Spring 5-24-2021

The importance of fit: a predictive model of cause marketing effects

Michelle Rego
michelle.rego@jwu.edu

Mark A. Hamilton
University of Connecticut - Storrs, Mark.Hamiltion@uconn.edu

Routledge
Taylor & Francis Group

Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice

ISSN: (Print) (Online) Journal homepage: https://www.tandfonline.com/loi/mmtp20

The importance of fit: a predictive model of cause marketing effects

Michelle M. Rego & Mark A. Hamilton

To cite this article: Michelle M. Rego & Mark A. Hamilton (2021): The importance of fit: a predictive model of cause marketing effects, Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, DOI: 10.1080/10696679.2021.1901594

To link to this article: https://doi.org/10.1080/10696679.2021.1901594

Published online: 24 May 2021.

JOURNAL OF MARKETING THEORY AND PRACTICE
https://doi.org/10.1080/10696679.2021.1901594

The importance of fit: a predictive model of cause marketing effects

Michelle M. Rego [a] and Mark A. Hamilton [b]

[a]Department of Marketing, Johnson & Wales University, Providence, Rhode Island, USA; [b]Department of Communication, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut, USA

ABSTRACT

A predictive model was developed to help brands improve cause-related marketing campaigns by identifying the most impactful relationships among important campaign variables. The largest effect in the MASEM model ($K = 81$, $N = 25{,}554$) was found for *cause-brand fit* on *attitudes toward the cause-brand alliance* ($\beta = .40$). Two of the four proposed belief factors examined acted as mediating variables: consumers' involvement with the cause and their skepticism. Three attitude factors mediated the impact of beliefs on CRM purchase intentions: perceptions of cause-brand fit, attitude toward the brand, and attitudes toward the CRM alliance. Skepticism also had a direct negative effect on CRM purchase intentions.

Global political consumerism is at an all-time high (Edelman, 2021). Influential consumers reward brands that reflect their values and boycott the ones that don't (Weber/Shandwick, 2016). However, 83% of consumer activists from both the US and UK agree that is it more important to show support for companies by buying from them, than to show opposition by boycotting them (Castellano, 2018). This trend is especially found for consumers in Generation Z. A survey of 2,000 American consumers aged 14 to 17 by Fuse in 2016 found that 25% had boycotted a company in the past year, and that 67% of teens were more likely to purchase brands that support a cause than one that does not (Carufel, 2018, July 17). Further, a 2015 Cone study of (non-activist) consumers found that Millennials are more likely to purchase a product with a social or environmental benefit (87%) than the average American consumer (83%), and are also more likely to switch brands (91% vs 85%) to one associated with a cause (Cone, 2015). In response, a growing number of companies publicly communicate their support for causes in *cause-related marketing campaigns* that align their brands with the public interest.

Cause-related marketing campaigns

Cause-related marketing (CRM) campaigns involve an alliance between a nonprofit and a for-profit organization with the common goal of promoting a specific cause-brand consumer purchase (Strand, 2017). For example, the General Mills Yoplait brand collaborated with the Susan G. Komen organization on the Yoplait *Save Lids To Save Lives* campaign from 1998 to 2016 in which the company donated ten cents to the nonprofit for every Yoplait lid redeemed by the consumer, resulting in 50 USD million for the nonprofit (Hessekiel, 2018, April 18). Retail brands also engage in cause-marketing. The "Buy One, Give One" campaign by Target promised that for every school supply item purchased at one of their stores a donation was made to The Kids in Need Foundation, totaling 25 USD million in school supplies given to 1.8 million students (Marks, 2017, February 22).

Cause-related marketing campaigns have been an important area of academic research for nearly 30 years (Barnes, 1991; Lafferty et al., 2016; Rego et al., 2020). A literature review by Natarajan et al. (2016) found 300 peer-reviewed articles on the topic across 40 different countries. Research themes identified by this review included consumer beliefs such as involvement with the cause, perceptions such as "fit" between the brand and cause, demographic variables such as age and gender, and the influence of cause marketing campaign messages on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions (Natarajan et al., 2016).

Many researchers and scholars have examined CRM campaigns through systematic review (Lafferty et al., 2016; Natarajan et al., 2016; Peloza & Shang,

CONTACT Michelle M. Rego Michelle.Rego@jwu.edu Johnson & Wales University, Xavier 310, 8 Abbott Park Place, Providence, RI 02903.

This is a paper resulting from research conducted as part of a doctoral dissertation: https://opencommons.uconn.edu/dissertations/1678. It was presented as a conference paper the 69th International Communication Association (ICA) Conference in Washington, D.C.

2011; Rego et al., 2020). However, no published study has modeled CRM variables at the meta-analytic level. A systematic review and meta-analytic structural equation model (MASEM) will synthesize data and place findings within the context of a theoretical framework.

The goal of this analysis is to guide both theory and application in the field of cause marketing. By analyzing the results of past CRM campaigns, the most impactful relationships between frequently studied variables will be identified. These include consumer beliefs such as cause involvement and skepticism, and attitudes toward cause-brand alliances and sponsoring brands. This is especially important in today's marketplace, given the increasing pressure that consumers place on brands to engage in political and issues. According to the 2021 Edelman Trust Barometer, "68% of consumers believe they have the power to force corporations to change" (Edelman, 2021, p. 38).

Toward a model of cause related marketing

Cause-related marketing campaigns were first analyzed as a type of co-branding venture between a business concern and a nonprofit organization (Barnes, 1991). Varadarajan and Menon (1988) differentiate cause-related marketing campaigns as initiatives that promote a consumer exchange. Their definition, which was used to guide this analysis, states that CRM is "a process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterized by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue-providing exchanges that satisfy organizational and individual objectives," (Varadarajan & Menon, 1988, p. 60).

There is also significant attention being placed on CRM research in practice. According to the IEG Sponsorship Report (2016), marketing executives responded that the most important performance metrics for evaluating their alliances with a cause included improvements in attitudes toward the brand (86%), brand awareness (81%), and product or brand sales (66%). Cause-related marketing scholars have demonstrated a parallel approach, measuring both attitudes and purchase intentions as dependent variables in a wide range of global CRM studies, (Barone et al., 2007; Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2012; Chang & Cheng, 2015; Elving, 2013; Galan-Ladero et al., 2013; Grau & Folse, 2007; Lafferty & Edmondson, 2009; Mizerski et al., 2002; Myers & Kwon, 2013; Olsen et al, 2003; Samu & Wymer, 2009; Singh, 2014).

Theory of reasoned action and planned behavior

The original theory of planned behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1970; 1980) was founded on the premise that behavior can be predicted reliably by behavioral intentions. Further, the theory posited that those intentions can be predicted by attitudes, which in turn are predicted by *subjective norms*, defined as the perception that important others think the individual should or should not perform the given behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). In 1985, the theory of planned behavior was expanded to include perceived behavioral control to the model (Ajzen, 1985). Perceived behavioral control (PBC) was defined by Ajzen (1985) as the extent to which individuals feel that they are capable of performing a certain behavior.

The theory of reasoned action and planned behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) is the most commonly cited theory used to guide CRM campaign research (Rego et al., 2020), as it provides a structured yet flexible framework to support variables used in cause-related marketing. This meta-analytic model will primarily focus on perceptions and beliefs that influence consumer attitudes and purchase intentions in the context of cause-related marketing campaigns.

CRM effects

Attitudes and purchase intention act as the key consequent variables in CRM studies, where attitude is defined as the degree to which an individual has favorable or unfavorable evaluations of an object (Fishbein, 1963). According to the theory, perceptions and beliefs with the highest subjective probability and greatest evaluative consequences should have the greatest influence on attitudes (Fishbein, 1963).

Attitudes

Attitudinal variables that were identified in the CRM literature include attitudes toward CRM, attitudes toward the cause-brand alliance, attitude toward the cause-marketing offer, attitude toward the brand, attitude toward the cause, and attitude toward the nonprofit organization (Lafferty et al., 2016; Natarajan et al., 2016; Peloza & Shang, 2011).

A positive effect for CRM campaigns on consumer attitudes was found in early CRM studies (Hajjat, 2003; Kropp et al., 1999; Ross et al., 1992), and has since been confirmed by 55 studies identified in the global CRM literature (see Table 1).

Table 1. List of included studies.

Study	First Author	Year	N	Study	First Author	Year	N	Study	First Author	Year	N
1	Berger	1999	196	33	Anuar	2012	277	65	Viela	2016	171
2	Berger	1999	210	34	Chang, C.	2012	128	66	Patel	2016	212
3	Sen	2001	258	35	Chang, C.-T.	2012	369	67	Hadley	2016	515
4	Landreth	2002	474	36	Waqas	2012	89	68	He	2016	160
5	Cui	2003	364	37	Simmons	2006	150	69	He	2016	156
6	Engelbrecht	2004	204	38	Harben	2009	742	70	Bae	2016	124
7	Hamlin	2004	320	39	Sohn	2012	304	71	Nawaz	2016	67
8	Subrahmanyan	2004	128	40	Gasiorek	2011	201	72	Zdrakovic	2010	826
9	Lafferty	2004	463	41	Bigne-Alcaniz	2012	595	73	Roy	2010	176
10	Westberg	2005	97	42	Boenigk	2013	241	74	Chang	2015	291
11	Trimble	2006	122	43	Elving	2012	160	75	Lee	2017	322
12	Gupta	2006	232	44	Kim, J.	2013	371	76	Kumar	2017	680
13	Gupta	2006	531	45	Ham	2012	100	77	Aggarwal	2017	180
14	Dickenson	2007	118	46	Cheron	2012	196	78	Garcia-Jimenez	2017	120
15	Nan	2007	100	47	Salazar	2013	261	79	Melero	2016	186
16	Arora	2007	131	48	Kerr	2013	216	80	Thamaraiselvan	2017	406
17	Arora	2007	1,650	49	Myers a	2013	173	81	Hyllegard	2010	349
18	Grau	2007	141	50	Myers b	2013	742				25,554
19	Hou	2008	376	51	Chen	2014	660				
20	Basil	2006	168	52	Folse	2014	205				
21	Samu	2009	240	53	Goldsmith	2014	604				
22	Samu	2009	120	54	Sabir	2014	423				
23	Wymer	2009	563	55	Kim, J	2014	240				
24	Lafferty	2009	170	56	Kim	2015	156				
25	Lafferty	2009	243	57	Kim	2015	127				
26	Lafferty	2009	252	58	Boenigk	2015	791				
27	Shabbir	2010	203	59	Hammad	2014	261				
28	Bigne-Alcaniz	2010	299	60	Wang	2014	226				
29	Moosmayer	2010	306	61	Wang	2014	94				
30	Hyllegard	2011	562	62	Westberg	2014	135				
31	Steckstor	2012	1,463	63	Manuel	2014	81				
32	Sheikh	2011	203	64	Viela	2014	388				

Accordingly, the following hypotheses are presented to reflect the findings expected from a meta-analysis of this literature.

H1: Favorable attitudes toward a) sponsoring brands and b) cause-brand alliances will increase intentions to purchase CRM products (see Figure 1).

Purchase Intention

The criterion variable purchase intention has been identified in 42 studies throughout the cause-related marketing literature (Table 1). In these studies, consumer intentions ranged from intentions to purchase a CRM product (He et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2015; Kleber et al., 2016; Kull & Heath, 2016; Lafferty, 2009; Lafferty & Edmondson, 2009; Vilela & Nelson, 2016) to type of purchase – planned or impulse (Das et al., 2016), or willingness to pay a specified price for a product or service (Koschate-Fischer et al., 2012; Robinson et al., 2012; Wymer & Samu, 2009).

Perceptions and beliefs

Skepticism

Skepticism in cause-related marketing campaigns generally involves an individual's tendency to question a company's motives for joining an alliance with a nonprofit organization (Mohr et al., 1998; Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1998; Pirsch et al., 2007). CRM research has found skepticism to be negatively associated with attitudes toward CRM campaigns in several countries, including the United States (D. J. Webb & Mohr, 1998), China (Chang & Cheng, 2015), Egypt (Hammad et al., 2014), India (Patel et al., 2016), Malaysia (Anuar & Mohamad, 2012), and The Netherlands (Elving, 2013). However, Youn and Kim (2008) found in a study of consumers in the United States that "individuals high in advertising skepticism" were actually "more likely to trust a company's willingness to engage in philanthropic commitment to social causes" (p. 131).

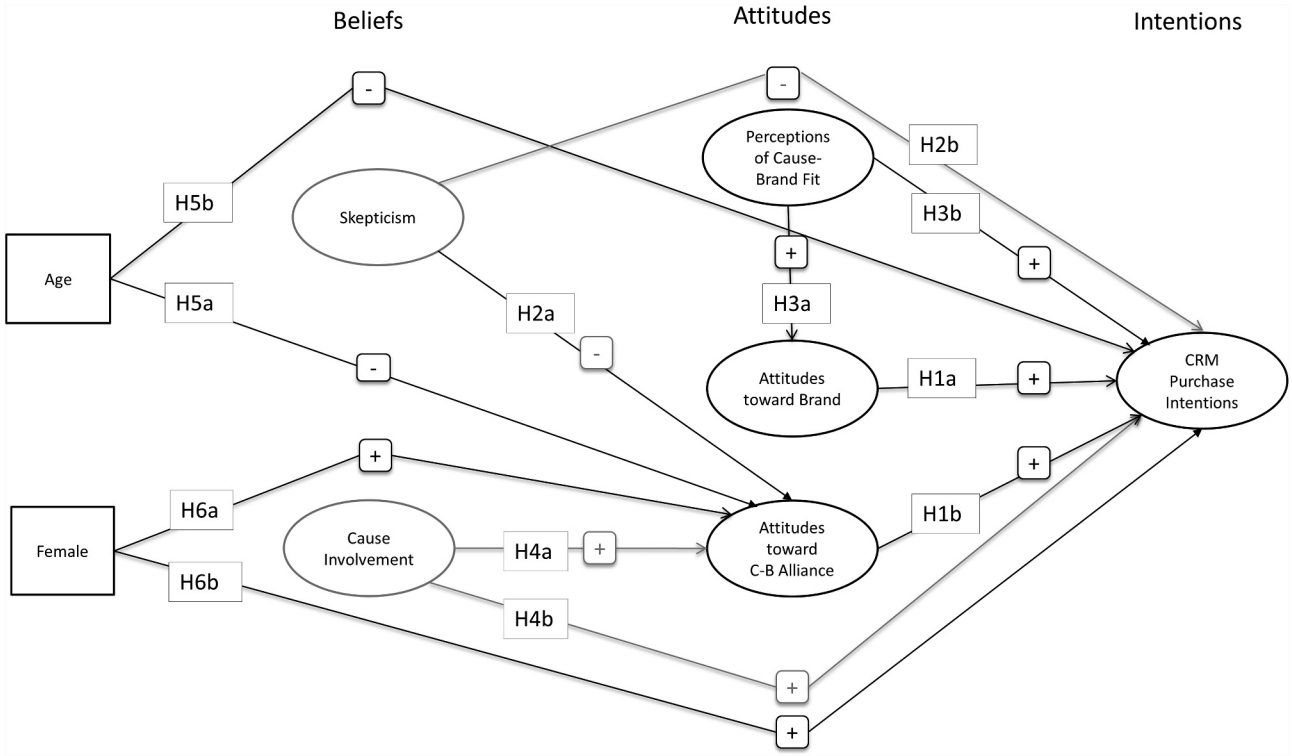

Figure 1. Hypothesized predictive model of CRM.

H2: Skepticism reduces a) attitudes toward cause-brand alliances and b) purchase intentions (Figure 1).

Perceptions of Cause-brand Fit

The "fit" between the cause and the brand refers to the perceived congruence or compatibility of their connection or link (Lafferty & Edmondson, 2009; Lafferty et al., 2004) in a specific cause-related marketing campaign. A good cause-brand fit is measured by the extent to which consumers perceive the alliance to be logical, complementary and congruent (Bigné-Alcañiz et al., 2012; Drumwright, 1996; Steckstor, 2012). Cause-brand fit has been shown to moderate the effect of cause-related markeing campaigns on attitudes such that high fit increases favorable attitudes toward CRM brand alliances outcomes (Basil & Herr, 2006; Elving, 2013; Folse et al., 2014; Hou et al., 2008; Lafferty, 2009; Lafferty et al., 2004; Nan & Heo, 2007; Pracejus & Olsen, 2004).

H3: Cause-brand fit will increase a) attitudes toward sponsoring brands and b) intentions to purchase cause-related products (Figure 1).

Cause Involvement

An individual who is involved with a cause tends to place importance on that cause based on individual needs, values, and interests (Zaichkowsky, 1985) or because it is personally relevant to them (Grau & Folse, 2007). Cause involvement leads to positive associations about the cause which can in turn transfer positive feelings to the CRM alliance (C. S. Trimble & Rifon, 2006). Several studies have found a positive effect for cause involvement on cause-brand attitudes and purchase intentions (Gupta & Pirsch, 2006; Hajjat, 2003; Myers & Kwon, 2013; Myers et al., 2013), and positive perceptions of cause-brand fit (Chang, 2012; Chowdhury & Khare, 2011; Hyllegard, Yan et al., 2010; Myers et al., 2013; Patel et al., 2016; Robinson et al., 2012; C. S. Trimble & Rifon, 2006).

H4: Cause involvement will increase a) attitudes toward cause-brand alliances and b) intentions to purchase cause–related products (Figure 1).

Demographic variables

Age

The Nielsen Global Survey on Corporate Social Responsibility that of the 29,000 respondents from 58 countries who participated in the Nielsen Global Survey of Corporate Social Responsibility (March 2014) , 50% responded "agree" or "strongly agree" that they are willing to spend more to support companies that give back to society, while global consumers aged 21–24 (55%) were the most likely to say they would spend more

(p. 5). Academic research also supports the conclusion that younger consumers are more likely to support CRM than older consumers in the United States (Cui et al., 2003; Hyllegard, Yan, et al., 2010).

H5: Younger consumers are more likely to support cause-related marketing campaigns than older consumers; such that, age will decrease a) favorable attitudes toward cause-brand alliances and b) purchase intentions (Figure 1).

Gender

In the U.S., Millennial men are less likely to purchase a product with a social benefit than Millennial women (83% vs 90%), but are still on par with the average consumer (Cone, 2015). This trend does not hold in every country, however. As a global average, men are more likely than women (53% vs 47%) to spend more to purchase a product with a social benefit (Nielsen Global Survey of Corporate Social Responsibility (March 2014)). Academic cause-related marketing research in the United States has found that women respond more favorably to CRM campaigns both in attitudes (Cui et al., 2003; Ross et al., 1992; Wang, 2014) and purchase intentions (Hyllegard, Yan, et al., 2010; Vilela & Nelson, 2016).

Similar results were found for global female consumers. Canadian women (Berger et al., 1999), Japanese women (Chéron et al., 2012) and German women (Moosmayer & Fuljahn, 2010), all have more favorable attitudes toward CRM campaigns than men. The following prediction is made from this review of the literature.

H6: Female consumers are more likely to support CRM than males, such that female gender will increase a) favorable attitudes toward cause-brand alliances and b) purchase intentions (Figure 1).

Method

Finding and coding studies

A systematic search of all available literature was conducted to identify as many relevant cause-related marketing studies as possible to contribute to this meta-analysis, including both published and unpublished research available on the internet. During the selection process, studies were accepted in any language with abstracts provided in English, from any country, as a self-published article or as an article published in peer-reviewed or non-peer viewed journal or as a graduate thesis or dissertation available as of June 2017. The goal of the search was to find any mediated cause-related marketing study that used consumer attitudes or purchase intentions as the dependent variable.

Selection Criteria

To be included in the meta-analysis, studies needed to contain: a) a CRM campaign message, b) a dependent attitudinal measure about the brand, company image, or cause-brand alliance, or c) a dependent measure of intentions to support the cause-related campaign through a consumer purchase or demonstrate intentions to pay a certain price for the brand. In accordance with PRISMA meta-analysis guidelines (Moher et al., 2009), a detailed description of the literature search process is provided below.

Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis was the cause-related marketing campaign. To be included in the analysis, the CRM needed to include a consumer exchange – campaigns that sponsored events or contained copy about general philanthropic activities were excluded as they do not meet the definition of CRM by Varadarajan and Menon (1988) presented in the literature review. In total, 81 studies were selected for the analysis, with an overall N = 25,554 participants from 19 countries (Table 1).

Search Procedure

A Boolean search was conducted to find relevant studies for this analysis using the search terms "cause-related marketing," "cause marketing," "cause-brand alliance," "business and nonprofit alliance," "business and nonprofit joint venture," "enterprise and nonprofit joint venture," "CRM," and "CrM" in the following databases: Communication & Mass Media Complete, JSTOR, ProQuest ABI/Inform Global, ProQuest Dissertations & Theses, PsycINFO, and Scopus. As a redundant measure, the search engine Google Scholar was used to identify as many global studies as possible. Once the searches were completed and duplicate articles were removed, 359 articles were examined for eligibility (Figure 2).

Exclusion Criteria

Search results were filtered to eliminate campaigns that did not a) contain a cause-related marketing message, b) contain any type of advertising or marketing message, c) measure any variety of consumer attitudes or purchase intentions as the dependent variable, d) involve a specific cause-brand consumer purchase or e) did not

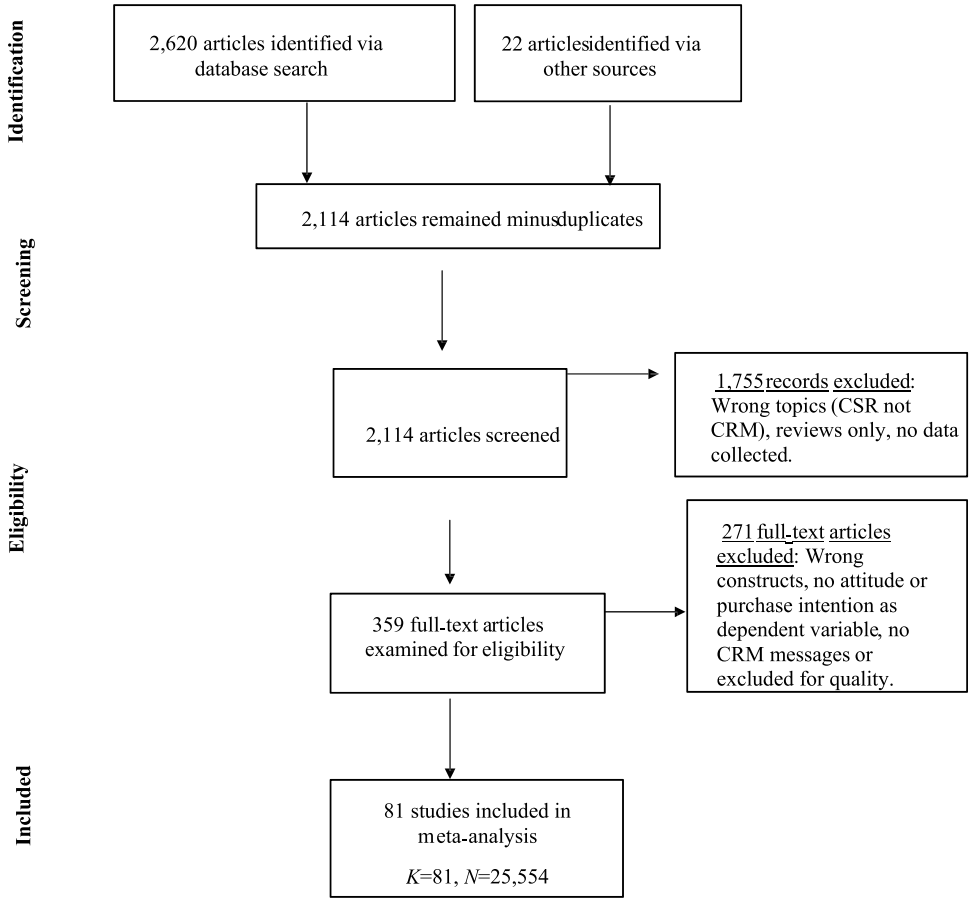

Figure 2. PRISMA flow diagram of 81 included studies.

meet the quality standards of the review. To be included in the review, studies needed to report data for study manipulation checks and present materials and measures, including reliability (Table 2).

Structural analysis procedures

A meta-analytic structural equation model analysis (MASEM) a priori power analysis was calculated using G*Power 3.1 software (Faul et al., 2009), yielding an acceptable power available for the analysis (Power = .80). Assumptions used in the calculation included a sample size of K = 81 studies, 7 predictors and a small effect size estimate r = .20 (Cohen, 1992), as small to medium effects sizes for attitudes and behavioral intentions are predicted given previous meta-analyses guided by the theory of planned behavior (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Rivis & Sheeran, 2003).

Measures

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) was used to measure effect sizes for the dependent variables attitudes and purchase intentions across studies. Attitude measures included attitudes toward CRM, attitude toward brand, attitude toward cause and attitude toward company (sponsor), attitude toward nonprofit and attitude toward cause-brand alliance. Purchase intentions included willingness to purchase CRM products.

Independent measures included skepticism, such as the four-item, 5-point, Likert-type scale by Patel et al. (2016) Cronbach α = .77; cause involvement, adapted (shortened) from Zaichkowsky's (1985) Personal Involvement Inventory by (Grau & Folse, 2007), Cronbach α = .74; and cause-brand fit, in which researchers use a categorical (high/low), *manipulated levels of fit* approach for CRM (Das et al., 2016; Elving, 2013; Lafferty, 2009; Lafferty et al., 2004; Nan & Heo, 2007) or a continuous measurement techniques such as the scale by Ellen et al. (2006), Cronbach α = .94.

Coding

Articles were coded by the following characteristics: first author, year of publication, type of publication, location

Table 2. Included studies – coding and effects.

Author(s) (Year)	Study	Sample	Country	Variables[a]	ES(σ)	Measures[b]	α
Aggarwal and Singh (2017)	77	180	India	Inv > PI	.671	2	.85/83
Anuar and Mohamad (2012)	33	277	Malaysia	Skep > AttA	−.186	2	≥.70
Arora and Henderson (2007)	16	131	USA	CRM >AttB	.171	1	*
Aroraand Henderson (2007)	17	1,650	USA	CRM > AttB	.076	1	*
Bae (2016)	70	124	USA	CRM > PI	.270	2	≥.70
Bae (2016)	70	124	USA	AttA > PI	.670	2	≥.70
Basil and Herr (2006)	20	168	USA	Fit > AttA	.560	1	*
Berger et al. (1999)	1	196	Australia	Inv > AttB	.340	1	*
Berger et al. (1999)	1	196	Australia	Inv > PI	.300	1	*
Berger et al. (1999)	2	210	Australia	Inv > AttB	.150	1	*
Berger et al. (1999)	2	210	Australia	Inv > PI	.340	1	*
Bigné-Alcañiz et al. (2010)	28	299	Spain	Fit > AttA	.390	2	≥.70
Bigné-Alcañiz et al. (2012)	41	595	Spain	CRM > AttB	.430	2	≥.70
Bigné-Alcañiz et al. (2012)	41	595	Spain	AttB > PI	.470	2	≥.70
Boenigk and Schuchardt (2013)	42	241	Germany	CRM > PI	.267	2	≥.70
Boenigk and Schuchardt (2015)	58	791	Germany	CRM > AttB	.144	2	≥.70
Chang, C. (2012)	34	128	Taiwan	Inv > AttB	.550	2	.97
Chang, C.-T. (2012)	35	369	China	Inv > PI	.240	2	.92/.89
Chang, C.-T. (2012)	35	369	China	Inv > AttA	.310	2	.92/.86
Chang, C-T. (2012)	35	369	China	AttA > PI	.560	2	.86/.90
Chang and Cheng (2015)	74	291	Taiwan	Skep > PI	−.190	2	.90/.88
Chen et al. (2013)	51	660	China	AttA > PI	.350	2	.90/.79
Cheron et al. (2012)	46	196	Japan	Gen > Fit	.148	2	≥.70
Cui et al. (2003)	5	364	USA	Gen > PI	.177	2	≥.70
Dickinson and Barker (2007)	14	118	Australia	Fit > AttA	.604	2	≥.70
Elving (2013)	43	160	The Netherlands	Fit > AttB	.240	1	*/.92
Elving (2013)	43	160	The Netherlands	Skep > AttB	−.270	2	.82/.92
Elving (2013)	43	160	The Netherlands	Skep > PI	−.340	2	.82/.89
Engelbrecht and Du Plessis (2004)	6	204	South Africa	CRM > AttB	.387	2	≥.70
Folse et al. (2014)	52	205	USA	Fit > AttB	.159	1	*/.90
García-Jiménez et al. (2017)	78	120	Spain	Skep > PI	−.410	2	.92/.84
García-Jiménez et al. (2017)	78	120	Spain	Skep > AttA	−.550	2	.92/.84
García-Jiménez et al. (2017)	78	120	Spain	Skep > AttB	−.400	2	.92/.84
García-Jiménez et al. (2017)	78	120	Spain	AttA > PI	.550	2	.97/.84
García-Jiménez et al. (2017)	78	120	Spain	AttB > PI	.540	2	.98/.84
Gasiorek (2011)	201	201	The Netherlands	Inv > AttA	.016	2	≥.70
Gasiorek (2011)	201	201	The Netherlands	Fit > AttA	.064	2	≥.70
Goldsmith and Yimin (2014)	53	604	USA	Fit > PI	.210	1	*/.84
Goldsmith and Yimin (2014)	53	604	USA	Gen > PI	.120	2	*/83
Grau and Folse (2007)	18	141	USA	Inv >PI	.450	1	*/.83
Gupta and Pirsch (2006)	12	232	USA	AttA > PI	.190	2	≥.70
Gupta and Pirsch (2006)	13	531	USA	AttA > PI	.397	2	≥.70
Hadley (2016)	67	515	USA	Fit > PI	.177	2	≥.70
Hadley (2016)	67	515	USA	AttB > PI	.341	2	≥.70
Ham and Choi (2012)	45	100	South Korea	CRM > AttB	.379	2	≥.70
Hamand Choi (2012)	45	100	South Korea	CRM > PI	.238	2	≥.70
Hamiln and Wilson (2004)	7	320	New Zealand	CRM > PI	.100	2	≥.70
Hammad et al. (2014)	59	261	Egypt	Skep > PI	−.377	2	.78
Harben (2009)	38	742	USA	AttA > PI	.370	2	.91
He et al. (2015)	68	160	UK	Gen > PI	.160	2	≥.70
He et al. (2015)	69	156	UK	Gen > PI	.010	2	≥.70
Hou et al. (2008)	19	376	China	Fit > PI	.691	2	.90/.85
Hou et al. (2008)	19	376	China	Inv > PI	.388	2	.88/85
Hyllegard, Paff Ogle, et al. (2010)	81	349	USA	Inv > AttB	.150	2	.71-.98
Hyllegard, Paff Ogle, et al. (2010)	81	349	USA	Gen > AttB	.392	2	.71-.98
Hyllegard, Paff Ogle, et al. (2010)	81	349	USA	AttB > PI	.360	2	.71-.98
Hyllegard, Yan, et al. (2010)	30	562	USA	CRM > AttB	.200	2	.71-.98

(*Continued*)

Table 2. (Continued).

Author(s) (Year)	Study	Sample	Country	Variables[a]	ES(σ)	Measures[b]	α
Hyllegard, Yan, et al. (2010)	30	562	USA	Inv > AttB	.120	2	.71-.98
Hyllegard, Yan, et al. (2010)	30	562	USA	Inv > PI		.120	2
Hyllegard, Yan, et al. (2010)	30	562	USA	Gen > PI	.090	2	.71-.98
Hyllegard, Yan, et al. (2010)	30	562	USA	AttB > PI	.170	2	.71-.98
Kerr and Das (2013)	48	216	USA	Fit > PI	.309	1	*
Kim (2014)	55	240	South Korea	Fit > PI	.176	2	.878
Kim (2014)	55	240	South Korea	Fit > AttA	.257	2	.878
Kim et al., (2015)	56	156	USA	Fit > AttB	.259	1	*
Kim et al., (2015)	57	127	USA	Fit > AttB	.361	1	*
Kim et al.,(2015)	57	127	USA	Fit > PI	.377	1	*
Kim and Johnson (2013)	44	371	South Korea	Gen > PI	.080	2	≥.70
Lafferty et al. (2004)	9	463	USA	Fit > AttA	.405	1	*
Lafferty (2009)	24	170	USA	Fit > AttB	.031	1	.92
Lafferty and Edmondson (2009)	25	243	USA	AttA > PI	.360	2	.93
Laffertyand Edmondson (2009)	26	252	USA	AttA > PI	.190	2	.93
Landreth (2002)	4	474	USA	Fit > AttB	.064	1	*
Landreth (2002)	4	474	USA	Fit > PI	.207	1	*
Landreth (2002)	4	474	USA	Inv > AttB	.202	1	*
Landreth (2002)	4	474	USA	Inv > PI	.313	1	*
Manuel et al. (2014)	63	81	USA	Skep > PI	−.300	2	.89/.90
Manuel et al.(2014)	63	81	USA	Skep > AttB	−.318	2	.89/.94
Manuel et al. (2014)	63	81	USA	AttB > PI	.536	2	.94/.90
Melero & Montaner (2016)	79	186	Spain	Fit > AttB	.216	1	*
Moosmayer and Fuljahn (2010)	29	306	Germany	Gen > AttA	.090	2	≥.70
Myers et al. (2013)	49	173	USA	Inv > AttA	.340	2	.92/.92
Myers et al. (2013)	50	742	USA	AttA > PI	.380	2	.92/.91
Nan and Heo (2007)	15	100	USA	CRM > AttB	.128	2	≥.70
Nawas et al. (2016)	71	67	Pakistan	Fit > PI	.408	2	≥.70
Nawaset al. (2016)	71	67	Pakistan	Inv > PI	.473	2	≥.70
Patel et al. (2016)	66	212	India	CRM > AttB	.397	2	≥.70
Patel et al. (2016)	66	212	India	CRM > PI	.699	2	≥.70
Patel et al. (2016)	66	212	India	Inv > AttB	.183	2	≥.70
Roy (2010)	73	176	USA	Fit > AttB	.155	1	*
Roy (2010)	73	176	USA	Fit > PI	.145	1	*
Sabir et al. (2014)	54	423	Pakistan	Fit > PI	.341	2	≥.70
Salazar (2013)	47	261	USA	Gen > PI	.075	2	≥.70
Salazar (2013)	47	261	USA	Gen > AttA	.024	2	≥.70
Samu and Wymer (2009)	21	240	Canada	Fit > AttB	.500	2	.92/.85
Samu and Wymer (2009)	21	240	Canada	Fit > PI	.291	2	.92/*
Samu and Wymer (2009)	22	120	Canada	Fit > AttB	.309	2	.92/.85
Samu and Wymer (2009)	22	120	Canada	Fit > PI	.389	2	.92/*
Sheikh et al., (2010)	32	203	Pakistan	Fit > AttB	.274	1	*
Sen and Bhattacharya (2001)	3	258	USA	AttA > PI	.716	2	≥.70
Shabbir et al. (2010)	27	203	Pakistan	CRM > PI	.425	2	≥.70
Simmons et al., (2006)	37	150	USA	Fit > AttB	.752	1	*
Sohn et al. (2012)	39	304	South Korea	CRM > AttB	.176	2	.94
Stecksor (2012)	31	1463	Germany	Fit > AttB	.182	2	≥.70
Stecksor (2012)	31	1463	Germany	Inv > AttB	.359	2	≥.70
Subrahmanyan (2004)	8	128	Singapore	CRM > PI	.313	2	≥.70
Thamaraiselvan et al. (2017)	80	406	India	AttA > PI	.600	2	.94/.84
C. S. Trimble and Rifon (2006)	11	122	USA	Gen > Att	.209	2	*/.93
Nelson and Vilela (2014)	64	388	USA	Gen > PI	.177	2	≥.70
Vilela and Nelson (2016)	65	171	USA	Gen > PI	.261	2	≥.70
Westberg and Pope (2005)	10	97	Australia	CRM > AttB	.501	2	≥.70
Westberg and Pope (2005)	10	97	Australia	CRM > PI	.054	2	≥.70
Westberg and Pope (2014)	62	135	Australia	Fit > AttB	.177	2	≥.70
Westberg and Pope (2014)	62	135	Australia	Fit > AttA	.640	2	≥.70

(*Continued*)

Table 2. (Continued).

Author(s) (Year)	Study	Sample	Country	Variables[a]	ES(σ)	Measures[b]	α
Westberg and Pope (2014)	62	135	Australia	Gen > AttA	.125	2	≥.70
Wymer and Samu (2009)	23	563	Canada	Gen > PI	.149	2	≥.70
Wang (2014)	60	226	China	Gen > AttA	.190	2	≥.70
Wang (2014)	61	94	China	Gen > AttA	.070	2	≥.70
Zdravkovic et al. (2010)	72	826	USA	Fit > AttB	.371	2	≥.70
Zdravkovic et al. (2010)	72	826	USA	Inv > AttB	.367	2	≥.70
Zdravkovic et al. (2010)	72	826	USA	Inv > AttA	.516	2	≥.70

K = 81 included articles, *N* = 25,554.
Variables[a] = Effect sizes measured between sets of two variables, coded below.
Cause Involvement -> Purchase Intention (Inv –> PI).
Cause Involvement-> Attitude toward the CRM Alliance (Inv –> AttA).
Cause Involvement -> Attitude toward the Brand (Inv –> AttB).
Cause Involvement -> Cause-Brand Fit (Inv –> Fit).
Cause Involvement -> Skepticism (Inv –> Skep).
Skepticism -> Purchase Intention (Skep –> PI).
Skepticism -> Cause-Brand Fit (Skep –> Fit).
Skepticism-> Attitudes toward CRM Alliance (Skep –> AttA).
Skepticism -> Attitudes toward the Brand (Skep –> AttB).
CRM Message -> Purchase Intention (CRM –> PI).
CRM Message -> Attitude toward the Brand (CRM –> AttB).
Female Gender -> Purchase Intention (Gen –> PI).
Female Gender -> Attitude toward CRM Alliance (Gen –> AttA).
Female Gender -> Attitude toward the Brand (Gen –> AttB).
Female Gender -> Cause-Brand Fit (Gen –> Fit).
Cause-Brand Fit -> Purchase Intention (Fit –> PI).
Cause-Brand Fit -> Attitude toward CRM Alliance (Fit –> AttA).
Cause-Brand Fit -> Attitude toward the Brand (Fit –> AttB).
Cause-Brand Fit -> Attitude toward the Cause (Fit –> AttC).
Attitude toward the Brand -> Purchase Intention (AttB –> PI).
Attitude toward the Cause -> Purchase Intention (AttA –> PI).
Attitude toward the CRM Alliance -> Purchase Intention (AttA –> PI).
Measures[b]: 1 = Dichotomized, 2 = Scale Measure.
2[1] = cause-involvement measured using a seven-point Likert scale adapted from Zaichkowsky (1985).
*Dichotomized measures with manipulation checks reported.
General reporting as ≥.70.

of study, and experimental method. CRM campaigns were coded by type of cause, and product or brand. Participants in each experiment and control group were coded by sample size, age, and gender. Independent variables used in each study were coded by measurement type.

The effect sizes for dependent variables attitudes and purchase intentions were coded by the statistics provided by the authors who performed the coding, including means, standard deviations, and correlations.

Results

Analysis

Intercoder Reliability

Intercoder reliability between the two coders was determined using Krippendorff's alpha to determine percentage of agreement for each category, thus taking into account agreement that happens merely by chance (Hayes & Krippendorff, 2007; Krippendorff, 2004, 2008, 2011). Intercoder agreement for ES coding ranged from α = .770 to .883, exceeding the recommendation for sufficiently reliable analysis (Table 3).

Effect Sizes

Using the standardized difference of sample means obtained through coding, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, represented as r, was calculated to determine the effect sizes for the dependent measures in the analysis (Card, 2010). Two of the study authors extracted effect sizes and used a review process that included consultation and consensual validation. Intercoder reliability was calculated using Krippendorff's alpha to determine percentage of agreement for each category taking into account agreement that happens merely by chance (Krippendorff, 2004, 2008, 2011).

A random-effects assumption was used to estimate the mean distribution of effects across a range dissimilar CRM campaigns and to balance the weight of samples sizes (Preiss, 2007) which ranged from very small (*N* = 67) to very large (*N* = 1,463) in the set of included studies for the analysis (Table 1).

Table 3. Summary of bivariate meta-analysis effects.

Independent –> Dependent Variable	K	*N*	*Q*	I^2	df	ES (*r*) random*	Krippendorff's α**	
1. CRM –>Brand Attitudes	10	3,494	72.6	87.6	9	.248	.846	(.189, .373)
2. CRM –>Purchase Intentions	10	2,745	118.5	92.4	9	.277	.795	(.141, .404)
3. Cause-Brand Fit –>Brand Attitudes	14	4,641	74.1	82.5	13	.239	.861	(.167, .309)
4. Cause-Brand Fit –>Purchase Intentions	12	3,578	140.5	92.1	11	.319	.783	(.206, .423)
5. CRM Attitudes –>Purchase Intentions	12	4,679	149	92.6	11	.458	.795	(.368, 539)
6. Cause involvement –>Brand Attitudes	9	4,420	64.7	87.6	8	.270	.770	(.185, .352)
7. Cause involve –>Purchase Intentions	10	2,645	90.5	90.1	9	.348	.770	(.244, .444)
8. Female gender –>Purchase Intentions	10	3,600	9.8	8.6	9	.121	.770	(.087, .155)
9. Skepticism –>Purchase Intentions	5	913	7.96	49.8	4	–.319	.795	(–.403,-230)
10. Brand Attitude –>Purchase Intentions	6	2,222	44.2	88.7	5	.398	795	(.281, .502)

*95% confidence intervals presented below ES **ReCalc2 used in reliability calculations: http://dfreelon.org/utils/recalfront/recal2/.

Correcting for Attenuation-Induced Biases

Meta-analysis of literature is an essential step in the development of valid accumulated knowledge (Cooper et al., 2009). It is also important to identify and eliminate biases and other errors in study findings, artifacts, or errors that originate from imperfections in the study (Schmidt & Hunter, 2014), not from the underlying relationships that are of scientific interest in meta-analysis (Rubin, 1990). Attenuation is of particular interest in meta-analysis as it refers to the "reduction or downward bias in the observed magnitude of an effect size produced by methodological limitations in a study such as measurement error or range restriction" (Cooper et al., 2009, p. 573). findings, α ≤ .70 (Krippendorff, 2004). Meta-regression analysis was used to test for the effect of variable measurement (dichotomous vs. continuous) for studies examining levels of cause-brand fit or levels of cause involvement. No effect for measurement was found in any of the bivariate meta-analysis conducted for cause-brand fit or cause-involvement (Table 3).

Analysis of Heterogeneity

Bivariate meta-analyses were conducted for groups of studies with common effect sizes. Effect sizes were weighted by their inverse variance and combined using random effects meta-analytic procedures (Lipsey & Wilson, 2001). Reporting statistics included the test for homogeneity, Q, the I^2 index, and 95% confidence intervals (Huedo-Medina et al., 2006). None of the bivariate meta-analyses resulted in a 95% confidence interval that included zero, thus giving support that even small effects would hold direction Table X). Heterogeneity was found for the 10 bivariate effects, however, only a very small amount of heterogeneity was found for skepticism on purchase intention (K = 5, N = 913, Q = 7.96, I^2 = 49.8, df = 4), possibly due to the small number of studies found for this effect (Table 3).

Publication Bias

Publication bias refers to the assumption that larger studies with significant findings are more likely to be submitted for publication. The presence of publication bias was determined using a Fisher's Z (transformation of *r*) which compares studies of different sample sizes (Card, 2010). Funnel plots of standardized effect sizes were created as scatter diagrams of studies in relation to the inverse standard error. No such bias was detected for the meta-analyses conducted, as the shape of the plot distributions were symmetrical and many non-significant studies were included.

Preparing the Modeling Data

Study variables and correlations (K = 81, N = 25,554) extracted through the coding process were entered into a dataset and analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics 22. Using the two-stage approach to MASEM (Hunter et al., 1989; Jak, 2015), correlations were weighted by sample size, and an initial pooled correlation matrix was examined for errors and missing values (see Table 4) and revised (see Table 5).

Hypothesis testing

The following hypotheses were tested as depicted in the hypothesized model (Figure 1). Path analysis was conducted to test the hypothesized model using PATH 6.1 (Hunter & Hamilton, 2002). Several corrections were made and a revised pooled correlation matrix was created (Table 5). To ensure a conservative analysis, the smallest study variable sample size (n = 291), was entered into PATH 6.1 meta-causal model. Next, paths smaller than .10 were removed. The new matrix also included two study effects identified by the software to provide information for missing paths female gender on involvement, r = .109, p < .01, n = 562 (Hyllegard, Yan et al., 2010) and female gender on skepticism, r = –.11, p < .01, n = 291 (Chang & Cheng, 2015). Goodness-of-fit

Table 4. Summary of pooled correlations*.

Measures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Female	1						
2. Skepticism	−.11	1					
3. Cause Involvement	.11	.00	1				
4. Cause-Brand Fit	.15	−.34	.12	1			
5. Attitude toward Brand	.20	−.31	.29	.24	1		
6. Attitude toward C-B Alliance	.10	−.30	.33	.49	.18	1	
7. Purchase Intentions	.12	−.31	.28	.31	.36	.43	1

**Average correlations, weighted by sample size, $K = 81$, $N = 25{,}554$.

Table 5. Summary of revised pooled correlations*.

Measures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Female	1						
2. Skepticism	−.11	1					
3. Cause Involvement	.11	−.02	1				
4. Cause-Brand Fit	.05	−.35	.13	1			
5. Attitude toward Brand	.07	−.31	.29	.24	1		
6. Attitude toward C-B Alliance	.07	−.30	.33	.49	.23	1	
7. Purchase Intentions	.06	−.32	.19	.28	.38	.45	1

*Average correlations, weighted by sample size, $K = 81$, $N = 25{,}554$.

was assessed using χ^2, probability associated with the fit, and the root mean square estimate (*RMSE*). Results from the revised model (Figure 3), indicated an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2 = 6.506$, $df = 8$, $p = .684$, $RMSE = .0743$).

Hypothesis 1 specifically predicted that favorable attitudes toward a) sponsoring brands and b) cause-brand alliances would increase intentions to purchase CRM products. The revised model (Figure 3) demonstrates that attitudes toward the brand ($\beta = .26$, $p < .05$) and attitudes toward the CRM alliance ($\beta = .35$, $p < .05$) were positively related to purchase intentions. This indicates that individuals who have positive attitudes toward a CRM alliance and the sponsoring brand are more likely to purchase CRM products. Therefore, H1 is supported (Table 6).

Skepticism was found to reduce attitudes toward the brand ($\beta = -.27$, $p < .05$), but had no direct effect on attitudes toward the cause-brand alliance. Therefore, Hypothesis 2a cannot be supported. However, Skepticism

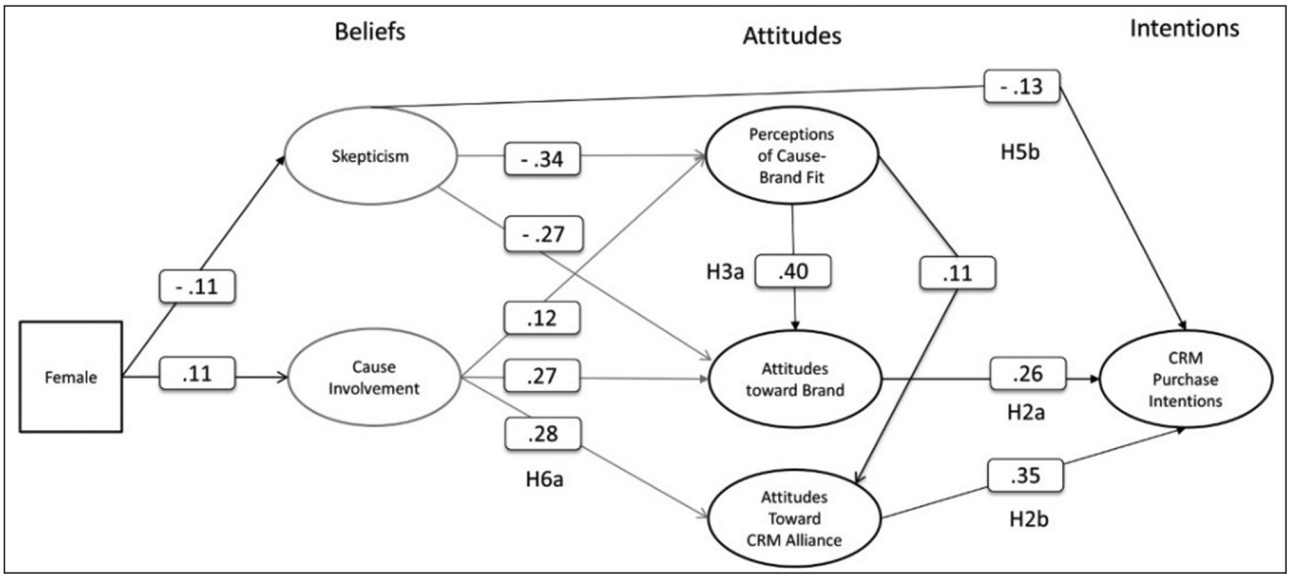

Figure 3. Revised predictive model of CRM.

Table 6. Summary of findings: MASEM coefficients*.

Predictor on Criterion variable	Path coefficient (ρ)
Female gender on Skepticism	−.11
Female gender on Cause involvement	.11
Skepticism on Cause-brand fit	−.34
Skepticism on Attitude toward brand	−.27
Skepticism on Purchase intentions	−.13
Involvement on Attitude toward brand	.27
Involvement on Attitude toward cause-brand alliance	.28
Involvement on Cause-brand fit	.12
Cause-brand fit on Attitude toward brand	.40
Cause-brand fit on Attitude toward C-B alliance	.11
Attitude toward brand on Purchase intentions	.26
Attitude toward cause-brand alliance on Purchase intentions	.35

*See model: Figure 3, $K = 81$, $N = 25{,}554$, $\chi^2 = 6.506$, df = 8, *RMSEA* = .0743.

was found to decrease purchase intentions ($\beta = -.13$, $p < .05$), providing support form Hypothesis 2b (Table 6).

Cause-brand fit was found to increase attitudes toward the sponsoring brand ($\beta = .40$, $p < .05$), therefore Hypothesis H3a is supported (Figure 3). Cause-brand fit did not directly increase intentions to purchase cause-related products. Hence, Hypothesis 3b is not supported.

According to the revised model, cause involvement increased a) attitudes toward the cause-brand alliance ($\beta = .28$, $p < .001$), but did not directly increase purchase cause-related products (Figure 3). Hence, only H4a is not supported. Further, the effect of age and female gender on attitudes and purchase intentions were not significant paths in the model (Figure 3). Therefore, Hypotheses H5 and H6 respectively are not supported (Table 6).

Discussion

One goal of this meta-analysis was to apply the theory of planned behavior and reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) in the context of cause-related marketing campaigns, and to model cause-related marketing studies that span across global boundaries and decades of research. The revised model clearly demonstrates CRM's impact on attitudes and purchase intentions (Figure 3) and holds quite well using data from 16 countries and 81 studies, from 1999 to 2017. Further, the results for the effects of attitudes toward the cause-brand alliance on purchase intentions ($\beta = .35$) are consistent with ES findings for attitudes on intentions found in previous meta-analyses of the theory of planned behavior (Godin & Kok, 1996; McEachan et al., 2011). For instance, an early bivariate meta-analysis by Godin and Kok (1996) found an effect size of $r = .46$ for attitudes on intentions.

Further, the Model of CRM Purchase Intention (Figure 3) specifically contributes to the theory of reasoned action and planned behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), the balancing roles of skepticism ($\beta = -.27$) and cause-involvement ($\beta = .27$) as a consumer beliefs that significantly impact brand attitudes (Figure 3)

The predictive model of CRM purchase intentions

The predictive model of CRM purchase ntentions provides a much-needed guide for future CRM researchers. In particular, the model provides researchers with a framework to explore the impact of other consumer beliefs, in addition to cause involvement. In addition, the model calls attention to the strong relationship between perceptions of cause-brand fit ($\beta = .40$) on consumer attitudes toward the CRM alliance, which has been overlooked in many cause-related marketing studies.A summary of the path coefficients from the meta-causal model (Table 6) and tested hypotheses (Table 7) are provided.

As expected, the model supported H1 which predicted that favorable attitudes toward sponsoring brands and cause-brand alliances would increase purchase intentions. The effects for attitudes on purchase intentions explained by the model are also consistent with the current CRM literature (He et al., 2015; Kim et al., 2015; Kleber et al., 2016; Kull & Heath, 2016; Lafferty & Edmondson, 2009; Lafferty, 2009; Vilela & Nelson, 2016).

Small effects for female gender

The positive effect of female gender on CRM attitudes (see Table 6 and Figure 3) is in part, achieved by

Table 7. Model hypotheses results.

Hypothesis	Variables	Direction	Results
H1a	Attitude toward Brand (AttB) –> Purchase Intention (PI)	+	Accepted
H1b	Attitude toward CRM Alliance (AttA) –> PI	+	Accepted
H2a	Skepticism –> Attitude toward CRM Alliance (AttA)	-	Rejected
H2b	Skepticism –> Purchase Intention (PI)	-	Accepted
H3a	Cause-Brand Fit (Fit) –> Attitude toward Brand (AttB)	+	Accepted
H3b	Cause-Brand Fit (Fit) –> Purchase Intentions (PI)	-	Rejected
H4a	Cause Involvement (Inv) –> AttA	+	Accepted
H4b	Cause Involvement (Inv) –> PI	+	Rejected
H5a	Age –> Attitude toward CRM Alliance (AttA)	-	Rejected
H5b	Age –> Purchase Intentions (PI)	-	Rejected
H6a	Female Gender (Gen) –> AttA	+	Rejected
H6b	Female Gender (Gen) –> Purchase Intentions (PI)	+	Rejected

reducing the negative effect on skepticism (β = −.11). Past studies that did not include a skepticism measure may have grossly over-estimated the importance of gender on purchase intentions. Hence, this oversight has contributed to the bias that marketers place on selecting both brands and causes that primarily target female consumers (Strand, 2017) when developing campaigns in the over 2 USD billion CRM industry (IEG, 2016).

Skepticism

In addition to the relationship between skepticism and female gender, marketers should pay special attention to the relationship between skepticism and cause-brand fit. This negative effect (β = −.34) was among the largest found in the MASEM, second only to the effect of cause-brand fit on attitudes toward the brand (β = .40). This finding is consistent with industry research conducted by Nielsen (2014) which indicates that advertising skepticism in on the rise, especially as perceived by Millennial consumers (although the skepticism measure used in CRM research was a more general measure). These digital natives demand that marketers exhibit "authenticity," or a perception of being real or genuine, in their traditional and social media advertising (Bonetto, February 2015; Nielsen, 2013).

Recommendations for future campaigns

Today's brand marketers understand the importance of embracing social issues and causes, but they also understand the importance of predictive analytics. The selection of the wrong cause for a brand can end up doing more harm than good. Brands need models to help forecast the possible impact of CRM decisions before launching a new campaign. Consumers are very skeptical of a brand's motivations for embracing charities and causes and lack trust in a company's motivation to do the right thing (Edelman, 2021). Given that consumers are very savvy in their perceptions of whether or not the cause is a good or logical "fit" for the brand, brands that do not meet this level of consumer believability may damage their reputations and even suffer losses in favorable brand attitudes and sales.

The Importance of Fit

From the point of view of brand marketers, selecting the right cause is the most important and the most challenging decision. The impact of *cause-brand fit* on *attitudes toward the alliance* was the largest effect found in this meta-analysis (β = .40, p < .001). The political consumerism movement (Weber/Shandwick, 2016) has clearly stimulated the demand for cause-related marketing campaigns. The need for a genuine fit is complicated by the demand for transparency and authenticity in brands, especially by Millennial consumers (Mintel, 2015; Nielsen, 2012). Future campaigns must be able to explain the reasons for their cause-brand alliance and "prove" their fit for younger consumers to support the CRM campaign.

Cause Involvement is Still Key

Given that cause-involvement was found to have an effect on cause-brand fit (β = .12, p < .001) as well as attitude toward the brand (β = .27, p < .001) and attitude toward the cause-brand alliance (β = .28, p < .001), marketers should consider prevalent causes in their CRM campaigns. Causes that are known to have the highest level of involvement with both men and women include the need for clean water, sanitation and eradicating hunger (Cone, 2015).

Recommendations for Future Research

More research is needed to fully understand the directional relationship between cause-brand fit and skepticism in CRM campaigns. It is unclear from the research if skepticism both decreases perceptions of fit and fit increases skepticism. In addition, future researchers should consider using measures of the *perceived authenticity* (Bruhn et al., 2012; Ilicic & Webster, 2014; Morhart et al., 2015; Newman & Dhar, 2014; Schallehn et al., 2014) as a potential moderator of cause-brand fit, especially when CRM campaigns are launched using social media.

Digital and Social Media

Academic research studies should also consider a shift to more digital media for their manipulations, reflecting the current media preference of consumers. Although research interest in cause-related marketing on social media is growing (Bühler et al., 2016; Paek et al., 2013), a majority of the studies included in this meta-analysis still used print media for the CRM advertisements in their experiments. In particular, video is a preferred medium for Millennials and Generation Z. According to Google's digital research firm Pixability, the frequency of cause-related marketing videos by the top 100 brands on YouTube has increased by 400% over the past five years (Hein (July 2017).

Expand Causes to Target More Male Consumers

As discussed previously, early studies that found women to be more accepting of cause-related marketing products than men (Cui et al., 2003; Ross et al., 1992) have led to an exaggerated perception of this gender difference. Nevertheless, this perception by marketers has

resulted in a female gender bias among CRM brands which primarily include female-supported causes, such as education, breast cancer and the environment (Nielsen, 2013).

Limitations

Several limitations that occurred over the course of this meta-analysis research may have influenced its results. Several studies were excluded from the analysis due to missing data, particularly in older studies, where authors could not be reached. Although the "file drawer problem" has been minimized in the advent of online publishing, there are undoubtedly many unpublished studies that have been omitted. The use of Google and Google Scholar, in addition to traditional academic databases, helped to identified unpublished studies on university sites, research blogs and other open educational resources.

Funding

No funding was received for this research.

ORCID

Michelle M. Rego http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2942-7249
Mark A. Hamilton http://orcid.org/0000-0001-7479-0162

References

Aggarwal, V., & Singh, V. K. (2017). Cause-related marketing in India: Effect of cause involvement on purchase intention. *Technological and managerial strategies for next generation transformation* (pp. 485).

Ajzen, I. (1985). From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In *Action control* (pp. 11–39). Springer.

Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1970). The prediction of behavior from attitudinal and normative variables. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *6*(4), 466–487. https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-1031(70)90057-0

Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior*. Prentice Hall.

Alcañiz, E. B., Cáceres, R. C., & Pérez, R. C. (2010). Alliances between brands and social causes: The influence of company credibility on social responsibility image. *Journal of business ethics,96*(2), 169–186. https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10551-010-0461–x

Anuar, M. M., & Mohamad, O. (2012). Effects of skepticism on consumer response toward cause-related marketing in Malaysia. *International Business Research*, *5*(9), 98. https://doi.org/10.5539/ibr.v5n9p98

Armitage, C. J., & Conner, M. (2001). Efficacy of the theory of planned behaviour: A meta-analytic review. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *40*(4), 471–499. https://doi.org/10.1348/014466601164939

Arora, N., & Henderson, T. (2007). Embedded premium promotion: Why it works and how to make it more effective. *Marketing Science*, *26*(4), 514–531. https://doi.org/10.1287/mksc.1060.0247

Bae, M. (2016). Effects of various types of Cause-related marketing (CRM) ad appeals on consumers' visual attention, perceptions, and purchase intentions. *Journal of Promotion Management*, *22*(6), 810–834. https://doi.org/10.1080/10496491.2016.1214210

Barnes, N. G. (1991). Joint venture marketing: A strategy for the 1990s. *Health Marketing Quarterly*, *9*(1–2), 23–36. https://doi.org/10.1300/J026v09n01_03

Barone, M. J., Norman, A. T., & Miyazaki, A. D. (2007). Consumer response to retailer use of cause-related marketing: Is more fit better? *Journal of Retailing*, *83*(4), 437–445. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jretai.2007.03.006

Basil, D. Z., & Herr, P. M. (2006). Attitudinal balance and cause-related marketing: An empirical application of balance theory. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *16*(4), 391–403. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327663jcp1604_10

Berger, I. E., Cunningham, P. H., & Kozinets, R. V. (1999). Consumer persuasion through cause-related advertising. *ACR North American Advances*.

Bigné-Alcañiz, E., Currás-Pérez, R., Ruiz-Mafé, C., & Sanz-Blas, S. (2012). Cause-related marketing influence on consumer responses: The moderating effect of cause–brand fit. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, *18*(4), 265–283. https://doi.org/10.1080/13527266.2010.521358

Boenigk, S., & Schuchardt, V. (2013). Cause-related marketing campaigns with luxury firms: An experimental study of campaign characteristics, attitudes, and donations. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *18*(2), 101–121. https://doi.org/10.1002/nvsm.1452

Boenigk, S., & Schuchardt, V. (2015). Nonprofit collaboration with luxury brands: Positive and negative effects for cause-related marketing. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly*, *44*(4), 708–733. https://doi.org/10.1177/0899764014551280

Bruhn, M., Schoenmüller, V., Schäfer, D., & Heinrich, D. (2012). Brand Authenticity: Towards a Deeper Understanding of Its Conceptualization and Measurement. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 40567–576.

Bühler, J., Cwierz, N., & Bick, M. (2016, September). The Impact of Social Media on Cause-Related Marketing Campaigns. In *Conference on e-Business, e-Services and e-Society* (pp. 105–119). Springer International Publishing.

Carufel, Richard (2018, July 17). *Teens' views on activism and cause marketing—Why it matters for brands*. Retrieved October 1, 2018, from https://www.agilitypr.com/pr-news/public-relations/teens-views-on-activism-and-cause-marketing-why-it-matters-for-brands/

Card, N. A. (2010). *Applied meta-analysis for social science research*. Guilford Press.

Castellano, O. (2018). *Why 'buycotting' is the new form of political activism: How ethical consumption could make or break your business*. The *ORGE Blog*. Retrieved October 1, 2018, from https://medium.com/@orge/why-buycott-is-the-new-form-of-political-activism-a85a746756e3

Chang, C. (2012). The effectiveness of advertising that leverages sponsorship and cause-related marketing: A contingency model. *International Journal of Advertising*, *31*(2), 317–338.

Chang, C. T. (2012). Missing ingredients in cause-related advertising: The right formula of execution style and cause

framing. *International Journal of Advertising*, *31*(2), 231–256. https://doi.org/10.2501/IJA-31-2-231-256

Chang, C. T., & Cheng, Z. H. (2015). Tugging on heart-strings: Shopping orientation, mindset, and consumer responses to cause-related marketing. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *127*(2), 337–350. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-014-2048-4

Chen, R., Su, S., & He, F. (2013). Does cause congruence affect how different corporate associations influence consumer responses to cause-related marketing? *Australian Journal of Management*, *39*(2), 191–206. https://doi.org/10.1177/0312896213502992

Chéron, E., Kohlbacher, F., & Kusuma, K. (2012). The effects of brand-cause fit and campaign duration on consumer perception of cause-related marketing in Japan. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *29*(5), 357–368. https://doi.org/10.1108/07363761211247479

Chowdhury, T. G., & Khare, A. (2011). Matching a cause with self-schema: The moderating effect on brand preferences. *Psychology & Marketing*, *28*(8), 825–842. https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.20414

Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin*, *112* (1), 155. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.112.1.155

Cone. (2015). *Cone communications Millennial CSR study*. Cone communications. Retrieved January 15, 2017, from http://www.conecomm.com/2015-cone-communications-millennial-csr-study-pdf/

Cooper, H., Hedges, L. V., & Valentine, J. C. (Eds.). (2009). *The handbook of research synthesis and meta-analysis*. Russell Sage Foundation.

Cui, Y., Trent, E. S., Sullivan, P. M., & Matiru, G. N. (2003). Cause-related marketing: How Generation Y responds. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, *31*(6), 310–320. https://doi.org/10.1108/09590550310476012

Das, N., Guha, A., Biswas, A., & Krishnan, B. (2016). How product–cause fit and donation quantifier interact in cause-related marketing (CRM) settings: evidence of the cue congruency effect. *Marketing Letters*, *27*(2), 295–308.

Dickinson, S., & Barker, A. (2007). Evaluations of branding alliances between non-profit and commercial brand partners: The transfer of affect. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *12*(1), 75–89. https://doi.org/10.1002/nvsm.291

Drumwright, M. E. (1996). Company advertising with a social dimension: The role of noneconomic criteria. *The Journal of Marketing*, *60*(4), 71–87. https://doi.org/10.1177/002224299606000407

Edelman. (2021). *2021 Edelman trust barometer, global report. Edelman*.

Ellen, P. S., Webb, D. J., & Mohr, L. A. (2006). Building corporate associations: Consumer attributions for corporate socially responsible programs. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *34*(2), 147–157. https://doi.org/10.1177/0092070305284976

Elving, W. J. (2013). Scepticism and corporate social responsibility communications: The influence of fit and reputation. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, *19*(4), 277–292. https://doi.org/10.1080/13527266.2011.631569

Engelbrecht, M., & Du Plessis, P. J. (2004). The effects of cause-related marketing and cause importance on consumers' attitudes towards products and brands. *Management Dynamics: Journal of the Southern African Institute for Management Scientists*, *13*(4), 2–14.

Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Buchner, A., & Lang, A.-G. (2009). Statistical power analyses using G*Power 3.1: Tests for correlation and regression analyses. *Behavior Research Methods*, *41*(4), 1149–1160. https://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.41.4.1149

Fishbein, M. (1963). An investigation of the relationships between beliefs about an object and the attitude toward that object. *Human Relations*, *16*(3), 233–239. https://doi.org/10.1177/001872676301600302

Folse, J. A. G., Grau, S. L., Moulard, J. G., & Pounders, K. (2014). Cause-related marketing: Factors promoting campaign evaluations. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, *35*(1), 50–70. https://doi.org/10.1080/10641734.2014.866847

Galan-Ladero, M. M., Galera-Casquet, C., Valero-Amaro, V., & Barroso-Mendez, M. J. (2013). Does the product type influence on attitudes toward cause-related marketing? *Economics & Sociology*, *6*(1), 60. https://doi.org/10.14254/2071-789X.2013/6-1/5

García-Jiménez, J. V., Ruiz-de-maya, S., & López-López, I. (2017). *Spanish Journal of Marketing-ESIC*

Gasiorek, A. (2011). The importance of involvement with a cause in a Cause-brand alliance when consumers evaluate fit.

Godin, G., & Kok, G. (1996). The theory of planned behavior: A review of its applications to health-related behaviors. *American Journal of Health Promotion*, *11*(2), 87–98. https://doi.org/10.4278/0890-1171-11.2.87

Goldsmith, R. E., & Yimin, Z. (2014). The influences of brand-consumer and cause-congruence on consumer responses to cause related marketing. *Journal of Applied Marketing Theory*, *5*(2), 74–95.

Grau, S. L., & Folse, J. A. G. (2007). Cause-related marketing (CRM): The influence of donation proximity and message-framing cues on the less-involved consumer. *Journal of Advertising*, *36*(4), 19–33. https://doi.org/10.2753/JOA0091-3367360402

Gupta, S., & Pirsch, J. (2006). The company-cause-customer fit decision in cause-related marketing. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *23*(6), 314–326. https://doi.org/10.1108/07363760610701850

Hadley, K. M. (2016). *Influences on consumer response to cause-related Marketing (CRM): Privately-consumed versus publicly-consumed products*. Anderson University.

Hajjat, M. (2003). Effect of cause-related marketing on attitudes and purchase intentions: The moderating role of cause involvement and donation size. *Journal of Nonprofit and Public Sector Marketing*, *11*(1), 93–109. https://doi.org/10.1300/J054v11n01_07

Ham, S., & Choi, Y. K. (2012). Effect of cause-related marketing for green practices in the hotel industry. *Journal of Global Scholars of Marketing Science*, *22*(3), 249–259. https://doi.org/10.1080/21639159.2012.696338

Hamiln, R. P., & Wilson, T. (2004). The impact of cause branding on consumer reactions to products: Does product/cause 'fit' really matter? *Journal of Marketing Management*, *20*(7–8), 663–681. https://doi.org/10.1362/0267257041838746

Hammad, H., El-Bassiouny, N., Paul, P., & Mukhopadhyay, K. (2014). Antecedents and consequences of consumers'

attitudinal dispositions toward cause-related marketing in Egypt. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, *5*(3), 414–445. https://doi.org/10.1108/JIMA-10-2013-0076

Harben, B. (2009). *Predicting consumers' cause-brand alliance attitude and purchase intention: The influence of cause involvement, message source, perceived motivations, and cause-brand fit* [Doctoral dissertation]. ProQuest database.

Hayes, A. F., & Krippendorff, K. (2007). Answering the call for a standard reliability measure for coding data. *Communication methods and measures*, *1*(1), 77–89.

He, H., Zhu, W., Gouran, D., & Kolo, O. (2015). Moral identity centrality and cause-related marketing: The moderating effects of brand social responsibility image and emotional brand attachment. *European Journal of Marketing*, *50*(1/2), 236–259. https://doi.org/10.1108/EJM-10-2014-0613

Hessekiel, D. (2018, April, 18). Four Cause Marketing Classics Passed Last Year – And A New Era Began, Forbes online. Retrived on October 1, 2018 from https://www.forbes.com/sites/davidhessekiel/2017/04/18/four-cause-marketing-classics-passed-last-year-and-a-new-era-began/#1cd8d1e47e8d

Hou, J., Du, L., & Li, J. (2008). Cause's attributes influencing consumer's purchasing intention: Empirical evidence from China. *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, *20*(4), 363–380. https://doi.org/10.1108/13555850810909704

Huedo-Medina, T. B., Sánchez-Meca, J., Martín-Martínez, F., & Botella, J. (2006). Assessing heterogeneity in meta-analysis: Q statistic or I^2 index? *Psychological Methods*, *11*(2), 193–206. https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.11.2.193

Hunter, J. E., & Hamilton, M. A. (2002). *PATH* (Version 6.0)

Hunter, J. E., Hamilton, M. A., & Allen, M. (1989). The design and analysis of language experiments in communication. *Communications Monographs*, *56*(4), 341–363. https://doi.org/10.1080/03637758909390269

Hyllegard, K. H., Paff Ogle, J., Yan, R. N., & Attmann, J. (2010). Exploring Gen Y responses to an apparel brand's use of cause-related marketing does message matter when it comes to support for the breast cancer cause? *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, *28*(1), 19–34. https://doi.org/10.1177/0887302X09342465

Hyllegard, K. H., Yan, R. N., Ogle, J. P., & Attmann, J. (2010). The influence of gender, social cause, charitable support, and message appeal on Gen Y's responses to cause-related marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management*, *27*(1–2), 100–123. https://doi.org/10.1080/02672571003683755

IEG. (2016). *What sponsors want and where dollars will go in 2016* (IEG Sponsorship Report). Retrieved January 1, 2017, from http://www.sponsorship.com/IEGSR/2016/01/05/As-Sponsorship-Borders-Fall,Spending-Rises.aspx

Ilicic, J., & Webster, C. M. (2014). Investigating consumer-brand relational authenticity. *Journal of Brand Management*, *21*(4), 342–363. https://doi.org/10.1057/bm.2014.11

Jak, S. (2015). *Meta-analytic structural equation modelling*. Springer International Publishing.

Kerr, A. H., & Das, N. (2013). Thinking about fit and donation format in cause marketing: The effects of need for cognition. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *21*(1), 103–112. https://doi.org/10.2753/MTP1069-6679210107

Kim, J. (2014). The roles of cause involvement and cause acts in a social marketing campaign. *Journal of Global Scholars of Marketing Science*, *24*(4), 426–440. https://doi.org/10.1080/21639159.2014.949032

Kim, J. E., & Johnson, K. K. (2013). The impact of moral emotions on cause-related marketing campaigns: A cross-cultural examination. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *112*(1), 79–90. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1233-6

Kim, K., Cheong, Y., & Lim, J. S. (2015). Choosing the right message for the right cause in social cause advertising: Type of social cause message, perceived company–cause fit and the persuasiveness of communication. *International Journal of Advertising*, *34*(3), 473–494. https://doi.org/10.1080/02650487.2015.1006081

Kleber, J., Florack, A., & Chladek, A. (2016). How to present donations: The moderating role of numeracy in cause-related marketing. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *33*(3), 153–161. https://doi.org/10.1108/JCM-12-2014-1240

Koschate-Fischer, N., Stefan, I. V., & Hoyer, W. D. (2012). Willingness to pay for cause-related marketing: The impact of donation amount and moderating effects. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *49*(6), 910–927. https://doi.org/10.1509/jmr.10.0511

Krippendorff, K. (2004). Reliability in content analysis. *Human Communication Research*, *30*(3), 411–433.

Krippendorff, K. (2008). Systematic and random disagreement and the reliability of nominal data. *Communication Methods and Measures*, *2*(4), 323–338. https://doi.org/10.1080/19312450802467134

Krippendorff, K. (2011). Agreement and information in the reliability of coding. *Communication Methods and Measures*, *5*(2), 93–112. https://doi.org/10.1080/19312458.2011.568376

Kropp, F., Holden, S. S., & Lavack, A. M. (1999). Cause-related marketing and values in Australia. *International Journal of Nonprofit & Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *4*(1), 69–80. https://doi.org/10.1002/nvsm.57

Kull, A. J., & Heath, T. B. (2016). You decide, we donate: Strengthening consumer–brand relationships through digitally co-created social responsibility. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, *33*(1), 78–92. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijresmar.2015.04.005

Lafferty, B. A. (2009). Selecting the right cause partners for the right reasons: The role of importance and fit in cause-brand alliances. *Psychology & Marketing*, *26*(4), 359–382. https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.20277

Lafferty, B. A., & Edmondson, D. R. (2009). Portraying the cause instead of the brand in cause-related marketing ads: Does it really matter? *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *17*(2), 129–144. https://doi.org/10.2753/MTP1069-6679170203

Lafferty, B. A., Goldsmith, R. E., & Hult, G. T. M. (2004). The impact of the alliance on the partners: A look at cause-brand alliances. *Psychology & Marketing*, *21*(7), 509. https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.20017

Lafferty, B. A., Lueth, A. K., & McCafferty, R. (2016). An evolutionary process model of cause-related marketing and systematic review of the empirical literature. *Psychology & Marketing*, *33*(11), 951–970. https://doi.org/10.1002/mar.20930

Landreth, S. (2002). For a good cause: The effects of cause important, cause proximity, congruency and participation

effort on consumers' evaluation of cause related marketing. *Dissertation*.

Lipsey, M. W., & Wilson, D. B. (2001). *Practical meta-analysis*. SAGE publications, Inc.

Manuel, E., Youn, S., & Yoon, D. (2014). Functional matching effect in CRM: Moderating roles of perceived message quality and skepticism. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, *20*(6), 397–418.

Marks, S. (2017, February. 22). *Cause marketing: What you can learn from companies who are doing it right*. Retrieved October 1, 2018, from https://www.business.com/articles/cause-marketing-lessons-from-companies-who-are-doing-it-right/

McEachan, R. R. C., Conner, M., Taylor, N. J., & Lawton, R. J. (2011). Prospective prediction of health-related behaviours with the theory of planned behaviour: A meta-analysis. *Health Psychology Review*, *5*(2), 97–144. https://doi.org/10.1080/17437199.2010.521684

Melero, I., & Montaner, T. (2016). Cause-related marketing: An experimental study about how the product type and the perceived fit may influence the consumer response. *European Journal of Management and Business Economics*, *25*(3), 161–167.

Mintel. (2015, February). *Marketing to Millennials – US*. Retrieved December 5, 2016, from http://reports.mintel.com/display/716482/?__cc=1#

Mizerski, D., Mizerski, K., & Sadler, O. (2002). A field experiment comparing the effectiveness of "ambush" and cause related ad appeals for social marketing causes. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, *9*(4), 25–45. https://doi.org/10.1300/J054v09n04_04

Moher, D., Liberati, A., Tetzlaff, J., & Altman, D. G. (2009). Preferred reporting items for systematic reviews and meta-analyses: The PRISMA statement. *Annals of Internal Medicine*, *151*(4), 264–269. https://doi.org/10.7326/0003–4819-151-4-200908180-00135

Mohr, L. A., Erog˘lu, D., & Ellen, P. S. (1998). The development and testing of a measure of skepticism toward environmental claims in marketers' communications. *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*, *32*(2), 30–55. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-6606.1998.tb00399.x

Moosmayer, D. C., & Fuljahn, A. (2010). Consumer perceptions of cause related marketing campaigns. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *27*(6), 543–549. https://doi.org/10.1108/07363761011078280

Morhart, F., Malär, L., Guèvremont, A., Girardin, F., & Grohmann, B. (2015). Brand authenticity: An integrative framework and measurement scale. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *25*(2), 200–218. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcps.2014.11.006

Myers, B., & Kwon, W. S. (2013). A model of antecedents of consumers' post brand attitude upon exposure to a cause–brand alliance. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *18*(2), 73–89. https://doi.org/10.1002/nvsm.1439

Myers, B., Kwon, W. S., & Forsythe, S. (2013). Creating successful cause–brand alliances: The role of cause involvement, perceived brand motivations and cause–brand alliance attitude. *Journal of Brand Management*, *20*(3), 205–217. https://doi.org/10.1057/bm.2012.34

Nan, X., & Heo, K. (2007). Consumer responses to corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives: Examining the role of brand–cause fit in cause-related marketing. *Journal of Advertising*, *36*(2), 63–74. https://doi.org/10.2753/JOA0091-3367360204

Natarajan, T., Balasubramaniam, S. A., & Jublee, D. I. (2016). A journey of cause related marketing from 1988 to 2016. *International Journal of Business and Management*, *11*(11), 247. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v11n11p247

Nawaz, J., Campus, C., Ali, M. Z., Wahab, A., Walayat, A., Khan, M. U., & Meer, A. (2016, December 19–20). A cause's attributes influencing consumer's purchase intention: The intervening role of income level. *2nd International Multi-Discpline Conference*.

Nelson, M. R., & Vilela, A. M. (2014). Now Starring Brand X: Product Placement as a Local, Global, and Glocal Branding Communication Tool. *The Handbook of International Advertising Research*, 510–528.

Newman, G. E., & Dhar, R. (2014). Authenticity is contagious: Brand essence and the original source of production. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *51*(3), 371–386.

Nielsen, (2013). Nielsen Global Consumers Who Care. *Nielsen IQ*. Retrieved October 14, 2016 from http://www.nielsen.com/us/en/insights/reports/2013/consumers-who-care.html

Nielsen Global, Survey of Corporate Social Responsibility, (March, 2014). *Nielsen IQ*. Retrieved from https://www.nielsen.com/eu/en/insights/article/2015/socially-minded-the-causes-men-and-women-value/

Obermiller, C., & Spangenberg, E. R. (1998). Development of a scale to measure consumer scepticism toward advertising. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *7*(2), 159–186. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327663jcp0702_03

Olsen, G. D., Pracejus, J. W., & Brown, N. R. (2003). When profit equals price: Consumer confusion about donation amounts in cause-related marketing. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, *22*(2), 170–180.

Paek, H. J., Hove, T., Jung, Y., & Cole, R. T. (2013). Engagement across three social media platforms: An exploratory study of a cause-related PR campaign. *Public Relations Review*, *39*(5), 526–533.

Patel, J. D., Gadhavi, D. D., & Shukla, Y. S. (2016). Consumers' responses to cause related marketing: Moderating influence of cause involvement and skepticism on attitude and purchase intention. *International Review on Public and Nonprofit Marketing*, *14*(1), 1–18).

Peloza, J., & Shang, J. (2011). How can corporate social responsibility activities create value for stakeholders? A systematic review. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *39*(1), 117–135. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11747-010-0213-6

Pirsch, J., Gupta, S., & Grau, S. L. (2007). A framework for understanding corporate social responsibility programs as a continuum: An exploratory study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *70*(2), 125–140. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-006-9100-y

Pixability. (2017, June). *Pixability's proprietary software harvests data from these channels through the YouTube Insights API. Top brands defined by Interbrand's 2016 list of top 100 global brands*. Retrieved October 1, 2018, from https://www.thinkwithgoogle.com/advertising-channels/video/cause-related-marketing-purpose-driven-ads/

Pracejus, J. W., & Olsen, G. D. (2004). The role of brand/cause fit in the effectiveness of cause-related marketing campaigns. *Journal of Business Research*, *57*(6), 635–640. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0148-2963(02)00306-5

Preiss, R. W. (Ed.). (2007). *Mass media effects research: Advances through meta-analysis*. Psychology Press.

Rego, M. M., Hamilton, M. A., & Rogers, D. (2020). Measuring the impact of cause-related marketing: A meta-analysis of nonprofit and for-profit alliance campaigns. *Journal of Nonprofit & Public Sector Marketing*, 1–23. https://doi.org/10.1080/10495142.2020.1726253

Rivis, A., & Sheeran, P. (2003). Descriptive norms as an additional predictor in the theory of planned behaviour: A meta-analysis. *Current Psychology*, *22*(3), 218–233. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-003-1018-2

Robinson, S. R., Irmak, C., & Jayachandran, S. (2012). Choice of cause in cause-related marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, *76*(4), 126–139. https://doi.org/10.1509/jm.09.0589

Ross, J. K., Patterson, L. T., & Stutts, M. A. (1992). Consumer perceptions of organizations that use cause-related marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *20*(1), 93–97. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02723480

Roy, D. P. (2010). The impact of congruence in cause marketing campaigns for service firms. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *24*(3), 255–263. https://doi.org/10.1108/08876041011040659

Rubin, D. B. (1990). Formal mode of statistical inference for causal effects. *Journal of Statistical Planning and Inference*, *25*(3), 279–292. https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-3758(90)90077-8

Sabir, I., Aziz, S., Mannan, A., Bahadur, W., Farooq, R., & Akhtar, N. (2014). Cause'Attributes and consumers' purchase intention: Empirical evidence from telecommunication sector of Pakistan. *International Review of Management and Business Research*, *3*(1), 364–375.

Salazar, K. (2013). *Cause-related marketing and Mexican Americans in the United States* [Doctoral dissertation]. Walden University.

Samu, S., & Wymer, W. (2009). The effect of fit and dominance in cause marketing communications. *Journal of Business Research*, *62*(4), 432–440. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.01.039

Schallehn, M., Burmann, C., & Riley, N. (2014). Brand authenticity: Model development and empirical testing. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *23*(3), 192–199. https://doi.org/10.1108/JPBM-06-2013-0339

Schmidt, F. L., & Hunter, J. E. (2014). *Methods of meta-analysis: Correcting error and bias in research findings*. Sage publications.

Sen, S., & Bhattacharya, C. B. (2001). Does doing good always lead to doing better? Consumer reactions to corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *38*(2), 225–243. https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkr.38.2.225.18838

Shabbir, S., Kaufmann, H. R., Ahmad, I., & Qureshi, I. M. (2010). Cause related marketing campaigns and consumer purchase intentions: The mediating role of brand awareness and corporate image. *African Journal of Business Management*, *4*(6), 1229.

Simmons, C. J., & Becker-Olsen, K. L. (2006). Achieving marketing objectives through social sponsorships. *Journal of Marketing,70*(4), 154–169. https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.70.4.154

Singh, D. (2014). A quasi-experimental study to assess the impact of cause-related marketing on brand attitude and purchase intention. *International Journal of Retailing & Rural Business Perspectives*, *3*(3), 1116–1124.

Social impact statistics you should know. (2017). Engage for Good. Retrieved October 1, 2018, from https://engageforgood.com/guides/statistics-every-cause-marketer-should-know/

Sohn, Y., Han, J., & Lee, S. (2012). Communication strategies for enhancing perceived fit in the CSR sponsorship context. *International Journal of Advertising*, *31*(1), 133–146. https://doi.org/10.2501/IJA-31-1-133-146 .

Steckstor, D. (2012). *The effects of cause-related marketing on customers' attitudes and buying behavior*. Gabler Verlag.

Strand, Megan. (2017). *2017 report, America's charity checkout champions*. *Engage for Good* Retrieved August 1, 2017, from http://engageforgood.com/ccc2017/

Subrahmanyan, S. (2004). Effects of price premium and product type on the choice of cause-related brands: A Singapore perspective. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, *13*(2), 116–124. https://doi.org/10.1108/10610420410529744

Thamaraiselvan, N., Arasu, B. S., & Inbaraj, J. D. (2017). Role of celebrity in cause related marketing. *International Review on Public and Nonprofit Marketing*, *14*(3), 341–357. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12208-017-0176-0

Trimble, C. S., & Rifon, N. J. (2006). Consumer perceptions of compatibility in cause-related marketing messages. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *11*(1), 29–47. https://doi.org/10.1002/nvsm.42

Varadarajan, P. R., & Menon, A. (1988). Cause-related marketing: A coalignment of marketing strategy and corporate philanthropy. *Journal of Marketing*, *52*(3), 58–74. https://doi.org/10.1177/002224298805200306

Vilela, A. M., & Nelson, M. R. (2016). Testing the selectivity hypothesis in cause-related marketing among Generation Y: When does gender matter for short-and long-term persuasion? *Journal of Marketing Communications*, *22*(1), 18–35. https://doi.org/10.1080/13527266.2013.841272

Wang, Y. (2014). Individualism/collectivism, charitable giving, and cause-related marketing: A comparison of Chinese and Americans. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *19*(1), 40–51. https://doi.org/10.1002/nvsm.1486

Webb, D. J., & Mohr, L. A. (1998). A typology of consumer responses to cause-related marketing: From skeptics to socially concerned. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, *17*(2), 226–238. https://doi.org/10.1177/074391569801700207

Weber/Shandwick. (2016). *Battle of the wallets: The changing landscape of consumer activism*. Retrieved October 1, 2018, from https://www.webershandwick.com/news/battle-of-the-wallets-the-changing-landscape-of-consumer-activism/

Westberg, K., & Pope, N. (2005). An examination of cause-related marketing in the context of brand attitude, purchase intention, perceived fit and personal values. *Proceedings of the ANZMAC 2005 Conference: Social, Not-For-Profit and Political Marketing* (pp. 222–230).

Westberg, K., & Pope, N. (2014). Building brand equity with cause-related marketing: A comparison with sponsorship and sales promotion. *Journal of Marketing Communications*, *20*(6), 419–437. https://doi.org/10.1080/13527266.2012.723025

Wymer, W., & Samu, S. (2009). The influence of cause marketing associations on product and cause brand value. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, *14*(1), 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1002/nvsm.348

Youn, S., & Kim, H. (2008). Antecedents of consumer attitudes toward cause-related marketing. *Journal of Advertising Research*, *48*(1), 123–137.

Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1985). Measuring the involvement construct. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *12*(3), 341–352. https://doi.org/10.1086/208520

Zdravkovic, S., Magnusson, P., & Stanley, S. M. (2010). Dimensions of fit between a brand and a social cause and their influence on attitudes. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, *27*(2), 151–160. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijresmar.2010.01.005