Near or far : psychological distance construal and its role in ethical
NEAR OR FAR: PSYCHOLOGICAL DISTANCE CONSTRUAL AND ITS ROLE IN ETHICAL CONSUMPTION

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Abstract

A focus group and experiment were conducted to test the effects of psychological distance on participant affect, intentions, and behaviours in the realm of ethical consumption. Construal Level Theory (Liberman and Trope, 1998) posits that psychologically-near concepts are viewed differently than their psychologically-far counterparts, and this framework was used to guide the development of predictions relating to four dimensions of distance: temporal, spatial, social, and hypothetical. The study revealed that participants exhibit significantly higher levels of affect and intention when presented stimuli involve psychologically near impacts rather than psychologically-far impacts. This finding did not carry over into actual behaviour, however. Subject disposition toward psychological distance was measured but was found to not impact affect, intentions, or behaviour. Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (Kinnear, Taylor, & Ahmed, 1974) was found to be an important predictor of behaviour.
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Introduction

As consumer culture proliferated in Western societies during the latter half of the 20th century, a curious subgroup began emerging: the ethical consumer. Not content with consuming merely for the sake of it, these people sought to make purchasing decisions reflective of their value systems. Variously described in the literature as “socially-conscious consumers” (Anderson & Cunningham, 1972), “ecologically-concerned consumers” (Kinnear, Taylor, & Ahmed, 1974), and “socially-responsible consumers” (Antil, 1984), these groups tend to rally around a handful of prominent issues, including environmental protections, fair trade, organic foods, and working conditions (Bray, Johns, & Kilburn, 2011). In recent years, “ethical consumers” seems to have become the umbrella moniker of choice (Auger & Devinney, 2007; Carrigan & Attalla, 2001; De Pelsmacker, Driesen, & Rayp, 2005; Freestone & McGoldrick, 2008; Newholm & Shaw, 2007), so it is the term that will be used in this paper. While ethical consumers have varying motivations and are not always easily identified, they share a concern for exercising their ethical values through purchase behaviour, so using a single term for the purposes of reference is appropriate in these circumstances.

The existence of an attitude-behaviour gap is well-established in ethical consumer literature – that is, participants’ self-described attitudes and values in this realm are often not reflected in actual purchase behaviour (Auger & Devinney, 2007; Boulstridge & Carrigan, 2000). Several possible reasons for this gap have been suggested, including consumer cynicism (Bray et al., 2011; Carrigan & Attalla, 2001), higher price points (Boulstridge & Carrigan, 2000; Bray et al., 2011; Roberts, 1996), lack of information
(Bray et al., 2011; Carrigan & Attalla, 2001), and methodological issues in existing studies (Auger & Devinney, 2007).

Another factor that may contribute to the attitude-behaviour gap involves the way in which consumers construe the impact of their ethical purchases and behaviours. As discovered by Liberman and Trope (1998), concepts are construed differently depending on how psychologically distant the concept is from a given person. That is, people view psychologically near concepts differently than psychologically distant concepts. Trope and Liberman (2003) identified four dimensions of psychological distance – concepts can be psychologically separated from people by time (temporal dimension), space (spatial dimension) social constructs (social dimension), or probability (hypothetical dimension).

Temporal distance has likely been the most widely-researched of the dimensions – within this dimension, concepts may exist at greater temporal distances (far into the future or the past) or lesser temporal distances (closer to the current time), and people view these concepts in different ways, respectively. Trope and Liberman (2003) discovered that subjects viewed temporally distant events in terms of higher-level, abstract features, while temporally near events were viewed in terms of lower-level, concrete features. Applying temporal construal to the study of health risk judgements, Chandran and Menon (2004) found that risk messaging framed in daily terms resulted in greater self-risk perceptions and greater behavioural intentions than risk messaging framed in yearly terms.

The spatial distance dimension involves degrees of physical geographic distance – concepts and ideas can exist at relatively greater spatial distances (on the opposite side of
the world) or lesser spatial distances (inside your home), and these concepts are also viewed in different ways. Fujita, Henderson, Eng, Trope and Liberman (2006) found that subjects describing spatially distant events used more abstract, high-level descriptions than when describing spatially near events. Henderson, Fujita, Trope and Liberman (2006) further examined the effects of spatial distance on judgements, finding that spatially-distant behaviours were structured into fewer, broader categories than were spatially-near behaviours, which were structured in more, narrower categories.

Social distance involves degrees of separation between people in differing social spheres or conditions – concepts may exist at a relatively great social distance (involving someone of a different ethnicity, religion, and socioeconomic background, for example) or lesser social distance (involving someone of the same demographic and circle of colleagues) from a subject. As with the other dimensions, concepts can be viewed differently depending on the degree of distance. Liviatan, Trope and Liberman (2008) found that subjects described similar (socially near) people in more concrete, means-related terms, rather than more abstract, ends-related terms.

Finally, hypothetical distance deals with questions of probability – concepts can exist at greater hypothetical distances (those relating to lower likelihoods) or lesser hypothetical distances (those relating to higher likelihoods), and people view concepts differently depending on degrees of distance. Wakslak, Trope, Liberman and Alony (2006) found that subjects viewed low-probability events according to more abstract, general features, while high-probability events were viewed according to more concrete, specific features.
In addition to conceptual explorations of the four different construal dimensions, some researchers have examined construal more generally in the context of ethical consumption – White, MacDonnell, and Dahl (2011) investigated the effects of loss vs. gain message framing and high vs. low-level construal mindsets on consumer efficacy and intention to recycle, finding that loss-related frames were more effective when paired with low-level mindsets, while gain-related frames were more effective when paired with high-level mindsets. These pairings also led to increased efficacy and greater behavioural intentions.

The four dimensions of psychological distance have seldom been considered according to their relationship to the field of marketing and ethical consumption, or in terms of consumer preference or behavioural intention. In the context of ethical consumption, making an ethical purchase or engaging in an ethical consumer behaviour can have a positive impact in many different ways relating to psychological distance – considering the spatial dimension, for example, a North American purchasing Fair Trade coffee grown in Africa may envision their action improving the lives of people in a distant land, while a purchase at a local farmer’s market may be seen to have an impact much closer to home. Some people are less comfortable with higher degrees of psychological distance than others, and these consumers may prefer to engage in behaviours that have psychologically close impacts. Those more comfortable with psychological distance may prefer to engage in behaviours that have psychologically distant impacts. If the only ethical consumer behaviours available involve (or are believed to involve) impacts that clash dramatically with a consumer’s disposition toward psychological distance, perhaps they will simply refrain altogether from engaging
in the behaviour, despite having a generally positive attitude toward ethical consumption as a whole.

While there has been some amount of research into various aspects of ethical consumerism, the field remains generally under-researched (Shaw, Grehan, Shiu, Hassan, & Thomson, 2005), and some of the current research is limited by narrow focus or methodological issues. Several potential avenues of inquiry remain, and further exploration of the gap between attitudes and behaviours may help facilitate a bridging of sorts, whereby would-be ethical consumers could be better persuaded to take that extra step and follow through on their purported beliefs with action in the consumer realm. A better understanding of the role played by psychological distance construal may assist in bridging the attitude-behaviour gap and may provide greater insight into how message framing impacts ethical consumption decisions. The goal of the current research is to examine ethical consumption decisions and the attitude-behaviour gap within the context of psychological distance construal and message framing.
Defining and segmenting the ethical consumer

Research into ethical consumerism began to come into its own in the 1970s with the advent of the U.S. energy crisis. As energy prices skyrocketed and environmental issues came to prominence in the media, marketers were faced with a new type of consumer – one that took environmental impacts into consideration when making purchase decisions (Anderson & Cunningham, 1972; Strong, 1996). It was not apparent how much of this behaviour was attributable to ethical concerns and how much to frugality, and researchers began investigating this developing consumer group. Accordingly, much of the research on the topic conducted in the 1970s and 80s focused on the environmental aspects of ethical consumption, such as gasoline usage (Kassarjian, 1971) and recycling behaviours (Webster, 1975), with several articles seeking to clarify the demographic and psychographic nature of these consumers (Anderson & Cunningham, 1972; Antil, 1984; Kinnear et al., 1974; Webster, 1975). Since that time, other major topics of research have included the influence of situational factors on ethical purchase decisions (Megicks, Memery, & Williams, 2008), consumer willingness to pay for ethical products (Auger, Burke, Devinney, & Louveire, 2003; De Pelsmacker et al., 2005), and increasingly, potential barriers to ethical consumer behaviour (Bray et al., 2011; Carrigan & Attalla, 2001).

Owing to the relative novelty of the subject, most of the early research into ethical consumerism was relatively pragmatic in nature – researchers were concerned with developing demographic and/or psychographic profiles of these consumers that would best allow for marketing segmentation and targeting. As the field expanded, researchers
began attempting to describe the dynamics of the situations and stages in which ethics come into play.

**Situations and Stages**

While much of the early research on ethical consumerism focused on identification, some recent work has been conducted in an effort to discern the situations in which ethical considerations will be most prevalent.

In an effort to determine the effect of price on ethical consumption considerations, De Pelsmacker et al. (2005) investigated consumer willingness to pay extra for Fair Trade coffee. Given the results of past studies and the existence of an attitude-behaviour gap among ethical consumers, they suggested that measuring explicit attitudes is of little use, and that participants should be exposed to measures that more accurately mirror actual purchasing decisions. Using a multi-attribute purchase situation experiment, the authors showed that respondents were willing to pay an average of 10 per cent more for Fair Trade-labelled coffee.

Shopping situations have also been shown to affect ethical consumption choices. Megicks et al. (2008) examined the impacts of different grocery shopping occasions (whether the trip was used as a quick way to “top-up” food stocks, or as a “main” trip, with the two differing in terms of frequency and timing) on ethical purchasing decisions. In top-up situations, participants were found to be less discriminating in their purchases and less concerned with ethics, particularly in relation to global as opposed to local issues.
These studies have shown there are many ways in which ethical consumers and their purchases can be understood and categorized, whether by demographics, psychographics, or situational factors. As understanding of ethical consumers increased, researchers began taking notice of a curious phenomenon in the ethical consumerism realm - a gap between ethical attitudes and behaviours – and over the past 20 years, several researchers have attempted to uncover potential explanations for this phenomenon.
The attitude-behaviour gap

While it is important to understand the values and initial motivations of ethical consumers from a purely academic point of view, research has limited applicability if these consumers don’t follow through on their purported attitudes and make ethical consumption choices when it comes time to purchase goods and services. According to market research by Cowe and Williams (2000), about 30 per cent of U.K. residents identify themselves as “ethical consumers”, yet Fair Trade and other ethical products enjoy a market share in the range of 1-3 per cent. This gap between attitudes and behaviours has been discussed in the literature in various contexts, and several possible explanations have been offered.

Cynicism

Several researchers have uncovered evidence that consumers are wary of the ethical claims made by corporations. Bray et al. (2011) found that some participants cynically viewed these ethical claims as simply another marketing ploy. A lack of ability to discern good firms from bad led participants in Carrigan and Attalla (2001) to paint most firms with the same unethical brush. And in Castaldo, Perrini, Misani, and Tencati (2009), trust in a firm’s reputation was shown to be an important factor in determining purchasing intentions. While it seems likely that some firms have jumped on the ethical bandwagon in recent years and are exploiting it solely as a marketing opportunity, there are undoubtedly several others taking a more legitimate approach. It is perhaps not surprising that consumers have adopted cynical attitudes toward corporate attempts at ethical improvement, and this represents a major impediment to ethical consumption.
Price

Throughout the research, price was found to be one of the most important determinants of purchase intentions. Ethical products are often priced higher than their counterparts, and while some research has shown that consumers are willing to pay higher prices for ethical products (Auger et al., 2003; De Pelsmacker et al., 2005), others have cited higher prices as a potential deterrent (Boulstridge & Carrigan, 2000; Bray et al., 2011). De Pelsmacker et al. (2005) concluded that consumers are willing to pay as much as 10 per cent extra for Fair Trade coffee, and choice experiments by Auger et al. (2003) demonstrated a willingness to pay more for soap products not tested on animals and shoes not manufactured with child labour. It may be that while some consumers genuinely care about the ethics of their purchase decisions and are willing to pay a premium for ethical products or services, this premium is simply too high for these consumers to bear.

Quality

In a similar vein, consumers have said they are not willing to sacrifice product quality, value, or features for ethical attributes (Auger et al., 2003; Bray et al., 2011). Whether this is actually a legitimate trade-off is not relevant – there seems to be a belief among some consumers that ethical products are of lower quality, and this is acting as a deterrent to the purchase of these goods.
Information

Information may play different roles in perpetuating a gap between attitudes and behaviour. A lack of information about ethical products may dissuade otherwise-ethical consumers from taking action (Bray et al., 2011), though other studies found that additional information would not result in increased ethical purchase intentions, particularly in light of perceived cost increases associated with ethical products (Boulstridge & Carrigan, 2000). This contradiction may arise from the fact that focus group participants in the two studies were considering somewhat different concepts – those in Boulstridge and Carrigan (2000) focused on their knowledge of corporate behaviour, while those in Bray et al. (2011) focused more broadly on their knowledge of ethical products and their potential impacts in addition to corporate practices. Perhaps additional information regarding the products or their impacts would result in increased behavioural intentions, while additional information regarding corporate behaviour would not. Information overload may also play a role, with an excess of information rendering consumers unable to discern how to exercise their options (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001). In general, consumers seem to feel more confident about avoiding unethical products than about proactively seeking out ethical products (Bray et al., 2011), which is consistent with research showing that negative information weighs more heavily on the mind than positive information (Skowronski & Carlston, 1989).

Perceived Consumer Effectiveness

It has been well established in the literature that PCE is one of the most important predictors of ethical purchase intentions and behaviours (Berger & Corbin, 1992; Ellen et
al., 1991; Lee & Holden, 1999). Since its introduction by Kinnear et al. (1974), PCE has arisen time and again as a major factor in bridging the gap between intention and behaviour, and for good reason – purchasers of ethical products are making decisions at least partially based on the expected impact their purchase will have, so it follows that they should feel confident that the purchase in question will actually have the expected impact before they will commit to a purchase. Conversely, it follows that a lack of perceived efficacy may prevent ethical people from making ethical purchasing decisions. In some cases, low levels of PCE may in fact result from the types of cynicism discussed by Bray et al. (2011) – consumers may feel that while it is possible for an individual to make an impact on matters of personal ethical importance, consumer culture does not provide a reliable avenue to do so, as firms may simply play at ethical production as a marketing ploy. Elsewhere, consumers may feel that the types of ethical concerns they hold cannot be satisfactorily addressed through any individual effort of their own.

Previous Research Methodology

Almost all of the research relating to ethical consumerism has measured attitudes, values, or behavioural intentions, with relatively little consideration of actual behaviours. In response to this, several researchers have raised concerns over Social Desirability Bias, a phenomenon which occurs when research participants respond to questions in the way they believe to be most socially acceptable, rather than responding in the most truthful manner (Fisher, 1993). This can result in skewed survey results that aren’t necessarily representative of actual values or intentions, and could help explain the attitude-behaviour gap. Research into ethical consumerism may be especially vulnerable to this type of bias, and Auger and Devinney (2007) have called for greater utilization of forced
choice experiments, direct observation, and other methods that allow for measurement of actual choice. In an effort to address this problem, Auger and Devinney (2007) created a structured choice experiment whereby participants were made to indicate which of a series of products they would purchase, with each product possessing different attributes. This allowed the researchers to determine the relative value of different attributes, and these values were then compared with the results of a survey measuring ethical disposition. The study generated conflicting results, with several unexpected correlations between disposition and product choice – participants who were most concerned with minimum wage regulations, for example, were willing to pay more for environmentally-friendly products, but were not willing to pay more for products where worker minimum wage had been assured. The authors concluded that when reporting the importance of various ethical product dimensions, many participants simply selected most or all of the dimensions available without honestly thinking through the items. Subjects’ true feelings were later exposed when they were asked questions related to their willingness to pay for certain attributes, and this resulted in conflicting correlations between reported dispositions and willingness to pay. Auger and Devinney (2007) concluded that traditional surveys are inherently vulnerable to Social Desirability Bias and are generally not accurate predictors of intentions or behaviour in this realm.
Criticisms and limitations of existing research

While research into ethical consumerism has generally increased in quality in recent years, the body of literature is subject to several criticisms and limitations.

The first major issue that can be identified with the research done thus far is that there simply isn’t enough of it (Newholm & Shaw, 2007). While the topic of ethical consumerism seems to have enjoyed increased attention over the past several years, it remains generally under-researched, and several potential avenues of inquiry remain.

Much of the research that has been conducted may suffer from the types of limitations outlined by Auger and Devinney (2007). Social Desirability Bias remains a constant concern – fortunately, several researchers seem to have taken this into account, whether through a qualitative approach allowing for greater insight (Bray et al. 2011, Carrigan & Attalla, 2001) or through measures intended to control for this bias (Bray et al., 2011; Ellen et al., 1991; Pepper et al., 2009). That said, other methodological issues remain, including a lack of rigor in much of the qualitative research conducted. Neither Boulstridge and Carrigan (2000) nor Carrigan and Attalla (2001) included triangulation or third-party coding measures when collecting and processing their data. In fact, both studies were quite vague in their methodological descriptions, leaving several questions as to the veracity of their methods. Carrigan and Attala (2001) made generalizations that exceeded the scope of their study, including the suggestion that “consumers are unwilling to undergo any extra inconvenience in order to purchase ethically. . .” (p. 570). Bray et al. (2011), on the other hand, employed pilot testing and other controls to ensure validity issues were addressed.
A few studies have undertaken the kind of choice-based approach advocated by Auger and Devinney (2007), among them Auger et al. (2003) and De Pelsmacker et al. (2005), both of which employed effective methods of measuring actual purchase intentions. In Auger and Devinney (2007), participants were exposed to and asked to indicate purchase intentions for 32 product profiles (featuring either soap or athletic shoes, depending on the group to which they were assigned) with either 14 (soap) or 16 (athletic shoes) differing attributes. It is possible that some degree of fatigue or confusion could have come into play as participants worked their way through these product profiles. This may partially explain some of the nonsensical correlations found – for example, people who professed to be concerned with minimum wage seemed to care more about environmental issues than wages in their product selection. Perhaps participants’ seemingly contradictory responses on the experimental and survey response portions are the result of fatigue as much as SDB. Either way, it speaks to the difficulties inherent in using this kind of instrument to predict actual behaviour, and Auger and Devinney (2007) raise an important point about the need for measures that more accurately mirror real-life purchase behaviours. The use of choice experiments and mixed methods designs in this field are steps in the right direction.

Other criticisms of the ethical consumption literature involve focus – only in the last 10 years has research ventured away from a concentration on environmental issues to include other aspects, like Fair Trade, and the field will benefit from further expansion in this area.
Current Conclusions and Future Research

In general, people are not willing to sacrifice quality or value for ethical attributes, and while it seems some are willing to pay extra, there are limits to this willingness. Negative ethical attributes are more salient than positive ones, resulting in consumers being more likely to avoid purchasing products perceived as ethically questionable than proactively seek products with positive ethical backgrounds.

Throughout the literature, Perceived Consumer Effectiveness has proven an important predictor of behaviour. If the marketing of ethical products is to be effective, consumers should be convinced of a firm’s (and its accompanying products’) positive ethical attributes, and just as importantly, should be made to feel as though their purchase behaviour can make a real difference on issues that are important to them, in a way that is important to them.

One of the major focuses of ethical consumption research over the past 15 years has been the examination of the attitude-behaviour gap. Several impediments and moderators have been suggested as potential explanations for the gap, and it is likely that others remain to be discovered. One potential future avenue of research involves considering the ways in which people construe the impacts of ethical purchasing decisions as being psychologically closer or more distant. If, for example, one believes their product choice will have a psychologically proximal impact, they may be more likely to move from attitudes to behaviours than if that same choice has a psychologically distal impact. In addition, there are a variety of dispositional factors that may influence the relationship between construal level and attitude-behaviour consistency. These concepts will form the basis of this research, and will now be discussed in greater detail.
Construal Level Theory

In the examination of the attitude-behaviour gap in ethical purchasing, Construal Level Theory (CLT) may have a role to play. First introduced by Liberman and Trope (1998) and later expounded by Trope and Liberman (2003), CLT posits that psychologically near objects are viewed in terms of lower-level features relating to detail and context, while psychologically far objects are seen in higher-level, abstract terms. Higher-level construal may be seen as relating to questions of why an action is performed, while lower-level construal relates to how an action is performed (Trope & Liberman, 2003). Construal has been shown to affect decision making - when the value associated with high-level construals is more prominent than that associated with low-level construals, the attractiveness of an option should increase with psychological distance; when the value associated with low-level construals is more prominent, the attractiveness of an option should decrease with psychological distance. This was demonstrated by Fujita, Eyal, Chaiken, Trope, and Liberman (2008), who found that people considering temporally distant objects were more sensitive to arguments emphasizing abstract, high-level concepts than those emphasizing low-level, specific examples.

Trope and Liberman (2003) identified four main dimensions of psychological distance – temporal, social, spatial, and hypothetical – and each of these may come into play in various decision-making scenarios. Much of the research involving CLT has focused on its temporal dimension, but all four dimensions may play a part in helping explain the attitude-behaviour gap.
When considering the dimension of time, CLT suggests that distant future events are construed according to their abstract, primary, and global aspects, whereas near future events are construed according to their concrete, secondary, and local aspects. Liberman and Trope (1998) found support for this suggestion in their examination of how people describe activities in the near vs. distant future. Subjects were asked to describe a variety of activities that were said to be taking place either tomorrow or next year – those in the near-future condition were more likely to describe the activity using low-level phrases, while those in the distant-future condition were more likely to use high-level descriptions (Liberman & Trope, 1998).

Spatial construal, with its focus on the ways in which spatial distance may affect attitudes, intentions, and behaviours, provides another way of exploring the attitude-behaviour gap. According to CLT, events taking place spatially near a participant should be viewed in more detailed, concrete terms, while events taking place at far distances should be viewed in more abstract, high-level terms. In their exploration of spatial construal, Fujita, et al. (2006) discovered that spatially distant events were more likely to be described using high-level action terms than spatially near events. When Fujita et al. (2006) asked participants to describe a behaviour occurring either within the same city or thousands of miles away, they found that participants in the spatially-distant condition described the situation using higher-level terms.

Psychological distance may also be considered through the lens of probability, that is, whether an event is likely or not to happen. According to CLT, events with low probabilities of occurring should be more psychologically distant than events with high probabilities of occurring, and should thereby be construed at a higher level. An
investigation by Todorov, Goren and Trope (2007) confirms this – when considering higher-probability events, participants placed greater value on lower-level, means-related aspects of the event than when considering lower-probability events.
Hypotheses

The link between CLT and decision making has far-reaching implications that are of clear interest to marketers, and accordingly, the theory has been applied in various ways in the marketing literature. In their examination of how affect impacts time perspective processing and the willingness to wait for rewards, Pyone and Isen (2011) found that affect increases levels of thinking, and that participants with positive affect were less likely to overvalue the present and thereby more willing to wait for a larger reward, assuming moderately large differences in present vs. future rewards. Chandran and Menon (2004) explored how temporal framing affects health risk judgments, finding that risk messaging that was framed in daily rather than yearly terms was seen as more concrete and proximal and resulted in increased self-risk perceptions, behaviour intentions, and overall reception to communication efforts.

Positive reactions to near-oriented vs. far-oriented messages may also occur in other contexts, such as ethical consumption, and for other measures, such as affect – similar to health risk messaging, ethical consumption messaging can frame impacts as occurring psychologically near to, or far from, the subject, and subjects may display similar attitudes in an ethical consumption context, both in terms of behavioural intentions and affect toward messages. Further, subjects may be more likely to perform an actual behaviour whose impacts are framed as being psychologically near, rather than psychologically distant from, the subject. These preferences for near-oriented messages may be present in measures of affect, behavioural intentions, and actual behaviour, and may hold across all four dimensions of psychological distance: temporal, spatial, social, and hypothetical. This leads to the first hypothesis.
**H1:** Individuals exposed to an ethical consumption message will have somewhat more positive reactions when the ethical impacts presented in the message are psychologically proximal, rather than distal. Similar response patterns are predicted across all four psychological dimensions for (a) attitude, (b) behavioural intention, and (c) actual behaviour; however actual behaviour will be measured in only the spatial dimension due to resource constraints. Specifically:

**A.** Individuals will have somewhat more positive affect towards proximally framed messages, compared to distally framed messages, with regards to: i) Temporal; ii) Spatial; iii) Social; iv) Hypothetical psychological distance dimensions.

**B.** Individuals will have somewhat greater purchase intentions toward proximally framed messages, compared to distally framed messages, with regards to: i) Temporal; ii) Spatial; iii) Social; iv) Hypothetical psychological distance dimensions.

**C.** Individuals will be somewhat more likely to perform the suggested behaviour when presented with proximally framed messages, compared to distally framed messages, with regards to the spatial psychological distance dimension.

Thus, a mild main effect of psychologically proximal framing resulting in greater affect, purchase intentions, and likelihood of behaviour is predicted.
In some of the recent research into CLT – particularly research focusing on temporal construal – participants have been grouped according to dispositional measures relating to the construal dimension under examination, allowing for additional insight into how construal affects decision-making. In their examination of responses to cause-related marketing efforts, Tangari, Folse, Burton and Kees (2010) classified participants according to time perspective – past, present, or future – and found that groups responded differently to CRM campaigns depending on perspective. Subjects with future-centric orientations responded more favourably when societal needs and corporate responses were framed in distal terms, while participants with present-centric orientations responded more positively when corporate responses were framed in proximal terms. Van Ittersum (2011) found that future-oriented participants exhibited a higher intention-behaviour consistency relative to present-oriented participants, who tended to overstate or understate their intentions. These differences between participants were ascribed to different weightings placed on positive or negative desirability considerations when considering future behaviours. In a study by Martin, Gnoth, and Strong (2009), future-oriented consumers were shown to respond more favourably to advertisements that focused on the primary attributes of products to be released in the distant future, while present-oriented consumers preferred ads that focused on the secondary attributes of products with a near-future release. An individual’s disposition toward psychological distance may also come into play when considering the relationship between construal and responses to ethical product messaging. Those who are disposed toward psychological closeness (distance) may have a more positive response when the
behaviour in question is presented as having a psychologically close (distant) ethical impact. This leads to the second hypothesis.

\( H_2 \): Individuals exposed to an ethical consumption message will have more positive reactions when the ethical impacts presented in the message align with their disposition towards psychological distance. Similar response patterns are predicted across all four psychological dimensions for (a) attitude, (b) behavioural intention, and (c) actual behaviour; however actual behaviour will be measured in only the spatial dimension due to resource constraints. Specifically:

A. Individuals will have more positive affect towards messages that align with their disposition, with regards to: i) Temporal; ii) Spatial; iii) Social; iv) Hypothetical psychological distance dimensions.

B. Individuals will have greater purchase intentions towards messages that align with their disposition, with regards to: i) Temporal; ii) Spatial; iii) Social; iv) Hypothetical psychological distance dimensions.

C. Individuals will be more likely to perform the suggested behaviour when messages align with their disposition, with regards to the spatial psychological distance dimension.

Thus, an interaction effect between psychological distance in messaging and participant disposition is predicted, with a match between the variables resulting in greater affect, purchase intentions, and likelihood of behaviour.
For some participants, alignment between message framing and their personal disposition may not be enough to result in behaviour. While alignment may lead to improved attitudes and behavioural intentions, as predicted in Hypothesis 2, these improvements may be strengthened and further contribute to actual behaviour by the presence of increased positive attitudes toward ethical consumption, measured here as feelings of Personal Consumer Effectiveness. PCE, a measure of one’s beliefs that their consumer behaviours will be effective in producing a given outcome, has been shown to be an important predictor of ethical consumption attitudes and behaviours (Berger & Corbin, 1992; Ellen et al., 1991; Lee & Holden, 1999). As described by Ellen et al. (1991), PCE is also related to Perceived Behavioural Control – a concept introduced by Ajzen (1991) – in that both concepts involve the belief that one’s actions can bring about or avert a given event. Perceived Behavioural Control has been shown to moderate the relationship between behavioural intentions and actual behaviour (Terry & O’Leary, 1995), and Perceived Consumer Effectiveness may play a similar role in the current decision-making context. Participants who intend to perform ethical consumption behaviours may be pushed a further step and actually perform a given behaviour if they possess positive attitudes relating to that behaviour’s likelihood of having a meaningful ethical impact, such that higher levels of PCE may result in an increased likelihood of behaviour. This leads to the third hypothesis.

**H₃:** Subject attitude toward ethical consumption will moderate the relationship between attitude and behaviour such that when messages align with participant dispositions, more positive attitudes will result in a greater likelihood of behaviour.

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Exploratory Research

An exploratory focus group was conducted to assist in the development of the preceding hypotheses. The topic of the focus group was potential barriers to ethical consumption. A total of six University of Lethbridge students participated in the one-hour focus group session, for which they received course credit. A discussion guide was used to facilitate dialogue (please refer to Appendix A), and the study’s co-supervisor was present to assist in the process. Subjects were told that the session would be recorded and that they had the right to withdraw from the session at any time. They were also told that to protect confidentiality, their names would be changed in any reporting, and that only the researcher and the thesis committee would have access to the results, which would be stored on a password-protected computer. Subjects were asked to sign a letter of consent to this effect (please refer to Appendix B). No participants withdrew from the session.

Results

Throughout the session, participants described ethical behaviour impacts in terms relating to different construal dimensions, with some participants consistently describing either proximal or distal impacts. Jose (real names have been changed to pseudonyms to protect the anonymity of participants), an international student from Belize, described his behaviours in his home nation as having a spatially proximal impact:

“We used to always recycle – Belize has the only living coral system in the world. So where we live, we try to protect the coral, the whole system, everything. So the more products you recycle, the less dumps going into the ocean.”
He views his ethical consumption behaviour – in this case, recycling – as having a positive impact where he lives. He later explained:

“When you go snorkelling in Belize, the coral is so beautiful and there’s so many different fish, so you know when you’re buying something organic, it’s helping the coral system.”

Again, Jose describes his behaviour as having a positive effect on a spatially close area. John, another focus group participant, frequently described ethical consumption behaviours as having temporally and spatially distant impacts:

“A small change can end up being a big change in the long term.”

Here, John demonstrates a focus on the effects that behaviours will have over the longer-term. He also discussed his actions as having a global, spatially-distant impact:

“I wish I could afford to buy more environmentally-friendly, because I would feel better about the world and me as a human, buying and saving the world and recycling.”

Jennifer, an international student from Ecuador, described conservation and other environmentally-friendly behaviours as having spatially and socially-proximal impacts:

“We have the Galapagos Islands, and everyone is concerned about taking care of the animals and everything. It’s amazing, and it’s our treasure – we want to take care of that.”

“We see how the population in my country is helped and supported, so I think it’s important where you live.”
It became apparent from the focus group session that some participants focused more on psychologically proximal impacts while others focused on psychologically distant ones. The overall effect did seem to be one of placing greater importance on psychologically near impacts, however. These kinds of tendencies were believed to be indicative of broader dispositional differences that in turn impact attitudes and behaviours involving ethical consumption.

The results generated from this pilot study assisted in the development of the hypotheses outlined above. These hypotheses were empirically tested using a study design which will now be discussed.
Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to test the reliability of, and correlation between, pre-existing and self-created independent variable scales. It was also used to test the effectiveness of within-subjects factor manipulations. The design of the pretest mirrors that of the main study in order to assure comparability.

Method

Design

The study employed a quasi-experimental design intended to test the scales and manipulations that will be used in the main study, which will test the effects of message framing and participant disposition on responses to differently-framed advertisements and on attitude-behaviour consistency. A 2x2x2x5 mixed factorial design was employed, utilizing three manipulated factors and one measured factor. The between-subjects manipulated factor, construal dimension, had five levels: messages in the ads discussed ethical consumption behaviour impacts which occur either temporally, spatially, socially, or hypothetically apart from the participant. This factor also included a control ad which did not discuss any of the dimensions. The first within-subjects manipulated factor, message distance, had two levels: messages in the ads framed the impacts of a given ethical consumption behaviour as being either psychologically close or psychologically distant from the participant. The second within-subject manipulated factor was a non-theoretical replication factor involving the beneficiary of the CSR campaign: ads discussed campaigns involving either children’s scholarship funds or children’s health funds. The between-subjects measured factor, disposition toward psychological distance,
had two levels: participants were said to be either more or less disposed toward psychological distance. This factor was measured for each of the four construal dimensions, and the results from each dichotomized during analysis to provide two participant groups: those who were more comfortable with psychological distance, and those who were less.

Figure 1. *Illustration of Design: 2x2x2x5 mixed factorial*
Participants

Pilot study participants were recruited from the University of Lethbridge Management 2030 Participant Pool. The pilot was initially attempted near the end of the 2012 Fall semester, but insufficient data was gathered, with only 26 students responding. The pilot was attempted again in the 2013 Spring semester, resulting in a sufficient sample size. A total of 94 participants started the survey, but 13 of those failed to complete it, resulting in a completion rate of 86.2%. Participants were given partial course credit for their participation. The sample consisted of adult males (54.9%) and females (45.1%) with an average age of 21 years. English was the primary written language for the majority of participants (92%), with Chinese (5.7%), French (1.1%) and Japanese (1.1%) also being listed.

Data Collection

Data collection was done using an online experiment administered through Qualtrics. Participants were randomly assigned one of four conditions, each involving a different type of psychological distance, and shown a series of three advertisements, answering questions related to dependent variable measures for each. They then completed a questionnaire featuring the independent variable scales (please refer to Appendix C).

Independent Variables

The study employed both manipulated and measured independent variables which will now be described. The manipulated independent variables were the type of construal
dimension, the type of beneficiary in advertisements viewed by participants, and the distance of impacts.

**Construal Dimension**

Advertisements described a cause marketing campaign having impacts within one of four construal dimensions: temporal, hypothetical, spatial, or social.

**Type of Beneficiary**

The advertisements described a cause-marketing campaign that benefits either a children’s scholarship fund or a children’s health fund. This non-theoretical replication variable was included as a means of preventing participants from ascertaining the experimental manipulation.

**Psychological Distance**

The impacts of the cause marketing campaign were also described as occurring either psychologically near or far from the participant.

For example, one group of participants saw an ad describing a campaign with a temporally proximal impact affecting a children’s scholarship fund, followed by an ad describing a campaign with a temporally distant impact affecting a children’s health fund. All written messaging was held constant throughout the ads, apart from the section of the ad directly relating to the construal dimension, impact distance, and beneficiary type (please refer to Appendix D). Subjects were randomly assigned to one of four groups (temporal, social, spatial, or hypothetical). Each group saw two ads pertaining to their assigned dimension, plus a control ad. Thus all participants viewed one proximal and one
distant ad. Each of these had either a health or an education message, and the messages were counterbalanced so that each participant viewed one of each, as well as a control ad.

The measured independent variables included participants’ disposition toward four dimensions of psychological distance – these variables were measured using a series of existing scales that were modified to suit the study’s purposes. Additionally, scales developed by the researcher (hereafter called self-created scales) were also used to measure disposition for each dimension, as it was somewhat unclear whether the pre-existing scales would measure the exact sentiment sought. These scales were used to classify participants according to the four measured independent variables of disposition toward psychological distance. Responses to independent variable scale questions were averaged for each participant to create scales for each existing and self-created set.

The Zimbardo Time Perspective Inventory (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999) is a 56-item scale designed to measure differences in how individuals view time. The scale classifies participants according to one of five time biases: Past Negative, Past Positive, Present Hedonic, Present Fatalistic, and Future. For the purposes of measuring temporal orientation in this study, the full scale was reduced to focus on its present and future items, much as it was in Martin et al. (2009), as past biases are outside this study’s scope.

Attitudes toward hypothetical distance were measured in this study using a shortened version of Freeston, Rheaume, Letarte, Dugas, and Ladouceur’s (1994) Intolerance of Uncertainty scale validated by Carleton, Norton, and Asmundson (2007). The scale measures individual reactions to ambiguous situations – those more at ease with hypothetical distance score lower on the scale, and they should be more affected by
potential hypothetically-distant impacts than individuals who are less comfortable with ambiguity.

Subject attitude towards spatial distance was measured using Neuliep and McCroskey’s (1997) Generalized Ethnocentrism (GENE) scale. The scale measures feelings of ethnocentrism – the idea that one’s nation is superior to others’ – and served to gauge participants’ attitudes toward spatial distance.

Finally, participants’ views of social distance were gauged using a version of Bogardus’ (1933) Social Distance scale updated by Parrillo and Donoghue (2005). The scale was reduced and modified to suit this study’s purposes, with some ethnic group classifications being replaced by other out-groups. Individuals with less sense of social distance between themselves and different groups can be said to be more accepting of those in other social groups, and accordingly, they should be more affected by socially-distant impacts than individuals with a higher sense of social distance.

Perceived Consumer Effectiveness was included as a measured independent variable as a means to determine participant attitudes toward ethical consumption. PCE was measured using a four-item scale adapted from Roberts (1996). This scale consisted of a series of 7-point Likert items dealing with an individual consumer’s ability to affect change through their purchase decisions.

Control Variables

Personal identification as an ethical consumer was included as a control variable because participants who view themselves more strongly as ethical consumers should generally have higher purchase intentions in response to the advertisements being
presented, although it is not the focus of this study. This was measured by averaging responses to a series of three 7-point Likert-scale items, whereby participants responded to the statements “I think of myself as an ethical consumer”, “I think of myself as a socially-responsible consumer” and “Being someone who is socially responsible is an important part of who I am” on a scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree”. This scale was adapted from items developed by Aquino and Reed (2002).

As discussed earlier, previous studies have identified Social Desirability Bias as potentially impacting results in ethical consumption research, so this was included as a control variable to be measured via a shortened, 10-item version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) validated by Strahan and Gerbasi (1972). The scale consists of 10 nominal true-false items, each of which deals with common socially-desirable or undesirable behaviours, such as "I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings." The undesirable behaviours are common enough that almost all participants will have engaged in them at some point, and to deny ever having done so denotes a tendency toward social-desirability bias. Claiming that one always engages in the scale's socially desirable behaviours denotes a similar tendency. Participants' SDB scores consist of the number of scale items answered in a socially-desirable manner.

Demographic measures were included as control variables in the analysis. These included age, income, gender, and primary written language. Attitudes toward children’s education funds and children’s health funds were also included as control variables using 7-point Likert items. Subjects were asked to indicate how important they felt the work of
children’s health and education charities is on a scale ranging from “Not at all Important” to “Extremely Important”.

**Dependent Variables**

Affective responses to ad messaging were measured by averaging responses to a series of three 7-point Likert-scale items created by Stuart, Shimp, and Engle (1987). Purchase intentions were similarly measured using three 7-point Likert-scale items adapted from Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal (1991).

**Procedure**

To start the study, participants answered a series of demographic questions before being assigned to one of the conditions discussed earlier. Subjects then viewed three advertisements – one containing a psychologically near message, one containing a psychologically distant message, and one control ad – and completed attitude and purchase intentions scales after each viewing, as well as a manipulation check question. Subjects then completed a questionnaire containing the dispositional independent variable scales, social desirability scale, perceived consumer efficacy scale, and ethical consumption attitude scale. They also answered two questions pertaining to their attitudes toward children’s scholarship and health charities.

**Results**

**Independent Variable Scales**

The pilot study was conducted in part to test the reliability of existing and self-created independent variable scales and to determine whether self-created scales
correlated with their existing counterparts for each distance type, as a correlation would support the existing scales’ suitability for the main study’s purposes. Results from reliability testing are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. *Existing and Self-created Orientation Scale Reliability Results – Pilot*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existing Scale</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-created</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existing Scale</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-created</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existing Scale</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-created</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existing Scale</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-created</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The self-created hypothetical scale demonstrated a marginally acceptable Alpha (0.63) after removing three items in an effort to improve reliability. The self-created temporal scale also demonstrated a marginally acceptable Alpha (0.66) after the removal of one item. However, of the pre-existing scales, the temporal and hypothetical were the most clearly related to the concepts of interest in this study, so the marginal performance of the self-created items was deemed acceptable.

All of the pre-existing scales were significantly correlated with their self-created counterparts, supporting their usage in measuring the phenomenon of interest in the main study.
Table 2. Pre-existing and Self-created scale correlations – Pilot

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance Type</th>
<th>$r$</th>
<th>$df$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td>.383</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td>.346</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical</td>
<td>.366</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>.541</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Manipulation Checks**

The other purpose of the pilot study was to determine the effectiveness of near-vs.-far distance manipulations and ensure near-oriented and far-oriented ads were seen as such by participants. Manipulation check questions were included after every advertisement exposure in each condition. After each ad, participants were asked to indicate using a 7-point Likert-style question whether the campaign in the preceding ad would impact children who were psychologically relatively near to, or distant from, the participant.

Paired sample t-tests were conducted on manipulation check responses for each set of near-oriented and far-oriented ads. Significant differences were observed in responses for the spatial condition ($p < .001$) and marginally-significant differences were observed in responses for the hypothetical condition ($p = .053$). Within these two conditions, means for the far-oriented ads were higher than those for the near-oriented
ads in each condition, indicating that the manipulations were successful. Manipulation check means and standard deviations for each condition are shown in Table 3.

Means for the temporal manipulation were in the expected direction, but differences between the means were non-significant, indicating that the manipulation was not strong enough (p = .202). To address this issue, changes were made to the temporal advertisements such that differences between the two were exaggerated. The original near and far ads discussed impacts happening in “two weeks” and “two years”, respectively, and were changed to discuss impacts occurring “next week” and in “ten years”.

Social distance was operationalized according to whether the subject considered themselves a “rural” or “urban” resident, and manipulation check responses were examined separately by group. There were no significant differences in responses in the social distance condition. social-rural (p = .569), or social-urban condition (p = .175). The social manipulation presented greater problems – its means were non-significant and in the wrong direction, indicating that subjects in the condition were not interpreting the ads in the intended way. To address this issue, the urban/rural split was eliminated and a different approach was implemented. The adjusted social condition manipulation was more direct, informing participants that impacts would affect children “just like those you know” or “different from those you know”. It was hoped this new description would make the point clearer to participants.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Ad Type</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td>Near-oriented</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Far-oriented</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td>Near-oriented</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Far-oriented</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>1.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical</td>
<td>Near-oriented</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>1.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Far-oriented</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>1.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Near-oriented</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>1.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Rural)</td>
<td>Far-oriented</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Near-oriented</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Urban)</td>
<td>Far-oriented</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Main Study

The main study was used for hypothesis testing. Design and methods were consistent with the first study with the exception of aforementioned changes to the temporal and social distance advertisements, and the addition of the behavioural experiment portion, which will be discussed herein. The study also included an additional construal dimension not formally part of this thesis project; data relating to this dimension will be analyzed at a later date and thus will not be presented here.

Method

Participants

A total of 532 participants were recruited through an online research panel managed by Qualtrics. Of these, 118 chose not to provide consent on the pre-survey informed disclosure agreement form and did not begin the survey. A further 4 participants were screened out for reporting their age as less than 18 years. This left a total of 410 participants who started the survey. Of these, 50 participants failed to correctly respond to an attention check question midway through the survey; these participants were immediately ejected from the survey and their responses discarded. A further 6 participants started the survey and passed the attention check but failed to complete the survey. Three participants showed some evidence of straight-lining responses but were included in the analysis because it could not be determined that their responses were disingenuous. This left a total of 354 responses for analysis, for a completion rate of 86.5%. The sample consisted of adult males (44.6%) and females (55.4%) with an average age of 43 years. Roughly equal proportions of participants fell
into the income categories of $25,000-49,999 (31.1%) and $50,000-99,999 (30.6%).

English was the primary written language for the vast majority of participants (98.6%), with French (0.3%), German (0.3%), Spanish (0.3%), and Russian (0.3%) also being listed.

Procedure

To start the study, participants answered a series of demographic questions before being assigned to one of the conditions discussed earlier. Demographic measures were included at the beginning of the study for screening purposes to ensure a nationally representative sample. Subjects then viewed three advertisements – one containing a psychologically near message, one containing a psychologically distant message, and one control ad – and completed attitude and purchase intentions scales after each viewing, as well as a manipulation check question. Subjects then completed a questionnaire containing the dispositional independent variable scales, social desirability scale, perceived consumer efficacy scale, and ethical consumption attitude scale. They also answered two questions pertaining to their attitudes toward children’s scholarship and health charities. After completing the questionnaire section, participants received one of two notices thanking them for participating and informing them that the researchers have been authorized to make a donation of $5 to a real-world charitable organization as a reward for their participation, but that the participant must approve the transaction by creating a unique code and then emailing this code to a given address. This approach was chosen because it required participants to spend a small amount of time and energy to achieve the end goal of donation – visiting the additional website is not difficult enough that it would be prohibitive in itself, but it requires enough effort that participants must be
motivated to follow through. The charitable organization was manipulated in the two conditions such that one organization’s work has a spatially close ethical impact, while the other’s work has a spatially distant ethical impact. Messages were counterbalanced so that half were for a health and half were for an education charity. The identification codes of participants who sent the email and provided consent was recorded. Donations will be made to the two organizations in accordance with the total number of participants from each condition who completed this section. Prior to ending the study, participants completed attitudinal and purchase intention measures pertaining to the final notice, followed by a check question to ensure the experimental manipulation was effective.

**Results**

**General**

In total, 354 participants completed the survey. Of these, 287 were assigned to one of the four dimension conditions that are the focus of the present study; the remaining 67 participants were assigned to the aforementioned fifth dimension condition that will be examined as part of a future project. The sample was nationally representative of demographics including age, income, and gender. A total of 71 participants were assigned to the temporal condition, 79 to the spatial condition, 71 to the hypothetical condition, and 66 to the social condition. For analysis and reporting, results of respective sections from the non-theoretical health and education replication factors were considered together. Mean affect and intent scores for each of the replication conditions were compared using independent samples t-tests, and no significant differences were found. Participant attitudes toward children’s health charities and
children’s education charities were also measured, and no significant differences were
found.

**Scale Reliabilities and Correlations**

With the exception of the self-created hypothetical scale, all independent variable
scales demonstrated acceptable reliability, with the self-created temporal scale requiring
the removal of two items to be brought to acceptable levels. The self-created hypothetical
scale could not be improved sufficiently to bring its reliability to acceptable levels, thus it
was not included in the analysis. One item was dropped from the PCE scale to help
improve its reliability.

The control variable scales demonstrated acceptable reliability, though the Social
Desirability Scale’s performance was marginal. Dropping items from analysis did not
improve the scale’s reliability, so all 10 items were retained. The scale’s performance
was deemed acceptable because it is a previously validated instrument and because SDB
is a control variable not central to the research. This study also included a 3-item measure
of participant attitude toward the donation adapted from Stuart, Shimp, and Engle (1987).

The dependent variable scales demonstrated acceptable reliability. Results for all
scales are shown in Table 4.
Table 4. *Existing and Self-created Orientation Scale Reliability Results – Main Study*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Temporal</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existing Scale</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-created Scale</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spatial</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existing Scale</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-created Scale</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hypothetical</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existing Scale</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-created Scale</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existing Scale</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-created Scale</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Consumer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effectiveness</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical Consumer Identification</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Desirability Bias</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Response</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioural Intention</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude Toward Donation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All pre-existing independent variable scales were significantly correlated with their self-created counterparts, though correlation testing was not done for the hypothetical scales, as the self-created scale in this dimension was not employed in the analysis due to low reliability. These correlations supported self-created scales’ usage in measuring the phenomenon of interest in the study.
Table 5. *Pre-existing and Self-created scale correlations – Main Study*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance Type</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td>.561</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td>.501</td>
<td>354</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>.383</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Manipulation Checks

Manipulation check questions were included after every advertisement exposure in each condition to ensure the distance manipulations were effective. After each ad, participants were asked to indicate using a 7-point Likert-style question whether the campaign in the preceding ad would impact children who were psychologically relatively near to, or distant from, the participant. Paired sample t-tests were conducted on manipulation check responses for each set of near-oriented and far-oriented ads. Significant differences were observed in responses for each of the four conditions, and means for the far-oriented ads were higher than those for the near-oriented ads in each condition, indicating that the manipulations were successful across conditions. Differences for the temporal, spatial, and social conditions were significant at the p < .001 level, while differences for the hypothetical condition were significant at the p < .01 level (p = .001). Manipulation check means and standard deviations for each condition are shown in Table 6.
Table 6. Descriptive Statistics of Manipulation Check Responses – Main Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Ad Type</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td>Near-oriented</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>1.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Far-oriented</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>6.10</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td>Near-oriented</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Far-oriented</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical</td>
<td>Near-oriented</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Far-oriented</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Near-oriented</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Far-oriented</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>1.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H1_a Affect Towards Proximally vs. Distally-framed Messages

A repeated-measures ANOVA was conducted to test whether participants exhibited greater affect for proximally-framed vs. distally-framed messages. The within-subjects factor in this analysis, ad type, had three levels, consisting of the affect scores for the near-oriented, far-oriented, and control advertisements. The between-subjects factor, distance type, had four levels: temporal, spatial, hypothetical, and social. Affect and Intention scores for the near-oriented spatial ads were slightly skewed, but no adjustments were made, as the skewness was mild and ANOVA is robust to non-normality. There were no missing values.

The ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for ad type, $F(2, 566) = 43.3, p < 0.001$, indicating that participant affect differed between ad types. The ANOVA also revealed a significant interaction between ad type and distance type, $F(6, 566) = 15.53, p < 0.001$, indicating that conditions experienced differing amounts of affect difference
between ads. Follow-up t-tests were conducted to help test each of the four sub-
hyotheses and to help identify where the difference lay in the interaction between ad
type and distance type. Subjects in each of the distance type conditions demonstrated
significantly higher affect for near-oriented ads than for far-oriented ads, though
differences in the spatial condition were marginal. These findings support Hypotheses 1a,
1a, 1aii, and 1aiii. T-test results are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Affect Means For Near- vs. Far-oriented Ads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance Type</th>
<th>Ad Type</th>
<th>Near</th>
<th>Far</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td>Near</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>7.08</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Far</td>
<td>(1.10)</td>
<td>(1.68)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td>Near</td>
<td>5.54</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Far</td>
<td>(1.08)</td>
<td>(1.24)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical</td>
<td>Near</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>5.08</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Far</td>
<td>(1.06)</td>
<td>(1.22)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Near</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td>6.58</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>0.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Far</td>
<td>(1.22)</td>
<td>(1.44)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means.

With regard to affect, responses to control ads tended to hew closely to responses
to near-oriented ads, differing significantly in only the hypothetical condition and
marginally in the social condition. T-test results are shown in Table 8. The pattern of
similarities in response between the near and control ads may be the result of participants
filling in the blank slate of the control exposure with immediate, psychologically-near
concepts and responding in kind. This phenomenon is not present in the hypothetical
condition, indicating that participants view these ads differently – it may be that
hypothetical distance, dealing with the subject of probability, is perceived as more
abstract than temporal, spatial, or social distance, thus participants do not fill in gaps with
psychologically-near concepts as easily.

Table 8. Affect Means For Near-oriented vs. Control Ads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance Type</th>
<th>Ad Type</th>
<th>Near</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>0.320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.10)</td>
<td>(1.19)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.54</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>0.788</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0.433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.08)</td>
<td>(1.15)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>-2.00</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.06)</td>
<td>(1.17)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td></td>
<td>65</td>
<td>0.049</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.22)</td>
<td>(1.05)</td>
<td>-2.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means.

H1b Intention Towards Proximally vs. Distally-framed Messages

A repeated-measures ANOVA was conducted to test whether participants
exhibited greater behavioural intention for proximally-framed vs. distally-framed
messages. The within-subjects factor in this analysis, ad type, had three levels, consisting
of the behaviour intention scores for the near-oriented, far-oriented, and control
advertisements. The between-subjects factor, distance type, had four levels: temporal,
spatial, hypothetical, and social. Affect and Intention scores for the near-oriented spatial
ads were slightly skewed, but no adjustments were made, as the skewness was mild and ANOVA is robust to non-normality. There were no missing values.

The ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for ad type, $F(2,566) = 33.18, p < 0.001$, indicating that participants’ level of intention differed between ad types. The ANOVA also revealed a significant interaction between ad type and distance type, $F(6,566) = 10.48, p < 0.001$, indicating that conditions experienced differing amounts of intention difference between ads. Follow-up t-tests were conducted to help test each of the four sub-hypotheses and to help identify where the difference lied in the interaction between ad type and distance type. Subjects in each of the distance type conditions demonstrated significantly higher intention for near-oriented ads than for far-oriented ads. These findings support Hypotheses 1b_i, 1b_ii, 1b_iii, and 1b_iv. T-test results are shown in Table 9.

Table 9. Behavioural Intention Means For Near- vs. Far-oriented Ads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance Type</th>
<th>Ad Type</th>
<th>Near</th>
<th>Far</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td>Near</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>6.58</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.44)</td>
<td>(1.85)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td>Near</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.29)</td>
<td>(1.45)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical</td>
<td>Near</td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.08)</td>
<td>(1.28)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Near</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>5.14</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.23)</td>
<td>(1.40)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means.
With regard to intent, responses to control ads tended to hew closely to responses to near-oriented ads, differing with marginal significance in only the hypothetical condition. T-test results are shown in Table 10. Again, this may be attributed to participants considering distance types in different ways, with the abstract nature of hypotheticality preventing them from filling in the control ad with psychologically-near concepts.

Table 10. Behavioural Intention Means For Near-oriented vs. Control Ads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance Type</th>
<th>Ad Type</th>
<th>Near</th>
<th>Control</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>0.778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.44)</td>
<td>(1.55)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>0.217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.29)</td>
<td>(1.37)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>0.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.08)</td>
<td>(1.25)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>-0.90</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>0.372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.23)</td>
<td>(1.17)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means.

**H1c Behavioural Experiment with Proximally vs. Distally-framed Messages**

A chi-square test was conducted to determine whether participants assigned to the near-oriented behaviour experiment condition were more likely than those in the far-oriented condition to perform the desired behaviour. The distributions for each variable are shown in Table 11. The chi-square was non-significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 343) = 0.794, p = 0.373$. Thus, H1c is not supported.
Table 11. *Distribution of Behaviour Performance by Experimental Condition Assignment*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental Condition</th>
<th>Behaviour Performed</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Near</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Far</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>277</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**H2a Dispositional Effects on Affect Towards Proximally vs. Distally-framed Messages**

A repeated-measures ANOVA was conducted to test whether participants exhibited greater affect for messages that align with their own disposition towards psychological distance. The within-subjects factor in this analysis, ad type, had three levels, consisting of the affect scores for the near-oriented, far-oriented, and control advertisements. The between-subjects factor, distance orientation, had two levels: participants were said to be either more or less comfortable with psychological distance. Two different distance orientation variables were created for the analysis – one used data from the pre-existing disposition scales discussed earlier, the other used data from the self-created scales, though Carleton, Norton, and Asmundson’s (2007) Intolerance of Uncertainty scale was used in place of the self-created hypothetical scale owing to the latter’s lack of reliability. Separate analyses were conducted for the two variables, and hypothesis 2 will be discussed in terms of these separate analyses. In determining distance orientation for each of the two variables, median scores for each disposition scale were first determined for participants in each of the four distance type conditions. Subjects who scored above the median on a particular scale were deemed to be more
comfortable with that type of psychological distance and were labelled as having far orientations, while those who scored below the median were deemed to be less comfortable with psychological distance and were labelled as having near orientations. Those scoring on the median were omitted from analysis, as they could not clearly be labelled either near or far. Owing to the method of disposition variable creation, there were 17 missing values in the pre-existing scale variable and 9 missing values in the self-created scale variable. These consisted of participants whose scores were the median value. Affect and Intention scores for the near-oriented spatial ads were slightly skewed, but no adjustments were made, as the skewness was mild and ANOVA is robust to non-normality.

The ANOVA conducted using the pre-existing scales revealed a marginally significant interaction between ad type and participant orientation, \( F(2,552) = 3.19, p = 0.042 \), indicating that participants of differing orientations demonstrated somewhat different levels of affect between ads. Follow-up t-tests indicated that near-oriented participants demonstrated significantly higher affect for near-oriented ads in the temporal and hypothetical conditions, but there were no significant differences in the spatial or social conditions. These results are shown in Table 12.
Table 12. *Near-Oriented Subject Affect Means For Near- vs. Far-oriented Ads*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance Type</th>
<th>Ad Type</th>
<th>Near</th>
<th>Far</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(0.88)</td>
<td>(1.35)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>5.06</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>0.507</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.14)</td>
<td>(1.26)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hypothetical</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0.039</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.11)</td>
<td>(1.25)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0.194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.03)</td>
<td>(1.08)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means.

Follow-up t-tests for far-oriented participants indicated that this group also demonstrated significantly higher levels of affect for near-oriented ads in the temporal and hypothetical conditions, as well as the spatial condition. There were no significant differences in the social condition. These results are shown in Table 13.
Table 13. Far-Oriented Subject Affect Means For Near- vs. Far-oriented Ads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance Type</th>
<th>Ad Type</th>
<th>Near</th>
<th>Far</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.57</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>5.59</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.26)</td>
<td>(1.98)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>0.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(0.89)</td>
<td>(1.18)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.03)</td>
<td>(1.22)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>0.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1.38)</td>
<td>(1.69)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means.

No participant group in any condition displayed higher affect for far-oriented ads than for near-oriented ads. The far-oriented group was predicted to exhibit this behaviour, but instead demonstrated preference for near-oriented ads when any such preference was present.

The ANOVA was conducted again using the self-created scales rather than pre-existing ones. There was no significant interaction between ad type and participant orientation, $F (2,536) = 1.71, p = 0.181$, indicating that participants of differing orientations did not exhibit significantly different levels of affect between ads.

Regardless of which scale set was used, participants tended to prefer near-oriented ads when any differences between groups were present. Thus, hypothesis $2_a$ is not supported.
H2b, Dispositional Effects on Intention Towards Proximally vs. Distally-framed Messages

A repeated-measures ANOVA was conducted to test whether participants exhibited greater behavioural intention for messages that align with their own disposition towards psychological distance. The within-subjects factor in this analysis, ad type, had three levels, consisting of the intention scores for the near-oriented, far-oriented, and control advertisements. The between-subjects factor, distance orientation, had two levels: participants were said to be either more or less comfortable with psychological distance. The dispositional variable discussed earlier was again used to test this hypothesis. Owing to the method of disposition variable creation, there were 17 missing values in the pre-existing scale variable and 9 missing values in the self-created scale variable. Affect and Intention scores for the near-oriented spatial ads were slightly skewed, but no adjustments were made, as the skewness was mild and ANOVA is robust to non-normality.

The ANOVA conducted using pre-existing scales did not reveal any significant interaction between ad type and participant orientation, $F(2,552) = 1.78, p = 0.169$, indicating that participants of differing orientations did not exhibit significantly different levels of intention between ads.

The ANOVA conducted using the self-created scales did not reveal any significant interaction between ad type and participant orientation, $F(2,536) = 1.28, p = 0.278$, indicating that participants of differing orientations did not exhibit significantly different levels of intention between ads.
Neither the pre-existing nor self-created scale indicated any differences in participant intention when comparing near-oriented vs. far-oriented participants. Thus, hypothesis 2b is not supported.

**H2c Behavioural Experiment with Proximally vs. Distally-framed Messages and Near vs. Far-oriented Subject Consideration**

A chi-square test was conducted to determine whether participants were more likely to perform the desired behaviour when their experimental condition assignment (near vs. far) matched their disposition toward psychological distance (near vs. far). The distributions for each variable are shown in Table 14. The chi-square was non-significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 325) = 1.994, p = 0.158$. Thus, H2c is not supported.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition/Disposition Match</th>
<th>Behaviour Performed</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14. Distribution of Behaviour Performance by Condition-Disposition Match
H3 Ethical Consumption Attitudes as Moderator between Disposition-Condition Match and Behaviour

A binary logistic regression was conducted to determine whether participant attitude toward ethical consumption acted as a moderator between disposition-condition match and completion of the behavioural experiment. Three variables were entered as independent variables: a dichotomized measure of whether or not the experimental stimuli matched the participant’s disposition toward psychological distance; a mean-deviated measure of participant PCE; and a created match-PCE interaction variable. Entry of the variables into the equation was simultaneous. After deletion of 28 cases with missing values, there were 325 participants available for analysis.

A test of the full model against the constant-only model was marginally significant, $\chi^2 (3, N = 325) = 7.666, p = 0.053$. The variance accounted for was small, with Nagelkerke $R^2 = 3.8\%$, indicating that the model contributes marginally to the
prediction of behaviour. Table 15 shows regression coefficients, Wald statistics, and odds ratios for each of the variables.

Table 15. Logistic Regression of Selected Variables Impacting Experimental Behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Regression Coefficient</th>
<th>Wald Statistics</th>
<th>Odds Ratios</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Match</td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean-Deviated PCE</td>
<td>0.257</td>
<td>4.17*</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>0.102</td>
<td>0.657</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-1.495</td>
<td>104.48</td>
<td>0.224</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p = 0.041

The interaction variable was non-significant, indicating that PCE does not moderate the relationship between match and behaviour. The mean-deviated PCE variable, however, was a significant predictor. To better understand the role of PCE, a chi-square was conducted with a dichotomized (high vs. low) PCE variable and a measure of whether the experimental behaviour was performed. The distributions for each variable are shown in Table 16. The chi-square was significant, $\chi^2 (1, N = 321) = 7.985, p = 0.005$, indicating that participants with higher levels of PCE were significantly more likely to perform the suggested behaviour. While the moderation relationship was not present, PCE is, in itself, a reliable predictor of behaviour, with higher levels of PCE resulting in a greater likelihood of behaviour. Thus, H3 is partially supported.
Table 16. Distribution of Behaviour Performance by PCE level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PCE Level</th>
<th>Behaviour Performed</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td></td>
<td>131</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td></td>
<td>128</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>259</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>321</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Control Variables and Post-Hoc Analysis - Affect

A repeated-measures ANCOVA was conducted to gauge the impact of potential co-variates on participant affect. The within-subjects factor in these analyses, ad type, had three levels, consisting of the affect scores for the near-oriented, far-oriented, and control advertisements. Scales for Perceived Consumer Effectiveness, Social Desirability Bias, and ethical consumer self-identification were entered as co-variates, as well as age, gender, income, primary written language, attitude toward health charities, and attitude toward education charities.

The ANCOVA revealed PCE as the only significant covariate, $F(2,676) = 3.96, p = 0.020$, indicating that participants with differing levels of PCE exhibited significantly different levels of affect between ads. To better understand the impact of PCE, the variable was dichotomized – those scoring above the median being considered to have high PCE, those below the median being considered to have low PCE, and those scoring on the median being omitted from the variable – and the means for each group compared with an independent samples t-test. Subjects with high PCE ($M = 5.64; SD = 1.20$) demonstrated significantly higher affect for the near-oriented ads than participants with low PCE ($M = 5.17; SD = 1.04$), $t(321) = -3.80, p < .001$ (two-tailed).
As originally discussed by Kinnear et al. (1974), PCE represents a consumer’s belief that their marketplace behaviour can effectively impact a given situation or solve a problem. Affective preference for near-oriented ads may be amplified by higher levels of PCE because of a sense of greater immediacy – participants with higher levels of PCE already have relatively high confidence in their abilities to solve problems, and when the problem seems more immediate, this confidence results in more positive feelings and a greater desire to act.

Figure 3. Level of Affect by Ad Type and PCE Level

Control Variables and Post-Hoc Analysis - Intent

A repeated-measures ANCOVA was conducted to gauge the impact of potential co-variates on participant intent. The within-subjects factor in these analyses, ad type, had three levels, consisting of the intent scores for the near-oriented, far-oriented, and control advertisements. Scales for Perceived Consumer Effectiveness, Social Desirability
Bias, and ethical consumer self-identification were entered as co-variates, as well as age, gender, income, primary written language, attitude toward health charities, and attitude toward education charities.

The ANCOVA revealed two significant co-variates: PCE, $F(2,676) = 3.15, p = 0.043$, and age, $F(2,676) = 3.48, p = 0.031$, indicating that participants with differing levels of PCE and participants of differing ages exhibited significantly different levels of affect between ads.

Subjects with high PCE ($M = 5.45; SD = 1.40$) demonstrated significantly higher intent for the near-oriented ads than participants with low PCE ($M = 5.01; SD = 1.17$), $t(321) = -3.02, p = .003$ (two-tailed). Similarly to its effects on affect, PCE may amplify intent toward near-oriented ads through increased immediacy – participants with higher PCE should be more inclined to act on their feelings when the problem is psychologically near, as they were in Chandran and Menon (2004).

Figure 4. *Level of Intent by Ad Type and PCE Level*
To better understand the impact of age, the variable was dichotomized – those scoring above the median being labelled as high age, those below the median being labelled as low age, and those scoring on the median being omitted from the variable – and the means for each group compared with an independent samples t-test. Subjects of lower age (M = 5.00; SD = 1.43) demonstrated significantly higher intent for the far-oriented ads than participants of high age (M = 4.64; SD = 1.65), $t(348) = 2.22, \ p = .027$ (two-tailed).

**Figure 5. Level of Intent by Ad Type and Age**

![Graph showing level of intent for far-oriented and near-oriented ads by age group](image)

**Post-Hoc Analysis of Donation Attitude Predicting Behaviour**

A binary logistic regression was conducted to determine the impact of participant attitude toward the donation on participant behaviour. A mean-deviated measure of participant attitude toward the donation was entered as an independent variable. After
deletion of 18 cases with missing values, there were 336 participants available for analysis.

A test of the full model against the constant-only model was significant, $\chi^2$ (1, N = 336) = 26.357, $p < .001$. The variance accounted for was relatively small, with Nagelkerke $R^2 = 12\%$, indicating that the model contributes to the prediction of behaviour but does not explain a great deal of variance. Table 17 shows regression coefficients, Wald statistics, and odds ratios for each of the variables.

Table 17. Logistic Regression of Donation Attitude Impact on Experimental Behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Regression Coefficient</th>
<th>Wald Statistics</th>
<th>Odds Ratios</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Donation Attitude</td>
<td>0.586</td>
<td>20.69*</td>
<td>1.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-1.609</td>
<td>95.77</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < .001$

To better understand the role of donation attitude, a chi-square was conducted with a dichotomized (high vs. low) attitude variable and a measure of whether the experimental behaviour was performed. The distributions for each variable are shown in Table 18. The chi-square was significant, $\chi^2$ (1, N = 325) = 21.72, $p < .001$, indicating that participants with more positive attitudes were significantly more likely to perform the suggested behaviour.
Table 18. *Distribution of Behaviour Performance by Donation Attitude*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Donation Attitude</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Discussion**

**H1a Affect Towards Proximally vs. Distally-framed Messages**

Hypothesis 1a was fully supported. It was predicted that participants would show greater affect for campaigns with psychologically-near impacts than those with psychologically-far impacts. Chandran and Menon (2004) demonstrated that temporally proximal framing resulted in increased self-risk perceptions and increased behavioural intentions. This research examined this phenomenon in the context of ethical consumption behaviours, and expanded the analysis to include three additional psychological dimensions, as well as measures for affect and a behavioural experiment. The prediction for psychologically-near impacts resulting in greater affect was supported across all four distance dimensions, with participants exhibiting greater affect for campaigns with temporally, spatially, socially, or hypothetically near impacts.

**H1b Intention Towards Proximally vs. Distally-framed Messages**

Hypothesis 1b was fully supported. It was predicted that participants would show greater behavioural intentions for campaigns with psychologically-near impacts than those with psychologically-far impacts. This hypothesis also directly built on Chandran and Menon (2004) who showed that temporally proximal message framing resulted in greater behavioural intentions. The prediction for psychologically-near impacts resulting in greater intentions was supported across all four distance dimensions, with participants exhibiting greater intention for campaigns with temporally, spatially, socially, or hypothetically near impacts.
H1c Behavioural Experiment with Proximally vs. Distally-framed Messages

Hypothesis 1c was not supported. There were no significant differences in behaviour between participants exposed to the proximally-framed message and those exposed to the distally-framed message. It may be that participant familiarity with the non-profit organizations chosen for the behavioural experiment affected the results. The organization in the spatially-distant condition, World Vision, employs more than 44,000 people and had annual revenues of $2.79 billion in 2011, compared with fewer than 200 employees and revenues of $15.9 million for the Children’s Health Fund, which was featured in the spatially-near condition. Increased familiarity may have made participants more likely to behave despite the organization’s psychologically-distant impacts.

Another possible explanation for the lack of support involves participant attitudes toward the donation. Overall, participants with more positive attitudes were more likely to perform the behaviour. Given the results of Hypothesis 1a and b, which demonstrated greater affect and behavioural intentions for near-oriented messages, it would be expected that subjects would also display more positive attitudes toward the near-oriented donation behaviour, but this was not the case. Participants in the near and far behavioural conditions displayed no significant differences in attitude toward the behaviour (p = 0.852). Given the role of attitude in predicting behaviour for the current study, the lack of difference in attitude helps explain why no significant differences were found in actual behaviour. The donation prompts at the end of the experiment may not have been as effective as the survey ads in eliciting participant feelings that would lead to preference for near-oriented stimuli – perhaps the lack of visuals made for less compelling
messaging, or perhaps the donation amount of $5 was seen as too insignificant to elicit the same reaction as was observed in Hypotheses 1a and b.

Perceived Consumer Effectiveness may have also played a role in the lack of support for Hypothesis 1c. PCE was demonstrated to be an important predictor of behaviour in Hypothesis 3, and follow-up analysis showed that participants assigned to the far-oriented behaviour condition displayed marginally higher levels of PCE than participants assigned to the near-oriented condition (p = 0.066). Given PCE’s role in predicting behaviour, the higher levels of PCE found in participants in the far-oriented condition may have led more of them to engage in the behaviour than they otherwise would have. Conversely, the relatively lower levels of PCE found in participants in the near-oriented condition may have served to mute any natural preference effects for near-oriented stimuli that would have borne out the predictions of Hypothesis 1c.

**H2a, b & c Dispositional Effects on Affect, Intention, and Behaviour Towards Proximally vs. Distally-framed Messages**

Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Subject disposition toward psychological distance had no significant effect on feelings of affect, behavioural intentions, or actual behaviour. This hypothesis drew on existing measures of disposition toward psychological distance including those for time (Zimbardo & Boyd, 1999), space (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997), social groups (Bogardus, 1933), and hypotheticality (Freeston et al., 1994), using these measures and others to determine participant disposition and determine what effect, if any, this has on affect, intention, and behaviour in regard to differently-framed messages. It may be that the draw of psychologically-near messages is such that even those who are more comfortable with greater distance are
drawn to them. In general, participants tended to cluster around the midpoints of the distance scales used to determine disposition (either the pre-existing or self-created set) – for the purposes of analysis, participants were dichotomized into groups that were more or less comfortable with distance, but few participants could be said to actively prefer one distance over another. This could explain why the group labelled as being more comfortable with distance did not differ significantly from the group labelled as being less comfortable, in terms of affect, intention, or behaviour.

**H3 Ethical Consumption Attitudes as Moderator between Disposition-Condition Match and Behaviour**

Hypothesis 3 was partially supported. Perceived Consumer Effectiveness did not serve to moderate the relationship between disposition-condition match and behaviour in the predicted way, but it was found to be an important variable in determining behaviour. Berger and Corbin (1992) showed that PCE served to moderate the relationship between environmental attitudes and personal consumer behaviours; the current research modified this concept and incorporated elements of message framing and psychological distance, but PCE did not act as a moderator as in Berger and Corbin (1992). This may be due to the inclusion of the disposition-match concept, which did not behave as predicted in Hypothesis 2 – the proposed moderator relationship was predicated on the existence of disposition-match effects that were not borne out in the results, and consequently, the moderator relationship could not be found to exist as originally proposed. However, subjects with higher levels of PCE were more likely overall to engage in the behavioural experiment portion of the survey, further supporting the importance of PCE in
determining ethical consumption behaviours like those discussed by Lee and Holden (1999).

**Other Findings**

**Perceived Consumer Effectiveness**

Perceived Consumer Effectiveness was found to play an important role in determining participant affect, intent, and behaviour throughout the study. Subjects with higher PCE showed significantly higher affect and intent for near-oriented stimuli than did participants with lower PCE, and high-PCE participants were also more likely to follow through and complete the behavioural portion of the experiment. These findings contribute to a large body of literature that reflects the importance of PCE in determining ethical consumption attitudes, intentions, and behaviours.

**Age**

Subject age was found to influence intentions such that older participants displayed significantly lower intentions for far-oriented stimuli than did younger participants. This finding can also be viewed as younger participants being less sensitive to changes in psychological distance than their older counterparts when it comes to behavioural intentions. It may be that while older participants sympathize with both psychologically near and distant causes, they prefer their actions to have a more immediate, obvious impact. The psychological distance of a cause seems to be of less consequence for younger participants, and these findings could be reflective of dispositional differences between the age groups. Older adults exhibit higher avoidance of uncertainty on the whole (Hofstede, 2001), and it may be that outcome uncertainty
increases along with psychological distance, as outcomes become further removed from the subject in time, space, social groups, or hypotheticality. This greater tendency to avoid uncertainty may help explain older participants’ increased sensitivity to distance.

**Attitude-Behaviour Gap**

This study posited that message framing and psychological construal may play a role in the attitude-behaviour gap within ethical consumption, such that when the level of psychological distance portrayed in a message does not align with one’s disposition toward psychological distance, one will be less likely to follow through with an ethical consumption decision. However, as shown in Hypothesis 2c, the presence of a match between message framing and disposition had no significant effect on behaviour. Participants showed significantly higher levels of affect and behaviour intentions for near-oriented ads than far-oriented ones; perhaps the impacts of ethical consumption are not being framed in a way that is psychologically-proximal enough to elicit actual behaviour.

Participants with more positive attitudes toward the donation were significantly more likely to engage in the behaviour, suggesting some degree of attitude-behaviour consistency. This attitude relates to a specific type of action in a specific scenario, and is different from generalized attitudes toward ethical consumption that are often discussed in regards to the attitude-behaviour gap. It is interesting to note that despite this specificity in measurement, the relative ease of performing the behaviour, and the fact that the opportunity for behaviour immediately followed attitude measurement, attitude
accounted for a relatively small portion of the variance in predicting behaviour. This further suggests there are many factors at play in determining behaviour.
Contribution

This research broadens the scope of literature focusing on psychological distance construal, applying the work of Liberman and Trope (1998) to the realm of ethical consumption decisions and utilizing dispositional measures to test the effect of individual traits on this decision making. Previous studies have expanded upon Liberman and Trope’s (1998) initial focus on the temporal distance dimension, including Todorov, Goren and Trope (2007), who examined hypothetical distance, and Fujita et al. (2006), who considered spatial distance. This research sought to examine all four dimensions of psychological distance within the context of ethical consumption by measuring responses to differently-framed messages within each dimension. Results showed that participants displayed greater levels of affect and behavioural intention for proximally-framed messages across all distance types, making this the first study to demonstrate consistent preference for near-oriented stimuli across all four dimensions.

Perceived Consumer Effectiveness has been shown to play a vital role in ethical consumption decisions (Berger & Corbin, 1992; Ellen et al., 1991; Lee & Holden, 1999), and this research extends previous findings with the inclusion of a behavioural experiment. PCE was shown to be an important predictor of ethical consumption behaviour, with high-PCE subjects being more likely to engage in behaviour than low-PCE subjects.

This research also contributes to marketing practice through its elucidation of consumer preference for specific types of message framing and the reaffirmation of the importance of PCE in determining behaviour. While not all ethical products or services can be framed as having proximal impacts across all four distance dimensions, most can
be said to have a proximal impact in at least one. Marketers can make the consumer feel as though their purchase will have a concrete impact by focusing messages on the dimension that can be made most immediate to the target consumer. This dimension may not always be the most obvious choice for a given product or service, but having it as a focus may result in greater consumer affect and behavioural intentions. Finally, marketers should work to ensure consumers feel that their individual marketplace decisions can make a tangible difference to a given cause – those with higher levels of PCE may be more likely to engage in ethical consumer behaviours.
Limitations and Future Research

One limitation imposed by the decision to use online panels – itself necessitated by timeline and financial concerns – was the need to conduct the experimental portion of the study electronically. The experiment was designed to be straight-forward, with participants needing only to create a unique code and email the code to a given address, but it may have proven difficult for some. Some participants went through the process of creating a code, showing at least some desire to complete the behaviour experiment, but did not submit it to the researchers – while this may have been due to lost motivation, it could be that some participants found the process too complex and gave up out of frustration.

The choice of non-profit organizations for the behavioural experiment can also be cited as a limitation. The two organizations were selected purposefully, keeping in mind the need to select organizations with similar missions but whose impacts occur at different distances from the study’s participants. As a U.S. sample was employed, the organization selected for the spatially-near condition was the Children’s Health Fund, a health charity that assists children across the U.S. World Vision, a health charity that assists children in developing countries, was selected to serve as the spatially-distant organization. But the two organizations also differ in terms of size and influence, and this may help explain why some experimental predictions were not supported. Future research in this vein would do well to include measures of attitude toward, and awareness of, such organizations.

Participant attitudes toward the donation opportunity did not differ significantly between those assigned to the near and far behavioural conditions, as may have been
expected. The behavioural stimuli – a simple write-up consisting of a few sentences – may have been insufficiently stimulating to induce the same types of responses observed in relation to the advertisement exposures, which consisted of full-colour, full-page ads with photographs. Or it may be that participants believed the $5 donation was insignificant or would not even be made. Due to resource constraints, the behavioural measure was not included in the pilot study, and this can be cited as another limitation to the current study; pre-testing may have helped illuminate potential problems with the behavioural stimuli and measure that could have been rectified prior to launching the main study. Future researchers would do well to pre-test any such measures, if possible, and include measures of participants’ beliefs about such donation behaviours, including beliefs about effectiveness and the likelihood of researchers living up to their end of the agreement.

Finally, the findings indicate that both age and Perceived Consumer Effectiveness play a role in determining reactions to near- vs. far-oriented stimuli. This would be an ideal topic for future researchers to explore. PCE could be examined according to its potential effect on preference for near-oriented stimuli. The failure of Hypothesis 1c in the current study may be partially attributable to differences in PCE between participants in the near and far experimental conditions, with PCE potentially helping mute the preference for near-oriented stimuli observed elsewhere in the study. This may be indicative of broader patterns that may be more even more pronounced when greater differences in PCE are noted – perhaps differing levels of PCE serve to directly influence preference for near vs. far-oriented stimuli. If so, this would be of great interest to marketers of ethical products with predominantly distant psychological impacts, as it may
prove easier to increase consumer PCE than to reduce a product’s psychological distance from the target consumer. A more direct examination of PCE’s effects on preference for near vs. far-oriented stimuli would help elucidate these issues.
Conclusion

This study set out to examine the ways in which consumers react differently to proximally- vs. distally-framed messages, and the role that personal disposition toward psychological distance may play. Subjects were shown to prefer messages that dealt with psychologically-near impacts rather than psychologically-distant ones, but participant disposition had no impact on the results. Perceived Consumer Effectiveness was shown to be an important predictor of ethical consumption behaviour.

Marketers of ethical products or causes could enhance their communication efforts by ensuring their messages relay a tangible, immediate benefit to the recipient at issue, rather than focusing on more abstract ideas or concerns that may inflate feelings of psychological distance between consumers and beneficiaries. Obviously this may not be possible within every psychological dimension for every organization – children in Asia are not spatially near North America and can’t be made so through marketing, for example – but making a case for proximal impacts with respect to as many of the four dimensions as possible would likely be a wise strategy. Given the importance of PCE, additional efforts could also be made to assure consumers that their individual marketplace decisions can, in fact, make a tangible difference in the here and now.
References


Appendix A

Focus Group Discussion Guide – Pilot Study

Current Research Objective: Identification and elaboration of factors impeding socially-responsible purchases.

Facilitators: Jeff Wiebe and Mary Runte

Running time: Approx. 1.5 hours, including introduction and post-discussion debrief.

Introduction

- Welcome participants and thank them for coming.
- Tell participants why they have been chosen and discuss the reasons for, and goals of, the current research project. You have been chosen for this study because you have expressed a concern for social responsibility. This is a pilot study intended to help us better understand some of the reasons why people purchase socially-responsible products, and some of the barriers that may prevent them from doing so.
- Outline the focus group process and expectations. Today we’re going to discuss some of the reasons why you and others might purchase socially-responsible products, and some of the reasons they might not. Everyone’s ideas and opinions are equally valued, so we would appreciate if you all spoke one at a time and at a reasonable pace, to ensure everyone is able to clearly understand what is being said. We’d also like to encourage discussion among yourselves – if you’d like to respond to, or elaborate on, a point raised by someone else, feel free to do so in a respectful way. There are no right or wrong ideas here – even if you feel like you’re the only one in the room with your opinion, remember that you likely represent a much larger group of people with similar ideas, so please share them with us.
- Discuss the relevance to participants’ MGT 2030 class and how they will need to participate in a post-discussion debriefing in order to receive course credit. Discuss informed consent. Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. If you decide to participate, you will fulfill the research requirement of your MGT 2030 class. However, you may withdraw from the study at any time, for any reason. If you do this, all information you provided will be destroyed, and you will still receive course credit for your time, provided you participate in the debriefing session.
- Discuss the presence of recording equipment and the issue of confidentiality. Several steps will be taken to protect your anonymity and identity. While the interviews will be video-recorded, the recordings will be destroyed once they have been typed up. The typed interviews will not contain any mention of your name, and any identifying information from the interview will be removed. The typed interviews will also be kept in an encrypted, password-protected file, and only the two main researchers will have access to the interviews. All information will be destroyed after 5 years’ time.

- Discuss the use of the information gathered. The results from this study will be used to develop a better understanding of what factors may prevent socially-concerned consumers from making socially-responsible purchases. This will lead to more in-depth research in the future, with the eventual goal of publishing our results in journals read by marketers and other business professionals, to help them better understand how socially-responsible products can be marketed. The results may also be presented in person to groups of marketers or business professionals. At no time, however, will your name be used or any identifying information revealed. If you wish to receive a copy of the results from this study, you may contact one of the researchers at the telephone number provided on the letter of consent.

- Hand out letters of consent to be read and signed before beginning.

- Identify ourselves, and ask participants to do the same, discussing participants of focus in the Management program, segueing into actual discussion.

Main Discussion

- Let’s start off by discussing our personal experiences with socially responsible purchases. (HAND OUT SHEETS OF PAPER AND PENS). Everyone please think about a socially-responsible purchase you have made in the last 6 months, and write it down. If you haven’t made any of these purchases, that’s alright, too.

- When everyone has finished writing, ask participants to share their answers, beginning with participant on our immediate left.

- When everyone has shared, begin follow-up discussion:
  - Please tell us some of the reasons you decided to purchase a socially-responsible product.
  - Do you feel as though you could or should purchase more socially-responsible products? Why/why not?
  - Has there ever been a time when you were considering purchasing a socially-responsible product, but decided against it? Why?
  - Do you feel as though you could or should purchase more socially-responsible products? Why/why not?
o Begin attempting to pull themes from the conversation: *It seems like _____ is a concern for some of you when you're thinking about purchasing socially-responsible products.* Use a hypothetical scenario to control for this factor ie. *Imagine you're a professional with a sizeable income/imagine product quality was identical, etc., how would this affect your likelihood of purchasing socially-responsible products?*

o *When thinking about this purchase, do you feel like it was something you put a lot of thought into, or was it a quick decision? Do you feel as though you're making a difference? Do you feel as though this purchase contributed to a larger goal of yours (reflected in other parts of your life), or was it a “one-off” purchase? Does that effect your desire to purchase these?*

o *What other factors can you think of that may prevent you from purchasing socially-responsible products?*

**Conclusion**

- Conduct de-briefing session, further discussing relevance to participants’ MGT 2030 class.
- Thank everyone for their participation, and hand out receipts of participation.
Appendix B

Consent Form for Focus Group

You are being invited to participate in a research study on socially-responsible consumerism. In particular, we are interested in potential barriers to socially-responsible consumerism among people who are otherwise supportive of social causes.

This research will require about 1.5 hours of your time. During this time, you and others will be invited to discuss your thoughts and feelings on socially-responsible consumerism, and any potential barriers you may have experienced. The interviews will be conducted at the University of Lethbridge and will be video-recorded.

There are no anticipated risks or discomforts related to this research. The person interviewing you, however, can give you the name and telephone number of some counseling and/or mental health services, if you wish this information.

You may also find the experience to be enjoyable and stimulating, as it will be a chance to discuss your social views with others in your peer group and possibly develop a deeper understanding of your own values and motivations.

Several steps will be taken to protect your anonymity and identity. While the interviews will be video-recorded, the recordings will be destroyed once they have been typed up. The typed interviews will not contain any mention of your name, and any identifying information from the interview will be removed. The typed interviews will also be kept in an encrypted, password-protected file, and only the two main researchers will have access to the interviews. All information will be destroyed after 5 years’ time.

Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. If you decide to participate, you will fulfill the research requirement of your MGT 2030 class. However, you may withdraw from the study at any time, for any reason. If you do this, all information you provided will be destroyed, and you will still receive course credit for your time, provided you participate in the debriefing session.

The results from this study will be used to develop a better understanding of what factors may prevent socially-concerned consumers from making socially-responsible purchases. This will lead to more in-depth research in the future, with the eventual goal of publishing our results in journals read by marketers and other business professionals, to help them better understand how socially-responsible products can be marketed. The results may also be presented in person to groups of marketers or business professionals. At no time, however, will your name be used or any identifying information revealed. If you wish to receive a copy of the results from this study, you may contact one of the researchers at the telephone number given below.
If you require any information about this study, or would like to speak to one of the researchers, please call Jeff Wiebe at 403-327-2895. If you have any other questions regarding your rights as a participant in this research, you may also contact the Office of Research Services at the University of Lethbridge at 403-329-2747 or research.services@uleth.ca.

I have read (or have been read) the above information regarding this research study on socially-responsible consumerism, and consent to participate in this study.

__________________________________________ (Printed Name)

__________________________________________ (Signature)

__________________________________________ (Date)
Appendix C

Consent Form for Experiment

Dear Participant:

The following information relates to the required Informed Consent disclosure for university research. Please read and indicate whether or not you agree to participate.

This is a research study about socially-responsible consumerism. It will take about 15 minutes. This research is being conducted by Jeff Wiebe, MSc. Mgt. candidate at the University of Lethbridge, Canada. Only the researcher and supervisory committee will have access to the data, and none of the data collected will be connected with your name or identity. Committee members include Dr. Debra Basil (debra.basil@uleth.ca), Dr. Michael Basil (michael.basil@uleth.ca), and Dr. Mary Runte (mary.runte@uleth.ca) of the University of Lethbridge. All answers are anonymous. Participant privacy can never be completely guaranteed with electronic surveys, but a trusted and reputable provider will be used and every effort will be taken to assure data privacy. There are no risks or discomfort anticipated in answering the questions. We will write academic papers using the data, and will share the results with you if you would like.

This study is voluntary. You will be given points through Qualtrics. Please note that you can withdraw from the research at any point or skip any questions without penalty. If you decide to withdraw after you have begun answering questions, then simply close your browser. In this case, any information obtained from you will be destroyed. You are asked at the bottom of this page whether you consent to participate in this research. If you do not consent then you will not receive credit for participating in the study.

If you have any questions about this study, please feel free to email Jeff Wiebe at jeff.wiebe@uleth.ca. We anticipate results will be available in June 2013, and these results will be used toward a Master’s thesis project, as well as potential conference presentations and journal publications. If you would like a copy of the results, please contact Jeff Wiebe at jeff.wiebe@uleth.ca. If you have any other questions regarding your rights as a participant in this research, you may also contact the Office of Research Services at the University of Lethbridge at 403-329-2747 or research.services@uleth.ca.

To indicate that you have read and understood this notice, please respond to the following:

I have read (or have been read) the above information regarding this research study, and:

- [ ] I agree to participate
- [ ] I do not agree to participate
Questionnaire

First, we would like to ask some basic demographic questions.

1. What is your gender?
   - Male
   - Female

2. What is your age? (please type NUMERALS ONLY; no letters, symbols, or spaces)

3. What is your primary written language?
   - Chinese
   - English
   - French
   - German
   - Spanish
   - Other (text entry)

4. What is your annual household income in total, approximately?
   - $0-$24,999
   - $25,000-$49,999
   - $50,000-$99,999
   - $100,000-$124,999
   - $125,000-$149,999
   - $150,000-$174,999
   - $175,000-$199,999
   - $200,000-$224,999
   - $225,000-$249,999
   - $250,000-$274,999
   - $275,000-$299,999
   - $300,000-$324,999
   - $325,000-$349,999
   - $350,000+

*Subject randomly assigned to condition*

5. Near-oriented ad
6. I found the message in this advertisement:
   - Very Unpleasant (1)
   - …
   - Very Pleasant (7)

7. The advertisement:
   - Left Me With A Bad Feeling (1)
   - …
   - Left Me With A Good Feeling (7)

8. I:
   - Disliked It Very Much (1)
   - …
   - Liked It Very Much (7)

9. My willingness to purchase from a store advertising this campaign is:
   - Very Low (1)
   - …
   - Very High (7)

10. The probably that I would consider shopping at this store is:
    - Very Low (1)
    - …
    - Very High (7)

11. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements (Strongly Disagree = 1 – Strongly Agree = 7):
    - This campaign will have a meaningful impact on children’s lives
    - Businesses in my area should become involved in campaigns like this
    - I would be interested in purchasing from this store
12. Please tell us a bit more about the advertisement you just viewed (manipulation check question dependent on condition assignment):

(Temporal condition) The campaign in the previous advertisement will affect children:

- In the Near Future (1)
- ...
- In the Distant Future (7)

(Spatial condition) The campaign in the previous advertisement will affect children:

- Near Me (1)
- ...
- Far From Me (7)

(Hypothetical condition) The likelihood of this campaign having a meaningful impact is:

- Very Unlikely (1)
- ...
- Very Likely (7)

(Social condition) The campaign in the previous advertisement will affect children:

- Similar to Children I Know (1)
- ...
- Different from Children I Know (7)

13. Far-oriented ad

14. I found the message in this advertisement:

- Very Unpleasant (1)
- ...
- Very Pleasant (7)

15. The advertisement:

- Left Me With A Bad Feeling (1)
- ...

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• Left Me With A Good Feeling (7)

16. I:
• Disliked It Very Much (1)
• …
• Liked It Very Much (7)

17. My willingness to purchase from a store advertising this campaign is:
• Very Low (1)
• …
• Very High (7)

18. The probably that I would consider shopping at this store is:
• Very Low (1)
• …
• Very High (7)

19. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements (Strongly Disagree = 1 – Strongly Agree = 7):
• This campaign will have a meaningful impact on children’s lives
• Businesses in my area should become involved in campaigns like this
• I would be interested in purchasing from this store

20. Please tell us a bit more about the advertisement you just viewed (manipulation check question dependent on condition assignment):

(Temporal condition) The campaign in the previous advertisement will affect children:
• In the Near Future (1)
• …
• In the Distant Future (7)

(Spatial condition) The campaign in the previous advertisement will affect children:
• Near Me (1)
• …
• Far From Me (7)
(Hypothetical condition) The likelihood of this campaign having a meaningful impact is:

- Very Unlikely (1)
- …
- Very Likely (7)

(Social condition) The campaign in the previous advertisement will affect children:

- Similar to Children I Know (1)
- …
- Different from Children I Know (7)

21. Control Ad

22. I found the message in this advertisement:

- Very Unpleasant (1)
- …
- Very Pleasant (7)

23. The advertisement:

- Left Me With A Bad Feeling (1)
- …
- Left Me With A Good Feeling (7)

24. I:

- Disliked It Very Much (1)
- …
- Liked It Very Much (7)

25. My willingness to purchase from a store advertising this campaign is:

- Very Low (1)
- …
- Very High (7)

26. The probably that I would consider shopping at this store is:

- Very Low (1)
- …
- Very High (7)
27. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements (Strongly Disagree = 1 – Strongly Agree = 7):

- This campaign will have a meaningful impact on children’s lives
- Businesses in my area should become involved in campaigns like this
- I would be interested in purchasing from this store

28. Please tell us a bit more about the advertisement you just viewed (manipulation check question dependent on condition assignment):

(Temporal condition) The campaign in the previous advertisement will affect children:

- In the Near Future (1)
- …
- In the Distant Future (7)

(Spatial condition) The campaign in the previous advertisement will affect children:

- Near Me (1)
- …
- Far From Me (7)

(Hypothetical condition) The likelihood of this campaign having a meaningful impact is:

- Very Likely (1)
- …
- Very Unlikely (7)

(Social condition) The campaign in the previous advertisement will affect children:

- Similar to Children I Know (1)
- …
- Different from Children I Know (7)
29. These questions ask about your general approach to time. Please respond to the following statements on a scale of 1-7, where 1=Very Untrue and 7=Very True

- I believe that a person's day should be planned ahead each morning.
- When I want to achieve something, I set goals and consider specific means for reaching those goals.
- Meeting tomorrow's deadlines and doing other necessary work come before tonight's play.
- It upsets me to be late for appointments.
- I meet my obligations to friends and authorities on time.
- I feel that it's more important to enjoy what you're doing than to get work done on time.
- It is more important to enjoy life's journey than to focus only on the destination.
- It takes joy out of the process and flow of my activities if I have to think about goals, outcomes, and products.
- You can't really plan for the future because things change so much.
- It doesn't make sense to worry about the future, since there is nothing that I can do about it anyway.
- I complete projects on time by making steady progress.
- I make lists of things to do.
- I am able to resist temptations when I know that there is work to be done.
- I keep working at difficult, uninteresting tasks if they will help me get ahead.
- Spending what I earn on pleasures today is better than saving for tomorrow's security.

30. To me, things that will happen ten years in the future seem:

- Very Far Away in Time (1)
- ...
- Very Near in Time (7)

31. When I make an important decision, I consider the impact it will have many years in the future:

- Strongly Disagree (1)
- ...
- Strongly Agree (7)
32. These questions deal with how you view uncertainty. Please respond to the following statements on a scale of 1-5, where 1=Not At All Characteristic and 5=Entirely Characteristic

- Unforeseen events upset me greatly.
- It frustrates me not having all the information I need.
- Uncertainty keeps me from living a full life.
- One should always look ahead so as to avoid surprises.
- A small unforeseen event can spoil everything, even with the best planning.
- When it’s time to act, uncertainty paralyses me.
- When I am uncertain, I can’t function very well.
- I always want to know what the future has in store for me.
- I can’t stand being taken by surprise.
- The smallest doubt can stop me from acting.
- I should be able to organize everything in advance.
- I must get away from all uncertain situations.

33. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements (Strongly Disagree = 1 – Strongly Agree = 7):

- I need to be sure of the outcome before I make a decision.
- I feel comfortable making decisions in uncertain situations.
- If I’m not sure my decisions will have the effect I want, I’ll look for more options rather than take a chance.

34. I consider my way of thinking to be:

- Very Abstract (1)
- ...
- Very Concrete (7)

35. When the weather forecast predicts a 40% chance of rain, I find the information:

- Very Unhelpful (1)
- ...
- Very Helpful (7)

36. These questions ask about how you view people from other countries. Please respond to the following statements on a scale of 1-7, where 1=Strongly Disagree and 7=Strongly Agree.
• Most other countries are backward compared to my country.
• Other countries should try to be more like my country.
• I have little respect for the values and customs of other countries.
• Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my country.
• Lifestyles in other countries are not as valid as those in my country.
• My country should try to be more like other countries.
• I respect the values and customs of other countries.
• Travelling helps make people more well-rounded.
• The world is a global village.
• The struggles of people in other nations are everyone’s concern.
• It is important to see other parts of the world.
• Events happening on the other side of the world are not important to me.
• Please answer "Neither Agree nor Disagree" for this question

37. These questions ask about your view on people who may be in different social groups from yourself. Please indicate your level of comfort with each of the following groups of people. Select the highest number you would feel comfortable with. I would be comfortable having members of the following group as (1 = I would exclude this group from my country, 2 = A visitor in my country, 3 = A citizen in my country, 4 = A co-worker, 5 = A neighbour down the street, 6 = A close personal friend, 7 = A relative by marriage):

• Africans
• Arabs
• British
• Buddhists
• Canadians
• Chinese
• Christians
• French
• Germans
• Hindus
• Homosexuals
• Italians
• Japanese
• Jews
• Mexicans
• Muslims
• Russians
• Transgendered

38. Please respond to the following statements on a scale of 1-7, where 1=Strongly Disagree and 7=Strongly Agree.

• It is important to have a diverse group of friends.
• I have close friends who are of a different race.
• People should generally stick to their own kind.
• I have close friends who are from other countries.
• I prefer my friends to have a similar background to me.
• I could be friends with someone of any race.

39. Please respond to the following statements on a scale of 1-7, where 1=Strongly Disagree and 7=Strongly Agree.

• It is worthless for the individual consumer to do anything about the world’s problems.
• When I buy products, I try to consider how my use of them will affect the world and other consumers.
• Since one person cannot have any effect upon the world’s problems, it doesn’t make any difference what I do.
• Each consumer’s behaviour can have a positive effect on society by purchasing products sold by socially responsible companies.

40. Now we would like to ask about some general personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is true or false as it pertains to you personally.

• I like to gossip at times.
• There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.
• I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.
• I always try to practice what I preach.
• I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.
• At times I have really insisted on having things my own way.
• There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.
• I never resent being asked to return a favor.
• I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.
• I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.

41. Now we would like to learn about you, as a consumer. Please respond to the following statements on a scale of 1-7, where 1=Strongly Disagree and 7=Strongly Agree.

• I think of myself as a socially-responsible consumer.
• Being someone who is socially responsible is an important part of who I am.
• I think of myself as an ethical consumer.

42. Now we would like to know about your attitude towards different types of children's charities. Please respond to the following statements on a scale of 1-7, where 1=Not at all Important and 7=Extremely Important.

• I feel that the work done by children's health charities is...
• I feel that the work done by children's education charities is...

43. Finally, we'd like to know what you thought of this survey. Did you have difficulty answering any of the questions? What were your overall impressions of the survey? Please share any comments you may have about the survey.

44. As part of our research project on non-profit organization advertising, we have funds to donate to a non-profit organization. We can make a $5 donation to the CHILDREN'S HEALTH FUND (WORLD VISION), a non-profit organization that HELPS CHILDREN IN COMMUNITIES JUST LIKE YOURS across the United States (HELPS CHILDREN IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES), for each person who activates the donation by following the steps described below. You'll receive credit for participating in this study whether or not you choose to activate this OPTIONAL non-profit donation. We'd like to know your feelings about this idea either way. If you do not wish to activate the donation, simply answer the final few questions on this page and indicate your choice at the bottom. If you do wish to activate the donation, please do the following:

1. Think of a short code that will allow us to link your survey responses here with the donation request, without personally identifying you, so your survey responses remain anonymous. Think of something that will be easy for you to remember.

2. After continuing to the next page, enter your code in the box provided.

3. Send an email WITH THE CODE to the email address you will see on the final page.
4. We will make a $5 donation to the CHILDREN'S HEALTH FUND (WORLD VISION) for you.

45. Learning about this donation makes me…
   - Displeased (1)
   - …
   - Pleased (7)

46. I…
   - Dislike this idea very much (1)
   - …
   - Like this idea very much (7)

47. Learning about this donation…
   - Left me with a bad feeling (1)
   - …
   - Left me with a good feeling (7)

48. The $5 donation will impact children who live…
   - Near me (1)
   - …
   - Far away from me (7)

49. Would you like to take a few minutes to authorize this donation?
   - Yes, I would like to authorize the donation.
   - No, take me to the end of the survey.
Appendix D

Shop for Kids!
Our fifth annual fundraiser to benefit children

LAUNCHING NEW SCHOOL PROGRAM TO HELP CHILDREN NEXT WEEK

This month, your purchases at FoodMart can help make a difference in the lives of children.

For every dollar you spend, FoodMart will donate 10 cents to Kid Help, a charity that helps fund school programs for children. The programs will be available next week.
Shop for Kids!

Our fifth annual fundraiser to benefit children

LAUNCHING NEW HEALTH PROGRAM TO HELP CHILDREN IN TEN YEARS

This month, your purchases at FoodMart can help make a difference in the lives of children.

For every dollar you spend, FoodMart will donate 10 cents to Kid Help, a charity that helps fund health programs for children. The programs will be available in ten years.
Shop for Kids!
Our fifth annual fundraiser to benefit children

LAUNCHING NEW PROGRAM TO HELP CHILDREN

This month, your purchases at FoodMart can help make a difference in the lives of children.

For every dollar you spend, FoodMart will donate 10 cents to Kid Help, a charity that helps children.