviors than participants with a low level of level of equality values.
SUPPORTED

Figure 5 below visually presents the revised conceptual model, based on the results of the hypothesis testing.

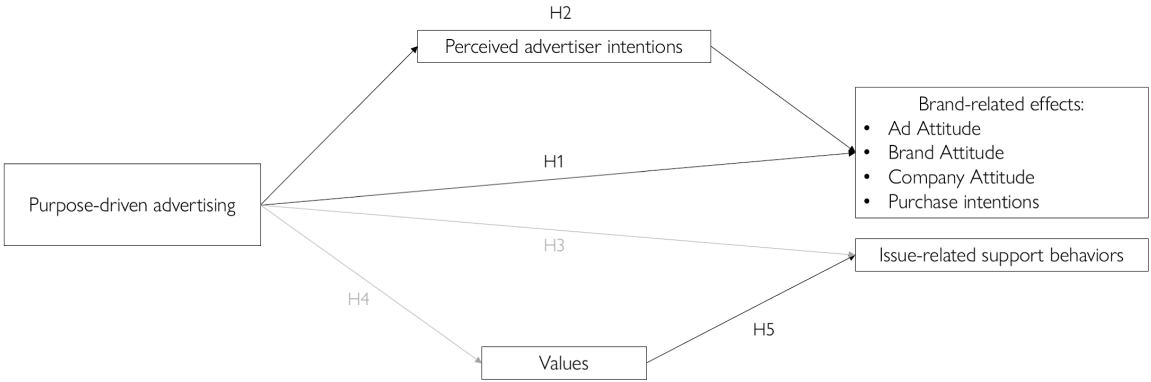


Figure 5 – Revised conceptual model based on hypothesis testing

5 Discussion

In this section, a comprehensive overview of the results presented above is provided together with a discussion of how the findings relate to theory. Based on the hypothesis testing, we first discuss the findings concerning the brand-related effects of purpose-driven advertising claims, and then the findings regarding social effects.

5.1 Brand-related effects of purpose-driven advertising claims

First, the hypotheses regarding how purpose-driven advertising claims impact the brand-related effects ad attitude, brand attitude, company attitude, and purchase intentions were tested. The results indicated that advertising claims promoting a social issue indeed lead to favorable consumer evaluations and intentions. As hypothesized, these effects are in line with what has previously been confirmed in CSR advertising research. By looking at the advertising claim in isolation, this study fills the research gap of whether such effects can be experienced in advertising with social dimensions, even in communication not highlighting traditional CSR activities. Further, these results contradict Nan and Heo's (2007) findings in a study of cause-related advertising, where such advertising only generated more favorable consumer attitudes toward the company, but not more favorable ad and brand attitudes, compared to traditional advertising. Rather, it seems like purpose-driven advertising claims can have positive effects on all levels of attitudes. As only a few studies on CSR advertising explore all three levels simultaneously, this thesis brings attention to how advertising with a social dimension may result in positive ad evaluations while favorably impacting both the corporate image and the brand image.

As the study explored two separate social issues promoted in advertising, both environmental protection and gender equality, and showed comparable promising results for both, it indicates that similar effects may occur for comparable claims related to other social issues. An additional reason for this argument is related to the mediating effect of perceived public-serving advertiser intentions. The results suggest that it is the consumer's perception of the advertiser as public-serving or altruistic that favorably impacts consumer responses. This indicates that consumers reward companies that they perceive aspire to have a positive impact on society. These results are in line with Forehand and Grier's (2003) argument that consumers ideally would like to see pure public-serving advertiser motives and that whenever a firm shows something else than altruistic intentions, it is viewed negatively. Hence, this

study highlights the importance of communicating a public-serving objective. While this could be done through purpose-driven advertising claims, other messages highlighting how the firm cares about something else than sales (such as consumer well-being), may bring similar brand benefits. However, such proposed effects cannot be confirmed by the focal research and thus need further exploration.

Overall, the findings regarding brand-related effects confirm the belief stated in the introduction of this thesis, that consumers want and appreciate companies that are involved in social issues. However, the main contribution lies in the investigation of the isolated effects of the purpose-driven advertising claims. Hence, the results of the study indicate that brands can potentially benefit from using social issues in their promotions without actually backing it up with real CSR initiatives. While this is beneficial for the firms engaging in such advertising, it may once again provide fire to the debate of goodwashing.

5.2 Social effects of purpose-driven advertising claims

Investigating the effects of purpose-driven advertising claims on issue-related support behaviors, the study of this thesis provided no support for such a relationship. In contradiction to prior research (Defever et al., 2011; Verplanken & Holland, 2002), no effects could be identified on the respondents' value importance or intentions to engage in issue-related support behaviors. Thus, purpose-driven advertising did not, in this study, function as a situational cue with effects on individual values and behaviors. However, support for the link between issue-specific values and issue-specific behaviors was found. The reasons for the lack of effects can be numerous and may be a result of either the purpose-driven advertising claims as such, the stimuli used in this experiment, the social context in which it was studied, or a combination of all. First, in prior research where advertising has been shown to function as a situational cue that impacts individual values and subsequent unrelated behaviors (Defever et al., 2011) the ads used were more closely linked to the values they were expected to influence. However, when it comes to purpose-driven advertising in practice, values are often rather implied than explicit. Hence, purpose-driven advertising claims without clear values may simply not have the potential to impact individual values and issue-related support behaviors. Secondly, the priming used in this experiment may not have been sufficient, and it may be that repeated exposure, rather than a single, would have yielded other results. For example, in the study of Defever et al. (2011), respondents were exposed

to ten print ads communicating a specific value, rather than one. Further, other more intrusive media vehicles than print ads such as video, which is commonly used for purpose-driven advertising in practice, may have the potential to create significant impact.

When it comes to the societal context in which the study was conducted, the Swedish setting may have been a factor influencing outcomes. First, the values of environmental protection and gender equality should already be of high importance in Sweden as the country has been described as one of the most environmentally friendly (EPI, 2018) and gender equal (World Economic Forum, 2017) countries in the world. Hence, priming those values may have little effect on value prioritization if values are already of high importance to many individuals. Further, as purpose-driven advertising has become increasingly popular in Sweden (Rågsjö Thorell, 2018; Look, 2016), it may be that Swedish individuals are already frequently exposed to messages similar to those in the stimuli ads, that the effects of another ad with such a message are marginal. Lastly, as priming of values can occur through other situational cues such as news articles, conversations with friends, books or documentaries, the respondents may already be influenced by messages in other contexts than advertising. Considering this, it may be that purpose-driven advertising promoting environmental protection or gender equality is too weak, common or in line with existing values to have any measurable impact. While several researchers have seen effects on values by relatively subtle priming elements (e.g. Verplanken & Holland, 2002), this study could not find empirical support for such effects of purpose-driven advertising. Still, this thesis offers a valuable theoretical contribution by highlighting the limits of advertising's potential to influence individual values and issue-related support behaviors.

On the other hand, frequent exposure to messages aligned with the purpose-driven ad claims from several different sources, may in combination influence values and behaviors in a positive way. It may be that purpose-driven advertising claims, together with messages from, for example, news articles, books, opinion pieces, and other contemporary societal institutions collectively drive positive societal change. Therefore, purpose-driven advertising claims may potentially function as small puzzle pieces that contribute to the social good in a larger context, while the isolated effect of one ad is unobservable. Further, purpose-driven advertising claims may still yield other social effects, beyond the issue-related support behaviors studied in this thesis.

6 Conclusions

In this section, the main conclusions are summarized, based on the above discussion of empirical findings. Furthermore, the key theoretical contributions and the managerial implications, based on the study's findings are outlined. Lastly, the limitations of the study are discussed, and suggestions for future research are presented.

The purpose of this thesis was to enrich the understanding of the effects of purpose-driven advertising claims, concerning both brand-related and social effects. As purpose-driven advertising constitutes an area of high relevance for advertising practitioners due to being under critique for its social, or lack of social impact, it was considered a field in need of further research. Additionally, as existing academic research had not studied advertising with social dimensions without communication about CSR activities, there was an apparent research gap. Hence, the aim was to contribute to the closing of this research gap by investigating whether exposure to purpose-driven advertising claims positively impacts consumers' brand-related responses and issue-related support behaviors. Additionally, the thesis sought to explore whether and how consumers' perception of the advertisers' intentions impacts the potential brand-related effects, and if individual values influence the potential social effects.

The results of the study showed that purpose-driven advertising claims have positive effects on the firm regarding ad, brand and company attitude as well as purchase intentions, relative to traditional advertising. Hence, there seem to be apparent reasons for marketers to engage in purpose-driven advertising for corporate image, brand-building and sales-driving purposes. These positive effects were in turn explained by consumers' perception of the company engaging in purpose-driven advertising as having public-serving intentions, confirming the theoretically suggested explanation.

When it comes to the studied social effects of purpose-driven advertising, i.e. the intentions to engage in issue-related support behaviors, the findings of this study cannot indicate any influence. It is suggested that the lack of behavioral effects could be because a single purpose-driven advertising claim may not have sufficient impact on the individual values of its audience. These results add valuable and factual information to the ongoing debate of the social effects of purpose-driven advertising as well as the academic discussion about potential positive social effects of advertising. The key conclusion here is that there is still a lack of

empirical evidence of whether purpose-driven advertising can lead to positive societal change even though positive social change is a central element of purpose-driven advertising claims.

In conclusion, by exploring both the brand-related and social effects of purpose-driven advertising claims, this study answers the research question outlined in the introduction. First, it indicates that exposure to purpose-driven advertising claims, in fact, can impact consumers' brand-related evaluations and intentions. This effect is explained by consumers' perception of the advertiser as having public-serving intentions. Secondly, the study does not provide any support indicating that exposure to purpose-driven advertising claims can influence consumers' intentions to engage in issue-related support behaviors by influencing individual values. All of these findings were consistent in the case of both of the two social issues studied.

6.1 Theoretical contribution

The above conclusions highlight how this thesis contributes to the growing body of research within the field of advertising with social dimensions. The key theoretical contributions lie in the expansion of previously proposed theoretical relationships within CSR advertising to the context of purpose-driven advertising claims where the company does not communicate any evidence of real social impact. Building on existing research, the advertising effects of an isolated message promoting a social issue have been identified. Mainly, the findings indicate a positive relationship between such claims and ad, brand and company attitudes and purchase intentions. The study also indicates that perceived advertiser intentions explain this relationship, which has previously not been empirically explored. Further, because of its comparative nature, the study shows differences in the effects of advertising with and without a social dimension, rather than studying different types of social issue advertising. As such research has been called for (Nan & Heo, 2007), the findings also help to expand knowledge on this matter.

The theoretical contribution concerning the social effects of purpose-driven advertising is, rather than expanding theory, emphasizing the difficulties in finding rigorous support for the present study's key theoretical arguments of how purpose-driven advertising claims could impact behaviors. These non-findings are by no means unhelpful in the future theoretical development. The results highlight the limitations of impacting individuals' pro-social

behavioral outcomes through advertising and thus challenge the generalizability of established theory on how values and behaviors can be influenced. However, the study replicates previous findings on how individual values influence behaviors in previously unexplored situations. Especially the equality values to equality behaviors relationship has only been scarcely studied before, and this thesis offers a new approach to studying gender equality by a value approach.

6.2 Managerial implications

In addition to the theoretical contributions, this thesis has clear implications for marketing and advertising practitioners. Primarily, the study sheds light on the previously implied, but never confirmed relationship between purpose-driven advertising claims and favorable consumer responses. Hence, the study shows the possible benefits of taking a stand and communicating a social issue. The recommendations for advertisers and marketers are therefore that they should consider what positive social impact they can and have the power to drive and whether the engagement in that issue is genuine. Because, as the study suggests, it is the consumer perception of the advertiser intentions as public-serving that drives the positive consumer responses to purpose-driven advertising. Therefore, it is suggested that advertisers should consider what social change they want to make and why. It should be an altruistic engagement, rather than a simple way to reap brand benefits, to sustain consumers perception of public-serving intentions and minimize the risk of skepticism. As the perceived advertiser intentions determine how favorable the responses are, there are most likely also other ways than purpose-driven advertising claims to communicate the brand's public-serving intentions (e.g. by trying to make life easier for consumers or increase their well-being).

Worth mentioning is also that purpose-driven advertising is still a relatively new phenomenon, and its positive brand effects may be a result of the perceived novelty and creativity. Hence, if purpose-driven advertising becomes common practice, the positive effects may potentially decrease with time. Furthermore, as there is a trend in the advertising industry of taking responsibility for the negative and promoting positive social effects of advertising (Dahlen & Rosengren, 2016), information about the social impact of advertising should be of highest importance. This thesis does not offer any empirical evidence of the potential positive social effects of purpose-driven advertising but rather highlights the

limitations of achieving such effects when it comes to purpose-driven advertising claims. Thus, if practitioners are truly interested in creating advertising that does good for society, they need to actively try to increase the likelihood of achieving such effects while making efforts to follow up and measure them. Further, the study highlights that solely engaging in purpose-driven advertising with a social issue claim is not enough to be able to argue that one is making true social impact and advertisers should be aware of this. Claiming a social impact without evidence of actual societal changes, as for example increased pro-social behaviors among the audience, advertisers will risk being accused of goodwashing. Further, as purpose-driven advertising becomes more and more popular, we can expect consumers to become more aware of the phenomenon and potentially more critical.

6.3 Critique and limitations

The study of this thesis is subject to several limitations. The study aims to explore the effect of purpose-driven advertising claims on a limited number of brand-related effects and only on social effects regarding issue-related support behavior. While numerous social issues can and are in practice associated with purpose-driven advertising, this study is delimited to the investigation of two examples; environmental protection and gender equality. These are generally considered to be relatively neutral and frequently addressed, while other more controversial issues or less familiar could possibly generate other effects. Different product categories of more split opinions or with specific target segments, could arguably also produce other effects. Additionally, the respondents' previous perception of the company, information of its actual activities or other elements twisting attention were excluded from the study, which in a natural context is rather inconceivable. However, in the frame of an experiment, these elements had to be excluded to find the effect of the manipulation. Therefore, findings should be generalized with caution as incompatible elements may generate other effects.

Due to the importance that the stimuli should be as similar as possible for the control and manipulation group, except for the specific manipulation, we only had resources to produce print ads. The visual stimuli of print ads limit the effects as other types of media vehicles such as video, could have generated other results. Further, as respondents were exposed to the ad only once and for a short amount of time, the outcomes may be different for frequent exposure to purpose-driven advertising. Repeated exposure could possibly have an impact

on consumers' evaluations in opposing ways. Either repetition could generate positive effects as suggested by cultivation theory (Mastro, 2009). Alternatively, the repetition could make the purpose-driven ad diluted and consumers increasingly resistant to persuasion (Eisend, 2017).

The measurement of social effects relies on the respondents' self-reporting of behavioral intentions, as it is often used in advertising research and serve as a powerful predictor of actual behaviors (Hunt, 2014). However, one cannot completely rely on these measures, notably in this context of social issues, as the respondent's answer may be influenced by social norms. Furthermore, regarding the behavioral task, it is possible to argue whether the choice of a female candidate in a recruitment setting in a male-dominated industry where there are two candidates of equal capabilities, truly reflects a pro-gender equality behavior. This is because one may have the opinion that a pro-equality behavior is when gender is not at all taken into account in the decision. Other behavioral choices in situations related to sexual assault of women, feminist activism behavior, misogynist behavior or patriarchal tendencies could have been an option for the study. However, these behaviors were deemed as both unethical and inappropriate to test in a behavioral choice task as respondents would most likely have answered in line with what is considered the social norm. Hence, the behavioral task used in the study was considered as the most appropriate for the purpose of the study. It was also, together with the filler tasks, judged to minimize respondent's suspicion of what behavioral tendencies were studied, which could have influenced answers to be in line with the perception of what was expected by the researchers.

Finally, the choice to examine purpose-driven advertising's effect on individual values also implies limitations. The decision was motivated by the particular interest of behaviors in situations unrelated to the brand and psychological theory's suggested role of values in predicting behaviors. However, other predictors of behavior, such as attitudes, could potentially have generated additional explanatory value for the lack of purpose-driven advertising's influence on behaviors.

6.4 Future research

The findings of this thesis open for further intriguing research on the topic of purpose-driven advertising, its effects and the determinants of its effectiveness. As the present study only involve print ads with a purpose-driven claim, other types of priming could provide further understanding. Regarding the brand-related effects, it would be valuable for practitioners to know whether different issues and their combination with product categories could generate other results. Studies of what groups of individuals (e.g. men vs. women or different generations) are influenced to what extent by various issues would further deepen understanding of the effects of purpose-driven advertising. Further, investigating what types of claims are most effective (e.g. encouraging behavioral change, criticism of existing norms) could provide valuable implications for advertising practitioners. Additionally, consumers' perceptions of advertiser intentions, explaining the brand-related effects of purpose-driven advertising, could be further explored. Practitioners could benefit from identifying its antecedents in the context of purpose-driven advertising as perceived self-serving intentions may limit the positive effects, or even produce unfavorable consumer responses. If this is the case, purpose-driven advertising could potentially, in some instances be severely inferior compared to traditional advertising. Noticeably, more research on what influences consumers to perceive the advertiser's intention as public-serving or self-serving is needed.

The stimuli design and format of the questionnaire generated a somewhat isolated context of ad exposure. Future studies should try to replicate the brand-related effects by using real ads in a more natural setting, where, for example, disturbances might lower the consumers' attention to the ad. Also, by using real brands, the effects of consumers' previous brand perception and information on the company's activities, supporting or not supporting the social issue, could be measured. Such a study could provide a further understanding of what elements impact the effectiveness of purpose-driven advertising.

The obvious limitation of the one-time, short exposure to stimuli, leads to the proposal that future studies may use a longitudinal approach to examine the effects over time. Additionally, individual values and issue-related support behaviors are only some of all potential social effects that could be investigated. Previous research has found social effects of advertising such as social connectedness and empathy (Åkestam et al., 2017b) and creativity (Rosengren

et al., 2013; Fitzsimons et al., 2008), why one might expect additional social effects of purpose-driven advertising (e.g. well-being, positive emotions, relations to others, sense of urgency for change).

Finally, the measurement of consumers' perceived purposefulness (used in the manipulation check) needs further empirical assessment. The measurement could be tested across different issues, product categories, companies, and on advertising that promotes social issues more or less explicitly, for further validation. Such research could provide factual contributions to the ongoing academic and industry debates on purpose-driven advertising's societal impact.

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Appendix

Appendix I – Summary of results from Pre-study I

Table 15 – Rated importance of social issues

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Gender equality	20.225	10.001	100.025
Environmental protection	18.125	9.944	98.881
Immigration	10.950	7.317	53.536
Public health	10.550	6.691	44.767
HBTQ rights	10.025	8.273	68.435
Diversity	9.850	6.518	42.490
Community aid	8.350	6.439	41.464
Animal rights	5.425	5.158	26.610
Adversity	3.825	3.974	15.789
Economic policy	2.675	4.393	19.302

Table 15 presents the respondents' perceived, relative issue importance. Respondents were asked to divide 100 points between the ten social issues, giving most points to the issues they found most important.

Table 16 – Rated appropriateness for brands to engage in a social issue

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Plant-based milk	5.970	1.308	1.710
Coffee	5.770	1.287	1.656
Women's hygiene products	5.690	1.260	1.587
Cars	5.080	1.768	3.126
Bikes	5.050	1.761	3.103
Literature	4.590	1.802	3.248
Apps	4.510	1.668	2.783
Pharmaceuticals	4.510	2.126	4.520
Watches	4.310	1.749	3.061
Financial services	4.150	1.981	3.923
Sportswear	4.070	1.881	3.538
Toothpaste	4.030	1.889	3.568
Oil	3.950	2.427	5.892
Alcohol	3.790	2.342	5.483
Weigh loss products	3.380	2.335	5.453
Ice cream	3.330	1.910	3.649
Soda	3.210	2.105	4.430
Tobacco	3.000	2.340	5.474

Appendix 2 – Stimuli ads

Design 1 – Sportswear + gender equality

Traditional



Unlimited strength and explosive speed.

In our stores you find everything you need to push your limits and increase your performance.

With a wide variety of products of great quality, we've got you covered. In our stores you find everything you need. Every piece is carefully selected to increase your performance and to help you push your limits.

Don't let anything hold you back.

Purpose-driven



A kick right in the stereotypes

Women's soccer isn't real soccer. Women will never have the same ball control as men. Women are not strong enough. Not fast enough. Not brave enough. Right?

These are all comments that many female athletes face daily. Should women in sports have to deal with this in 2019? We don't think so. It's time for us to put an end to misconceptions about female athletes.

Design 2 – Toothpaste + environmental protection

Traditional



A DENTIST'S TREATMENT, NOW IN YOUR OWN HOME

Our new toothpaste selection is recommended by dental professionals.

It offers the best protection for your smile and gives you healthier gums from day one.

Only a dentist can give you the same flour treatment.

Purpose-driven



CLOSE THE TAP WHILE BRUSHING

Every time you turn off the faucet while brushing your teeth you can save up to 15 liters of water.

That's more than many people around the world have in a week.

Every drop counts – close the tap.

Appendix 3 – Questionnaire used in the main study

Block 1

Hi,

This survey aims to evaluate a hypothetical advertising concept. On the next page you will see an ad that builds on this concept and then you will be asked to answer some questions about this ad. To enable you to evaluate the ad in itself, we have blurred the brand name and logo.

Please take a few seconds to study the ad before you move on in the questionnaire. Try to answer the questions as truthfully as possible and trust your instincts.

Thank you for your help!

Page Break

Block 2

This is an ad from a [sportswear/toothpaste] brand. Imagine that you see the ad in a context where you normally see ads (such as on a billboard or in a magazine). In the following pages you will be asked about your opinion about the ad, so please take your time and study the ad for as long as you want.

(Stimuli ads displayed)

When you have studied the ad, click the arrow to move on to the questions.

Page Break

Block 3

Have you seen this ad before?

☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ I don't know

Based on your impression of the ad, to what extent do you agree with the following statements?
(1 – Strongly disagree / 7 – Strongly agree)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Annonsen förespråkar något som är positivt för samhället	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Företaget bakom annonsen bryr sig om något annat än försäljning	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Företaget bakom annonsen tar ställning i en social fråga	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

What is your opinion on the ad?

Bad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Good
Dislike	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Like
Negative opinion	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Positive opinion

What is your opinion on the brand behind the ad?

Bad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Good
Dislike	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Like
Negative opinion	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Positive opinion

What is your opinion on the company behind the ad?

Bad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Good
Dislike	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Like
Negative opinion	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Positive opinion

Page Break

Based on the information in the ad, to what extent do you agree that the company behind the advertising is:

(1 – Strongly agree / 7 – Strongly disagree)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Altruistic	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Genuine	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Generous	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Unselfish	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Kind	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

If you were in the market for [sportswear/toothpaste], would you buy this brand? (assuming that the brand appeared in the ad)

Unlikely	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Likely
Improbable	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	Probable

What product category does the ad promote?

☐ Sportswear
☐ Cars
☐ Toothpaste
☐ Electronics
☐ I don't know

Page Break

Filler Task

"Finished files are the result of years of scientific study combined with the experience of years"

How many "f"s are there in the text above?

--

Page Break

Block 4

Imagine that you are living in Stockholm and are about to travel down to Malmö for a few days of work and meetings. You are now about to book your trip. Below you find five different alternatives, graded on six different aspects.

The grading scale has three steps, from bad to good. All alternatives have both positive and negative aspects, and your task is to balance the alternatives and make a choice.

	Speed	Comfort	Cost	Sustainability	Risk of delay	Service	Wifi on board
Car	Slow	Average	Average	High level of emissions	Low	None	No
Plane	Fast	Good	Expensive	High level of emissions	Low	Good	Limited
Bus	Slow	Average	Affordable	Low level of emissions	Average	Average	Yes
Speed train	Average	Good	Expensive	Low level of emissions	Average	Good	Limited
Train	Slow	Good	Affordable	Low level of emissions	High	Good	Limited

Based on the information above, what alternative would you choose?

☐ Car
☐ Plane
☐ Bus
☐ Speed train
☐ Train

Page Break

Imagine that you are working with recruitment for an international IT and Telecom company. Your current task is to find a suitable candidate to manage the firm's B2B department. The position means being responsible for managing the department and its 800 employees all over the world. The department's development is of critical importance for the future of the company. The position also includes to become a part of the firm's executive team.

After a long interview process there are now four candidates left, and you need to recommend one of them to the board. To make it easier to compare the candidates, you have summarized and graded their performance and skills in the table below.

	Relevant experience	IT-skills	Strategy competency	Social skills	Leadership skills	Interview performance	Telecom skills
Anna Friman (female)	Average	Good	Good	Average	Good	Average	Average
Aron Hemissi (male)	Long	Good	Good	Limited	Average	Average	Average
Elsa Roumani (female)	Long	Average	Good	Average	Good	Limited	Average
Olof Sandqvist (male)	Long	Average	Limited	Good	Average	Good	Average
Anders Wallén (male)	Average	Average	Good	Average	Good	Average	Good
Caroline Öberg (female)	Short	Good	Average	Good	Average	Good	Average

Based on the information above, which candidate would you choose?

☐ Anna Friman
☐ Aron Hemissi
☐ Elsa Roumani
☐ Olof Sandqvist
☐ Anders Wallén
☐ Caroline Öberg

Page Break

Filler task

6 13 27 ? 111

What number is missing in the sequence above?

? =

--

Page Break

Block 5

(For clarification purposes the value items are categorized under each measure, in the main study they were randomized and without headings.)

Here we briefly describe some people. Please read each description and think about how much each person is or is not like you. (1 = Not like me at all, 2 = Not like me, 3 = Somewhat like me, 4 = A little like me, 5 = Like me, 6 = Very much like me)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Benevolence values						
It is very important to him/her to help the people around him/her. He/She wants to care for their well-being.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is important to him/her to be loyal to his/her friends. He/She wants to devote himself to people close to him/her.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Universalism values						
It is important to him/her to listen to people who are different from him/her. Even when he/she disagrees with them, he/she still wants to understand them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He/She believes all the world's people should live in harmony. Promoting peace among all groups in the world is important to him/her.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Page Break

Here we briefly describe some people. Please read each description and think about how much each person is or is not like you. (1 = Not like me at all, 2 = Not like me, 3 = Somewhat like me, 4 = A little like me, 5 = Like me, 6 = Very much like me)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Biospheric values						
He/She strongly believes that people should care for nature. Looking after the environment is important to him/her.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is important to him/her to adapt to nature and to fit into it. He/She believes that people should not change nature.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Equality values						
He/She thinks it is important that every person in the world be treated equally. He/She believes everyone should have equal opportunities in life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
He/She thinks it is important that men and women have the same opportunities. He/She believes society should work actively to limit gender inequalities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Page Break

Here we briefly describe some people. Please read each description and think about how much each person is or is not like you. (1 = Not like me at all, 2 = Not like me, 3 = Somewhat like me, 4 = A little like me, 5 = Like me, 6 = Very much like me)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Power values						
It is important to him/her to be rich. He/She wants to have a lot of money and expensive things.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
It is important to him/her to get respect from others. He/She wants people to do what he/she says.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Achievement values						
It's important to him/her to show his abilities. He/she wants people to admire what he/she does.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Being very successful is important to him. He/She hopes people will recognize his/her achievements.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Page Break

BLOCK 6

Are you currently living in Sweden?

☐ Yes
☐ No

How old are you? Please state your age in numbers, e.g. 45.

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What is your gender?

☐ Female
☐ Male
☐ Other / Don't want to specify

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix 4 – Alpha values for measurements in the main study

Table 17 - Cronbach's alphas for all scales used

Variable	No. of items	Cronbach's alpha
Perceived purposefulness	3	.871
Perceived advertiser intentions	5	.923
Ad attitude	3	.967
Brand attitude	3	.971
Company attitude	3	.979
Purchase intentions	2	.968
Benevolence values	2	.504
Universalism values	2	.528
Biospheric values	2	.763
Equality values	2	.708
Power values	2	.455
Achievement values	2	.284
Self-transcendent values*	4	.642

*Benevolence and universalism values combined