

12-15-2018

Corporate Social Responsibility and Consumer Purchase Behavior: The Moderating Role of Self-Presentation

Mandy May Walsh
mandywalsh123@gmail.com

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/thesesdissertations>



Part of the [Social Psychology Commons](#)

Repository Citation

Walsh, Mandy May, "Corporate Social Responsibility and Consumer Purchase Behavior: The Moderating Role of Self-Presentation" (2018). *UNLV Theses, Dissertations, Professional Papers, and Capstones*. 3461. <https://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/thesesdissertations/3461>

This Dissertation is protected by copyright and/or related rights. It has been brought to you by Digital Scholarship@UNLV with permission from the rights-holder(s). You are free to use this Dissertation in any way that is permitted by the copyright and related rights legislation that applies to your use. For other uses you need to obtain permission from the rights-holder(s) directly, unless additional rights are indicated by a Creative Commons license in the record and/or on the work itself.

This Dissertation has been accepted for inclusion in UNLV Theses, Dissertations, Professional Papers, and Capstones by an authorized administrator of Digital Scholarship@UNLV. For more information, please contact digitalscholarship@unlv.edu.

CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AND CONSUMER PURCHASE BEHAVIOR:
THE MODERATING ROLE OF SELF-PRESENTATION

By

Mandy May Walsh

Bachelor of Arts – Psychology
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
2013

Master of Arts – Psychology
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
2016

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the

Doctor of Philosophy – Psychology

Department of Psychology
College of Liberal Arts
The Graduate College

University of Nevada, Las Vegas
December 2018

Copyright 2018 by Mandy Walsh

All Rights Reserved

Dissertation Approval

The Graduate College
The University of Nevada, Las Vegas

October 29, 2018

This dissertation prepared by

Mandy May Walsh

entitled

Corporate Social Responsibility and Consumer Purchase Behavior: The Moderating Role
of Self-Presentation

is approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy – Psychology
Department of Psychology

Murray Millar, Ph.D.
Examination Committee Chair

Kathryn Hausbeck Korgan, Ph.D.
Graduate College Interim Dean

Janice McMurray, Ph.D.
Examination Committee Co-Chair

Gloria Wong-Padoongpatt, Ph.D.
Examination Committee Member

Peter Gray, Ph.D.
Graduate College Faculty Representative

Abstract

In recent years, companies have experienced increasing pressure to integrate corporate social responsibility (CSR) into their organizational structure. The relationship between a company's investment in CSR and overall revenue, however, is still under debate in the current literature as research has focused on correlations and consumer purchase intentions (e.g., Auger, Burke, Devinney, & Louviere, 2003; Dutta & Singh, 2013; Klein & Dawar, 2004; Maignan, 2001; Mohr & Webb 2005; Mohr, Webb, & Harris, 2001; Nanda, 2015; Wigley, 2008). Findings from previous studies have not yet assessed actual purchase behavior or potential moderating variables impacting this relationship. Therefore, this dissertation examined the moderating role of self-presentation on the relationship between corporate social responsibility (CSR) and consumer purchase decisions. To test the moderating role of self-presentation, two studies were conducted. Study one examined the effects of an experimental manipulation designed to either increase or decrease the salience of self-presentation concerns on overall purchase intentions. Results showed the manipulation of the salience of self-presentation concerns (e.g., high, low) did not produce differences in participants' perceived price fairness, value, benefit, or purchase intention. Study two examined the relationship between participants' actual self-presentation strategies and actual purchase behavior. The results from study two revealed a strong association between the two variables. While the hypothesis was only partially supported, these findings provide valuable insight into a potential variable moderating the relationship between CSR and consumer purchase decisions.

Table of Contents

Abstract.....	iii
List of Tables.....	vi
List of Figures.....	vii
Chapter 1: Corporate Social Responsibility.....	1
Chapter 2: Self-Presentation Theory.....	8
Chapter 3: Prosocial Behavior.....	26
Chapter 4: Current Research.....	40
Chapter 5: Discussion.....	63
Appendix A.....	75
Appendix B.....	76
Appendix C.....	78
Appendix D.....	80
Appendix E.....	81
Appendix F.....	83
Appendix G.....	84
Appendix H.....	85
Appendix I.....	88
Appendix J.....	89
Appendix K.....	90
Appendix L.....	91
Appendix M.....	92
Appendix N.....	93
Appendix O.....	94
Appendix P.....	96
Appendix Q.....	97
Appendix R.....	98
Appendix S.....	99

Appendix T.....	100
Appendix U.....	101
Appendix V.....	102
Appendix W.....	103
Appendix X.....	104
Appendix Y.....	105
Appendix Z.....	106
Appendix AA.....	107
References.....	108
Curriculum Vitae.....	146

List of Tables

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Pilot Study Participants.....	75
Table 2. Demographic Characteristics of Study One Participants.....	84
Table 3. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Manipulation, CSR, Price Difference, and Self-monitoring Predicting Price Fairness.....	94
Table 4. Demographic Characteristics of Study Two Participants.....	96
Table 5. Means and Standard Deviations for Companies' Perceived CSR Efforts and Participants' Visibility of the Companies.....	98
Table 6. Pearson's Product-Moment Correlations for Scores on Impression Management Tactics, Moderators, and Companies' Perceived CSR Efforts.....	99
Table 7. Pearson's Product-Moment Correlations for Scores on Impression Management Tactics, Moderators, and Companies' Perceived CSR Efforts Among Females.....	100
Table 8. Pearson's Product-Moment Correlations for Scores on Impression Management Tactics, Moderators, and Companies' Perceived CSR Efforts Among Males.....	101
Table 9. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Overall Impression Management and Generation Predicting Overall Visibility	102
Table 10. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Overall Impression Management and Education Predicting Overall Perceived CSR Efforts.....	104
Table 11. Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Overall Impression Management and Conscientiousness Predicting Overall Visibility.....	106

List of Figures

Figure 1. Differences in value mean scores across salience of self-presentation concerns (e.g., high, low) and presence of CSR (e.g., CSR, No CSR).....	93
Figure 2. Interaction effect between generation and overall impression management on overall visibility of the companies.....	103
Figure 3. Interaction effect between education level and overall impression management on overall perceived CSR efforts.....	105
Figure 4. Interaction effect between conscientiousness and overall impression management on overall visibility of the companies.....	107

Chapter 1: Corporate Social Responsibility

The state of business is currently shifting as issues of trust and credibility among consumers are on the rise (Edelman Trust Barometer, 2018). Many consumers no longer allow companies to remain passive, and are beginning to expect companies to look beyond their bottom line by making a positive impact on the world (Edelman Trust Barometer, 2018; Makower, 2018). This shift in consumer expectations is disrupting the current state of business, as many companies have to actively rework their strategy, business directives, and organizational structure to accommodate the growing demands of conscious consumers (BSR & Globe Scan, 2018; Makower, 2018). Importantly, all of this is taking place in a politically heated social climate – essentially forcing many companies to take a stand, support a cause, or make their perspectives on hot-button issues known. And, with the rise of omnipresent social media, consumers are actively engaging with companies and each other at rates that seem to be unprecedented, and are demanding transparency from every industry and sector (Cone, 2018; Edelman Trust Barometer, 2018). In the midst of this charged environment, many companies have accepted the challenge and are proactively working to make a difference for the better by integrating corporate social responsibility into their organizational structures and business strategies (BSR & Globe Scan, 2018; Makower, 2018).

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) is the act of voluntarily integrating ethical and moral concerns into an organization's operations and decision-making behavior (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006). This definition, while now concise, has been refined and tailored for several decades. CSR is a relatively new concept, and has only been developed in the last 60 years (Farcane & Bureana, 2015). The concept of CSR first appeared in the Harvard Business Review in 1949. Bernard Dempsey, an economist, published an article arguing that businesses should

take interest in public activities (Farcane & Bureana, 2015). Dempsey believed that businesses are ethically obligated to partake in "business responsibility" as they are part of a larger community and should utilize their resources for the greater good (Farcane & Bureana, 2015). Although this ideology skewed a bit altruistic, it nonetheless gained wide spread attention from both the business and non-business worlds. This concept was eventually formalized by Howard Bowen, who helped launch CSR into the modern era (Bowen, 1953). Bowen (1953) focused on uncovering the extent to which organizations should be socially responsible. According to Bowen (1953), powerful businesses have extraordinary decision making capabilities that touch the lives of everyday citizens (Carroll, 1999). As such, these decisions must work towards the ethics and values of our society. His work laid the foundation of CSR for the next several decades, and he is considered by many to be the 'father of CSR' (Carroll, 1979, 1999, 2008; Garriga & Melé, 2004; Hill & Langan, 2014; Lee, 2008; Preston, 1975; Wood, 1991a, 1991b).

Today, CSR can be thought of as a company-wide program that is integrated into an organization's core structure. These programs are often concerned with complex issues such as sustainability, environmental protection, diversity, safety at work, philanthropy, community development, and human resources management (Branco & Rodrigues, 2006; Joseph, 2009). In general, the specifics of the CSR program are aligned with the companies' overall goals and mission. For example, Cirque du Soleil, an entertainment company and theatrical producer, implements a CSR program focusing on four areas: 1) the environment (e.g., water management, waste management, reduction of environmental impact), 2) responsible procurement (e.g., commercial products respect workers' rights and are environmentally friendly), 3) business relations (e.g., adopt best practices in industry), and 4) the workplace (e.g., ensure diverse representation; "Cirque du Soleil," 2018). Another example of a CSR program fully integrated

into a company's mission is Southwest Airline's 'Southwest Citizenship'. This CSR program focuses on four pillars: 1) environmental initiatives (e.g., fuel conservation, emissions reduction), 2) charitable giving (e.g., free flights for disaster relief, non-profits, or medical emergencies), 3) supplier diversity (e.g., work with sustainable and diverse suppliers), and 4) the LUV Classic Charity Golf Tournament and Party to raise awareness for children's charities ("Southwest Citizenship," 2018).

Corporate social responsibility is at the front and center of most major organizations. Companies are under pressure to adopt such programs as CSR continues to gain media attention and standards for social performance continue to increase (Pirsch, Gupta, & Grau, 2007; Zyglidopoulou, Georgiadis, Carroll, & Siegeld, 2012). As such, many organizations find it necessary to proactively define their roles in society, and intertwine these ethical and social standards into their business practices (Lichtenstein, Drumwright, & Braig, 2004). In fact, there are numerous benefits to adopting a CSR program such as attracting and retaining employees, gaining competitive advantage, crisis management, and possibly increasing revenue.

Employees. Much of the literature on CSR assesses its ability to help a company attract, motivate, and retain qualified employees (Albinger & Freeman, 2000; Flammer, 2013; Greening & Turban, 2000; Peterson, 2004; Pteffer, 1994; Turban & Greening, 1996; Vogel, 2005). For example, Story, Castanheira, and Hartig (2015) asked master's degree students to read a job posting and rate the attractiveness of the job (e.g., organizational attractiveness). Organizational attractiveness was rated using five statements, and included items about interest in applying, exerted effort to work for the company, desire to work for the company, willingness to accept the job, and a reversed statement of one's disinterest in the company. Students were randomly assigned to one of two conditions (e.g., job posting that included company's CSR efforts, job

posting that lacked CSR information). Results showed that students were more attracted to job postings that included CSR efforts than those who lacked such information (Story, Castanheira, & Hartig, 2015). Thus, CSR can have an effective role in enticing potential employees.

Similarly, Ohlrich (2015) conducted interviews with employees of various corporations to assess the impact CSR had on their original attraction to the company. Findings from the interviews suggest that CSR had a positive impact on job attraction. More specifically, employees were attracted to the values communicated via the CSR initiatives as many wanted to work for a company that improved society (Ohlrich, 2015). These initiatives allow companies to promote their values in an attractive manner, allowing them to stand out to prospective applicants.

Beyond initial attraction, CSR can also help retain employees. For example, Barakat, Isabella, Boaventura, and Mazzon (2016) conducted a study with 85,167 employees in 381 companies. Employees filled out various questionnaires about their companies' CSR programs and job satisfaction. The results showed that CSR programs positively correlated with job satisfaction (Barakat, Isabella, Boaventura, & Mazzon, 2016). These results are important as they suggest a win-win scenario where both the employees and the company benefit from CSR.

Competitive advantage. A strategic goal for most organizations is to gain a competitive advantage within their given industry – ultimately increasing revenue and outperforming their competitors. Therefore, it is of little surprise that chief financial officers and those in charge of CSR programs claim that a main driver to engage in CSR is to gain a competitive position (McKinsey Quarterly, 2009). For example, previous research has found that many consumers consider a company's ethical, moral, and/or social behaviors (e.g., CSR) as a tie-breaker when deciding between seemingly identical products (Grocery Manufacturers Association & Deloitte, 2000; IO Sustainability, 2015). This suggests that CSR can actually persuade consumers to

prefer one company's product over another's when other factors are at parity. Further, companies successfully implementing CSR initiatives can enhance their reputation and image, and generate aggregate value (Filho, Wanderley, Gomez, & Farache, 2010). In fact, consumers are more favorable towards, likely to purchase from, and likely to advocate for a company with CSR initiatives than those without (Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2011). But simply having a CSR program is not always enough to gain a competitive edge; for example, some companies need to encourage consumers to engage with their CSR efforts in order to reap such benefits. For example, a major oral care company launched a CSR program focused on providing oral health care services and education to families in economically disadvantaged communities (Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2011). Parents and children who engaged with, or participated in, this CSR program received oral hygiene curriculum, oral care products, and low-cost oral care services. Du, Bhattacharya, and Sen (2011) found that families who engaged with the CSR program had more favorable attitudes and behaviors (e.g., preferred to buy from this company over its competitor) than families who did not towards the oral care company. Thus, CSR initiatives have the potential to convert everyday consumers into dedicated advocates – allowing a company to gain a competitive advantage within the marketplace.

Crisis management. While an organization can take every necessary precaution to prevent a crisis (e.g., defective products, dangerous products, scandals, data breach), these events are often unforeseen and of rapid progression. These crises may produce negative consequences such as harm to a company's reputation, negative publicity, and even a drop in sales (Dean, 2004; Van Heerde, Helsen, & Dekimpe, 2007). Fortunately, there are ways reputable companies can mitigate these harmful effects. For example, a strong reputation creates a halo effect to protect the company during the crisis (Coombs & Holladay, 2006). Consumers perceive the

crisis as less serious and are likely to repurchase from a company when it has a favorable reputation (Siomkos & Kurzbard, 1994). Previous research has found that a major component of a good reputation is CSR. CSR generates numerous reputational benefits for a company, including positive brand evaluations, positive product evaluations, company attractiveness, enhancement in company image, brand preference, brand loyalty, and brand advocacy (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Drumwright, 1994; Du et al., 2007; Handelman & Arnold, 1999; Oppewal et al., 2005; Osterhus, 1997; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001; Sen et al., 2006). Thus, CSR can be used as an effective strategic tool to manage and even minimize the danger of a crisis.

Increase revenue. The relationship between CSR and financial performance is under great debate in the literature, and previous research yields inconclusive findings. The current literature focuses heavily on consumer purchase intentions (e.g., Auger, Burke, Devinney, & Louviere, 2003; Dutta & Singh, 2013; Klein & Dawar, 2004; Maignan, 2001; Mohr & Webb 2005; Mohr, Webb, & Harris, 2001; Nanda, 2015; Smith & Alcorn, 1991; Wigley, 2008), rather than actual purchase behavior. These findings are often taken at face value, leaving many to believe consumers will follow through with this when they actually make a purchase. Other research in the literature focuses on the correlational relationship between revenue and CSR. Wang, Dou, and Jia (2016) conducted a meta-analysis to assess the CSR-financial performance relationship. After examining 42 studies and 119 effect sizes ranging from $-.5.18$ to $.653$, the authors concluded there is strong evidence that suggests CSR may increase a company's financial performance (Wang, Dou, & Jia, 2016). Similarly, Orlitzky, Schmidt, and Rynes (2003) conducted a meta-analysis of 52 studies and found a positive association between CSR and financial performance, regardless of industry.

Importantly, these findings only shed light on the positive correlation between revenue and CSR, and lack a deeper understanding of causation (i.e., why does CSR cause revenue to increase?), leaving researchers to question what is effecting the relationship between a company's CSR and consumer purchase decisions. In order to understand this, researchers must take a step back and explore why, if at all, consumers purchase from companies with CSR programs. To help answer this question, the following literature review provides a thorough background on self-presentation theory, and introduces the idea that self-presentation may be moderating this relationship. This has many real-world applications as not only does it strengthen the argument for adopting and incorporating such programs, it has major implications on companies' marketing and communication strategies as they have the opportunity to leverage consumers' desires to manage their self-presentation and to tailor advertising that reflects the need to appear prosocial.

Chapter 2: Self-Presentation Theory

Erving Goffman theorized self-presentation, or impression management, in *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life* (1956; 1959). Research examining self-presentation assesses how individuals manage the impressions others form of them; thus, these two terms (e.g., self-presentation, impression management) are interchangeable throughout the literature. When individuals engage in self-presentation, they use specific tactics in order to project desirable impressions to others (Baumeister, 1982). Goffman (1959) equates social interactions to a theater, where each person is an individual actor and others within social interactions are the audience. Further, every face-to-face interaction has a front stage and back stage — similar to a theater (Goffman, 1959). Actors, who play their roles on the front stage, are cognizant of the audience's expectations, which dictate how actors portrays themselves (i.e., actors manage their self-presentations to accommodate the audience and situation). As individuals participate in various social interactions, they manipulate their self-presentation to create strategically appropriate images of themselves. Unlike the front stage, the backstage can only be viewed by the actor. Goffman (1959) suggests the backstage is the only place actors can truly be themselves. Self-presentation theory suggests the 'self' is not an independent entity nor a precursor to human interaction, but rather a social process dependent on face-to-face interactions and their outcomes.

Motives for Engaging in Self-Presentation Behaviors

Successfully implementing a self-presentation requires an actor to be aware of the audiences' behaviors and expectations, to appear genuine and sincere, to be accountable to claims and behaviors, and to be mindful of an audience's ability to assess the veracity of a claim (Goffman, 1959; Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Schlenker & Leary, 1982; Tseëlon, 1992). Clearly,

much effort is required of an actor to implement a self-presentation; therefore, the question remains as to the need of managing the impressions of others. Why is it necessary for an audience to form a specific impression of an actor? Researchers have found that managing self-presentations provide actors with opportunities to obtain rewards, solidify identities, and/or facilitate social relationships.

Obtain rewards. First, managing a self-presentation may enable an actor to obtain social or material rewards. Obtaining such rewards often requires individuals to gain power over others (Jones, 1990; Tedeschi & Norman, 1985); or, more specifically, to control the social interaction. Controlling the social interaction allows individuals to more easily manipulate how others perceive them. For example, an employee may desire material rewards (e.g., raise), thus recognizing the need to be perceived as hardworking, ethical, and committed by supervisors. If the employee can successfully manage the social interaction and convince the employer of the projected traits, it may result in a raise and/or promotion. Individuals may also manage their self-presentation (e.g., wear makeup, lend a helping hand) to elicit social rewards such as praise and compliments (Leary & Kowalski, 1990).

Solidify identity. Second, individuals may manage their self-presentation to help solidify an identity in specific social interactions. Specifically, individuals may attempt to convince others they have particular attributes and traits as a means of convincing themselves. For example, young employees in the job market may solidify their identity as competent, qualified, and successful business professionals by dressing, speaking, and behaving as business professionals should. Similarly, adolescents often test various identities (e.g., appearance, mannerisms, clothing) to compare and take note of how others (e.g., family, friends, peers) perceive them. In fact, young adolescents are more likely than their older peers to develop and

experiment with various identities online (Valkenburg, Schouten, & Peter, 2005). Importantly, this internet-based identity exploration allows adolescents a special environment to test and monitor reactions via the internet (Valkenburg, Schouten & Peter, 2005). It seems likely the anonymity of the internet, compared to in-person interactions, provides a safer environment to play with and shape identities prior to testing them in face-to-face interactions. Individuals may also engage in self-presentation to increase their self-esteem. For example, they may convince others they are attractive, capable, talented, and/or smart as a way to convince themselves; therefore, enhancing their self-esteem. Recently, researchers explored the underlying motivations that drive the need to post selfies on social media (Pounders, Kowalczyk, & Stowers, 2016). Results showed that posting selfies allowed individuals to appear physically attractive and happy, and to enhance their self-esteem (i.e., getting 'likes' in an attractive selfie made participants feel positive and confident; Pounders, Kowalczyk, & Stowers, 2016). These findings suggest posting highlights of one's life on social media may boost self-esteem by creating a self-perception of having a fulfilling life and being attractive.

Facilitate social relationships. Individuals may manage their self-presentation to avoid conflict and reduce tension. This often results in people misrepresenting themselves or masking their true beliefs or feelings in order to conform to social norms (Brown, 1998). For example, individuals might compliment a piece of jewelry they believe to be unflattering or claim to agree with others' political views. Doing so allows individuals to avoid awkward or unpleasant social interactions as well as any negative perceptions that may result from such situations. In fact, finding similar ground and acting friendly towards strangers helps increase the likelihood of forming strong social bonds while decreasing the likelihood of social exclusion (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). This is evident in unfamiliar social environments, such as meeting a spouses'

family or starting a new job, as individuals often suppress negative emotions and thoughts that may result in unwanted social stigmas (Clark & Taraban, 1991). Interestingly, research has found that individuals experiencing stress in novel social situations smile more compared to situations in which they experience stress while alone (Ansfield, 2007). Clearly, it is advantageous to appear calm and happy in front of others than to reveal one's frantic or stressful thoughts. Conversely, individuals are less likely to engage in self-presentation when in the presence of familiar friends than with strangers (Tice et al., 1995). It is likely they feel more comfortable expressing their true-selves around familiar audiences (e.g., best friends, family), and feel less of a need to use impression management tactics. Thus, it can be concluded that the importance of forming new relationships largely influences how one manages self-presentation. In fact, Baumeister and Leary (1995) suggest humans are intrinsically motivated to build and maintain social relationships in order to avoid negative consequences of being socially excluded. Impression management provides individuals the opportunity to express themselves in a desirable way to develop and maintain those social ties. Further, research suggests the perceptions others form of particular individuals may impact how the larger social group perceives or act towards them (Leary & Kowalski, 1990). Thus, self-presentation can facilitate social relationships while also helping to form larger social networks.

Tactics to Manage Self-Presentation

Goffman's (1959) work has inspired researchers to explore various components of self-presentation, including the identification and classification of specific impression management tactics (Bolino, Kacmar, Turnley, & Gilstrapal, 2008). To better understand these individual tactics, researchers have classified them into ten main categories: 1) exemplification, 2) intimidation, 3) supplication, 4) self-promotion, 5) ingratiation, 6) account giving, 7) preemptive

excuse making, 8) self-handicapping, 9) basking in reflected glory, and 10) prosociality. Please note, prosocial behaviors will be reviewed separately in a later section.

Exemplification. Individuals may use exemplification tactics to appear morally superior, righteous, and honest (Burusic & Rubar, 2014), and to make an audience believe their actions are worthy and exemplary (Jones & Pittman, 1982). Individuals who engage in exemplification leverage behaviors (e.g., extreme dedication, martyrdom, exaggerating about one's hardships) that demonstrate discipline, personal integrity, effectiveness, and moral responsibility (Brown, Stocks, & Wilder, 2006; Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998).

Exemplification is especially beneficial for employees in organizations. For example, employees may arrive to work early and stay afterhours, take shorter and/or fewer vacations, work while sick, and remain continuously reachable to employers – ultimately creating an impression of a hardworking and dedicated employee (Long, 2017). In fact, previous research has found these tactics to be successful in creating such an image. Liu, Loi, and Lam (2013) asked supervisors at various car dealerships to rate salespeople on various measures, including ethical leadership, performance, and exemplification. The researchers found that employees who used exemplification tactics earned higher performance ratings from their supervisors. These results suggest that supervisors form more positive perceptions of employees who use exemplification tactics than employees who do not. Further, employees who engage in exemplification tactics are perceived as vital to a company's success (Aguinis & O'Boyle, 2014; Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; Johns, 2010). It is possible that exemplification tactics are successful in the workplace because employers rely on employees who are dedicated and dependable compared to employees who put forth minimal effort.

Intimidation. Individuals who engage in intimidation tactics may act threatening or intimidating to be perceived as dangerous or forceful (Harris, Kacmar, Zivnuska, & Shaw, 2007). Specific intimidation tactics include pressure, threats, and bullying as a means to produce fear in others. For example, an employer may act hard, strict and unforgiving to intimidate employees. Likewise, employees may use such tactics on peers in an effort to create an impression of being powerful. While intimidation may seem relatively negative compared to other self-presentation tactics, it has the ability to set individuals apart from others by presenting themselves as dominant and strong (Whitaker & Dahling, 2013). As a result, intimidation tactics can be strategic within organizations. For example, employees who engage in these tactics are viewed more positively by their managers (Wayne, Liden, Graf, & Ferris, 1997) and also receive more positive performance evaluations (Bolino & Turnley, 2003a) than those who do not. A more recent study assessed MBA students on a variety of attributes and behaviors, including autonomy, intimidation, and personality, while the students' employers evaluated them on a variety of traits (Whitaker & Dahling, 2013). Results showed that employers gave higher ratings of promotability to MBA students who engaged in intimidation tactics in the workplace than those who lacked such tendencies. Conversely, intimidation tactics may be used by supervisors to help subordinates improve their abilities and achieve goals in the work place (Yukl & Tracy, 1992). Other researchers, however, have found that intimidation tactics can also be used to appear aggressive and threatening. For example, intimidation tactics are extremely prominent in the political and/or business sphere. Research has found that wrongdoers often use intimidation tactics to prevent and/or deter whistleblowers from publicly reporting their malevolent actions (Gundlach, Douglas, & Martinko, 2003). Essentially, these intimidation tactics are used to invoke a sense of fear in whistleblowers.

Supplication. Individuals engage in supplication by exaggerating their inabilities or weaknesses to gain sympathy or help from others (Bolino & Turnley, 1999; Gibson & Sachau, 2000). Individuals who engage in supplication are intentionally showing their weakness in order to minimize damage to their image (Wang, 2015). Supplication includes tactics such as playing helpless or self-deprecation. For example, claiming ignorance of a specific task, such as being unaware of how to play tennis, may minimize the negative judgment of others should an individual play poorly. While these behaviors have the potential to make someone look helpless or weak, individuals often use supplication tactics in an effort to attract and reward helpers (Gardner & Cleavenger, 1998). As such, supplication has very practical applications and can greatly benefit the individual using such tactics. For example, politicians are viewed more positively and receive greater support from voters when they explicitly claim to be the underdog in a political race (Goldschmied & Vandello, 2009). In fact, publicizing one's lack of experience or limitations can encourage others to help or pitch in (Nagy, Kacmkar, & Harris, 2011). Researchers examined applications submitted by entrepreneurs and start-ups to an investment network (Parhankangas & Ehrlich, 2013). Each applicant prepared a detailed report including investments, employees, and finances. Researchers then coded the applications for the use of impression management tactics. Results showed applicants who used supplication tactics (e.g., admitting to needing help) were perceived as trustworthy and honest by potential investors. Therefore, stating a deficiency or limitation has the potential to benefit an individual as it minimizes the damage caused by appearing weak and allows one to create an impression of being open and honest.

Self-promotion. Self-promotion allows individuals to appear confident. For example, individuals may create an impression of being capable, intelligent, or gifted by bragging about

their cunning or boasting about their talents. Similar to previous tactics, this may result in positive consequences within the workplace. For example, researchers asked New York state legislative interns to complete a survey about their predicted future income, abilities, characteristics, and attributes (Giacalone & Rosenfeld, 2000). The interns were randomly assigned to one of two survey instructions (e.g., write their name on the survey, do not write their name on the survey). After completing the survey, the interns were then randomly assigned to either turn their survey in to another intern or program director. The researchers found that interns used more self-promotion tactics when their survey was public (e.g., included their name) and turned in to a program director. These findings suggest that when information about one's abilities may become public, individuals might actually boast or exaggerate their abilities in order to appear more competent.

Ingratiation. Individuals engage in ingratiation tactics so that others will prescribe positive traits to them (Jones, 1990). In fact, past research has found that people are generally more positive towards those who have positive interpersonal qualities (e.g., nice, helpful, offers compliments or favors) than those who lack such traits (Bailey, 2015). As such, individuals who engage in ingratiation typically use tactics such as favors, flattery, opinion conformity, and imitation (Jones, 1990). For example, voter favorability is crucial in order for politicians to advance their political careers. Even the U. S. president, who may desire to run for a second term in office, relies on voter favorability. Interestingly, when examining the inaugural addresses of presidents who served two terms, researchers found that the first inaugural address included more ingratiation tactics than the second (Smith, Whitehead, Blackard, & Blackard, 2015). This suggests that presidents are more dependent on favorability of their constituents in the first term (e.g., require votes for a second term) than their second term. These findings are a crucial

addition to the literature as they show that the need to create positive perceptions influences an individual's behavioral tactics. If this need disappears (e.g., not running for another term), the use of ingratiation tactics is diminished. Ingratiation tactics may also be useful during more applicable situations, such as job interviews. For example, interviewers are more positive towards job applicants who use ingratiation tactics compared to those who do not (Chen, Lee, & Yeh, 2008). These findings further demonstrate that the appearance of positive qualities can greatly impact an audience's perception.

Account giving. Account giving tactics help individuals alleviate the negative consequences of a specific action. Common tactics include claiming innocence, excuses, justifications, and apologies (Brown, 1998). For example, a child might apologize for lying, an employee might create an excuse for deleting an important file, or a criminal may plead innocent to a crime — all of which help to essentially "lessen the blow." Some researchers argue that account giving is a particularly considerate self-presentation tactic because at its core is an implicit reference to ethical values (Gollan & Witte, 2008); individuals who engage in account giving tactics must first evaluate negative situations and recognize the need for some type of action. For example, Dunn and Cody (2000) found that males who apologize and accept responsibility for sexual harassment are seen as more credible, competent, likeable, and dedicated than males who deny the action. These findings suggest that account giving, which necessitates individuals to recognize negative situations and act accordingly, may result in more positive perceptions than if an individual were to ignore the situation altogether.

Preemptive excuse making. Individuals engage in preemptive excuse making, also known as claimed self-handicapping, when they make anticipatory excuses by identifying negative characteristics that influence performance. This differs from account giving, which

occurs after the behavior. Further, preemptive excuses are statements, not behaviors. For example, a football player may claim he did not practice for a game prior to losing. Ferradás, Freire, Valle and Núñez (2016) examined preemptive excuse making among college students by assessing their academic ambitions and preemptive excuse tactics. Results found that college students who compare their academic success and goals to others tend to engage in more preemptive excuse making. This suggests the use of such tactics allows individuals to evade unpleasant consequences that may affect perceptions of competence, i.e., when comparing their failures to others' successes, individuals may use preemptive excuses to save-face. This also has implications in a clinical context, as Suhr and Wei (2013) demonstrated preemptive excuse making among self-reports of ADHD symptoms. For example, patients diagnosed with ADHD are more likely to use ADHD symptoms as a preemptive excuse for poor performance in measures of intelligence compared to poor performance when playing a game (Suhr & Wei, 2013). These findings are not only important for ADHD research and diagnoses (e.g., inaccuracy of self-reports), they also demonstrate how and when preemptive excuse making may be likely to occur. When faced with failure, individuals may defer to preemptive excuses, allowing them to preserve their self-presentation.

Self-handicapping. Self-handicapping, first theorized by Jones and Berglas (1978), occurs when individuals deliberately create obstacles that deter their success. Unlike preemptive excuse making (e.g., a claim), self-handicapping is a behavior. For example, an individual might play video games all night rather than study, potentially resulting in a failed test the following day. Park and Brown (2014) assessed these behaviors among college students, and found self-handicapping strategies (e.g., staying up late, not rehearsing for a presentation) helped prevent others from forming negative perceptions of the students (Park & Brown, 2014). This suggests

purposefully hampering one's abilities may actually diminish the negative evaluations of others. Importantly, self-handicapping appears to work best when it is subtle — otherwise these actions may appear intentional. It seems unlikely that others would dispute a self-handicapping behavior, as some researchers argue that self-handicapping is more successful than preemptive excuse making (Hirt, Deppe, & Gordon, 1991). While additional research is required to support this argument, it makes sense that a claim is more questionable than actual behavioral proof.

Basking in reflected glory. Basking in reflected glory, as the name implies, involves associating oneself with others' successes and/or positive qualities. For example, a baseball player who was benched the entire game may still claim, "we won," after the team wins. By using the term "we," the baseball player is able to create an association to the more capable teammates and potentially increase positive perceptions among onlookers. Researchers have found that this particular tactic is common among adolescents seeking popularity among peers (Dijkstra, Cillessen, Lidenberg, & Veenstra, 2010). By associating themselves with more popular peers, students are seen as more likeable and achieve higher popularity status than prior to the association (Dijkstra, Cillessen, Lidenberg & Veenstra, 2010). This suggests that befriending popular peers allows students to obtain a more popular status by way of association. Basking in reflected glory does not always require a close connection between individuals. For example, researchers examined the influence of president Barack Obama on names of African-American newborns (Anderson-Clark & Green, 2017). Researchers asked African-American mothers to answer questions regarding the demographics of herself and her child(ren). Expert government agents, each with years of professional experience coding names, rated the names from 1 (not ethnic sounding at all) to 5 (highly ethnic sounding). Results found that children born after 2008 had significantly more ethnic sounding names than those born before 2008 (Anderson-Clark &

Green, 2017). While additional research is needed to support these findings, it suggests the possibility that mothers might have been motivated to bask in the reflected glory of the U. S. president and associate their children with his success.

Managing Self-Presentation Online

Most of the research on self-presentation largely examines social situations in which individuals are face-to-face; technology, however, now provides a novel environment for impression management. Much of the recent research on impression management examines online communities. These online social networks, such as Instagram and Facebook, as well as dating websites such as Match.com and Eharmony.com, provide individuals with the freedom to develop, test, and fine-tune self-presentations. By using these online platforms, individuals can construct thoughtful, strategic profiles that influence how others perceive them (Rosenberg & Egbert, 2011). Walther, Van Der Heide, Kim, Westerman, and Tong (2008) evaluated the impact of friends and comments on an individual's Facebook page, and found that the attractive appearance of friends and positive comments made on the profile correlated with higher ratings of the profile owner's physical attractiveness (Walther et al., 2008). Thus, individuals may manage their self-presentation online by strategically creating a social profile (e.g., displaying specific friends and/or comments). Additionally, Schwammlein and Wodzicki (2012) found that individuals modify their online profiles to become closer to others. For example, individuals may engage in high self-disclosure and reveal personal information about themselves to build and maintain bonds within online communities (Schwammlein & Wodzicki, 2012).

Generally, self-presentation occurs via face-to-face interactions, allowing actors to *give* tangible behaviors (e.g., body language, spoken word, facial expressions) to the audience. Because these behaviors occur in real-time, they can easily be challenged. For example, if

someone who is 5'1" claims to be 6'5," the self-presentation can instantly be questioned by the audience. Unlike face-to-face interactions, however, online social networks provide greater anonymity and control of one's self-presentation. For example, researchers found that 86% of people lie about their physical appearance on their online dating profiles (Gibbs, Ellison, & Heino, 2006). Compared to face-to-face interactions, the additional layer of anonymity provides a greater opportunity to misrepresent or exaggerate oneself (Cornwell & Lundgren, 2001). For example, individuals might exaggerate philanthropic behavior by 'sharing' a volunteer post, or embellish an adventurous side by claiming to be a skydiver. In more elaborate situations, an individual may even participate in catfishing (i.e., developing a false persona on social networks for deceiving purposes; Catfishing, 2017). Managing self-presentation online, however, may not always successfully facilitate positive perceptions. For example, developing a self-presentation of someone seductive and sexy may result in undesirable outcomes. Women perceive females with sexualized profile photos as less socially desirable, less physically attractive, and less competent than females with nonsexualized profile photos (Daniels & Zurbriggen, 2016). This research, however, excludes male participants who may likely hold different (e.g., more positive) perceptions than their female counterparts. Other research has found that individuals leverage online social networks to signal or exaggerate their generosity and philanthropic behavior (Berman, Levine, Barasch, & Small, 2015). For example, individuals may post a status about volunteering, share information about a charity 5K, or follow local shelters and non-profits. Indeed, online environments grant individuals greater liberty to develop fantastical self-presentations that would otherwise never come to fruition in real-world settings (Stone, 1996; Turkle, 1995). To summarize, impression management is flexible and pliable; it can easily be

adapted to both face-to-face interactions and online settings, permitting individuals to dream, test, and execute even the most eccentric self-presentations.

Individual Differences in Managing Self-Presentation

Similar to any other type of behavior, there are various individual differences that influence the extent to which self-presentation tactics are used, such as culture, gender, ability to self-monitor, and personality traits.

Culture. Cross-cultural research shows that individuals from different cultures (e.g., individualistic, collectivist) tend to differ in impression management tactics. Individualism, which is more prominent in Western societies, stresses the importance of individual entities over groups (Hofstede, 1980; Loose, 2008; Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002). Individualistic cultures rely on the success of individuals, and reward independence and self-reliance. Collectivism, which is more common in Eastern societies, places more emphasis on groups than individuals (Green, Deschamps, & Paez, 2005; Power, Schoenherr, & Samson, 2009). Collectivist cultures are more dependent on the ability to function within groups than are individualistic cultures, and place more importance in the ability to cooperate to facilitate group success (Matsumoto, 1991). Cultural influences (e.g., emphasis on individual or group) seem to largely influence the use of specific impression management tactics. For example, researchers examined personal Yahoo! profile pages in Korea and the U. S., and found that those in the U.S. used more self-promotion tactics (e.g., describing traits and personality, descriptions of the self), while those in Korea used more ingratiation tactics (e.g., indirect descriptions, links to social groups and institutions; Kim & Papacharissi, 2003). This suggests that in Western cultures, tactics are leveraged to enhance the individual; while in Eastern cultures, tactics are more geared toward creating a self-presentation similar to the in-group. Similarly, Chen (2010) evaluated

online blogs in the U. S. and Taiwan for use of self-presentation tactics. Results showed that those in the U. S. focused more on personal details (e.g., self-promotion), and less on social relations, while Taiwanese bloggers focused more on social relationships (e.g., ingratiation tactics) and refrained from posting personal details (Chen, 2010). These findings further demonstrate that impression management tactics parallel one's cultural background. Those from individualistic cultures engage in self-promotion tactics which emphasize the individual, and those from collectivist cultures use ingratiation tactics that focus on relationships and social groups.

Gender. An audience's perceptions and expectations of gender roles can facilitate stereotyped gendered behaviors during social interactions (Bolino & Turnley, 2003b; Deaux & Major, 1987; DuBrin, 1991; Karsten, 1994). Guadagno and Cialdini (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of impression management tactics, and noted which tactics were used more by men, women, or whether there was no difference in use. Results found that women engage in more opinion conformity (Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007), flattery (DuBrin, 1994; Eagly & Carli, 1981; Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007; Tannen, 1994) and modesty-related tactics (e.g., deemphasizing performance; Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007; Heatherington, Burns, & Gustafson, 1998; Jones & Wortman, 1973) than men, while men engage in more self-promotion tactics (e.g., boasting; DuBrin, 1994; Lee, Quigley, Guadagno, & Cialdini, 2007; Nesler, Corbett, & Tedeschi, 1999; Strutton, Pelton, & Lumpkin, 1995; Tannen, 1994), and offer more favors (DuBrin, 1991; Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007; Higgins & Snyder, 1989; Strutton et al., 1995) than women. These findings suggest that women and men may engage in self-presentation tactics consistent with stereotyped gender roles. Research has also explored these gender differences within an online context. Manago, Graham, Greenfield, and Salimkhan (2008) examined women's and men's

Myspace profiles for impression management tactics, and found that tactics used on Myspace were consistent with stereotyped gender roles. Women focused on physical appearance and affiliations, while men focused on dominance and power. Thus, it appears social interactions influence how women and men use self-presentation tactics. While possibly controversial, individuals engaging in self-presentation may find it more beneficial (e.g., garnering audience's positive perceptions) to adopt gender-consistent tactics that meet the audience's expectations.

Self-monitoring. Successfully implementing a self-presentation necessitates the ability to manage impressions and adjust behavior appropriately. Therefore, an individual difference that may impact this ability is self-monitoring, which allows individuals to monitor and adjust behavior in various social contexts (Snyder, 1974; Tyler, Kearns, & McIntyre, 2016). In other words, self-monitoring allows individuals to tailor their self-presentation according to the situation, such as what the audience does or does not know, the characteristics of the audience, what the audience values, etc. (Barclay, 2013). Self-monitoring is not black and white, but rather a spectrum with lower and higher variances. Low self-monitors are less attentive to social cues and are thus more restricted in their facilitation of self-presentation than high self-monitors (Fuglestad & Snyder, 2010). Conversely, high self-monitors are more worried with their public image (Fuglestad & Snyder, 2009), and are more attuned to social cues (Snyder & Gangestad, 2000) than low self-monitors. Essentially, high self-monitors are motivated via external cues (e.g., social interactions, audience expectations). These individuals are highly attuned to social situations, and execute behave accordingly. Low self-monitors are motivated to behave via internal cues (e.g., feelings, thoughts). Rather than allowing social interactions to direct behavior, low self-monitors react based on their feelings and emotions. In order to know what is needed to effectively create a desired impression, Hogan and Briggs (1986) suggest that individuals must

possess a specific cognitive ability – social acuity. Social acuity allows an individual to assume others' perspectives and infer the behaviors that will result in certain impressions. This suggests high self-monitors hold relatively higher levels of social acuity, allowing them to more successfully implement self-presentation tactics. Tyler, McIntyre, Graziano, and Sands (2015) evaluated how self-monitoring influences an individual's cognitive access to concepts related to impression management. The researchers asked participants to complete a variety of tasks, including a self-monitoring measure and learning a list of words related to impression management. The results found that high self-monitors recalled more self-presentation-related words than low self-monitors, suggesting greater cognitive access to these concepts (Tyler, McIntyre, Graziano, & Sands, 2015).

Personality traits. Previous research has examined the Big Five personality traits (e.g., extraversion, agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness, neuroticism) and their influence on self-presentation tactics. For example, some research has found that individuals with relatively higher levels of neuroticism and lower levels of conscientiousness tend to use self-presentation tactics more frequently (Seidman, 2013). Neuroticism is associated with lower self-esteem (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002), as well as the desire to belong (Seidman, 2013); therefore, it makes sense that those with higher levels of neuroticism use impression management tactics to boost their self-esteem and gain acceptance by social groups. Individuals with relatively higher levels of conscientiousness tend to have traits such as motivation, discipline, and organization (Vries, Vries, & Born, 2011). Thus, these individuals may have more self-confidence and self-assurance, and feel less of a need to manage their impression; whereas individuals with relatively lower levels of conscientiousness, who may lack motivation and discipline, may have a greater desire to engage self-presentation tactics to develop a

confident persona. Further, Lee, Ahn, and Kim (2014) examined online self-presentation on Facebook, and found that extraverts were more likely to engage in self-presentation (e.g., upload photos, display their friends and social groups, update their status, comment, like, share others' statuses) than the other Big Five personalities (Lee, Ahn, & Kim, 2014). It is possible that extraverts, who tend to be sociable and outgoing, are generally more comfortable with social networks and may also feel a greater need to keep up their active appearance.

Chapter 3: Prosocial Behavior

As previously mentioned, there is a variety of impression management tactics; yet one in particular has gained recent attention: prosocial behavior. Although there is much debate on how to conceptualize it, many researchers define prosocial behavior as any behavior that is beneficial to others (Eisenberg, Fabes, & Spinrad, 2007; Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, & Schroeder, 2005; Twenge, Baumeister, DeWall, Ciarocco, & Bartels, 2007). Many classic theories, such as cognitive, psychoanalytic, and behaviorism, have attempted to explain prosocial behavior. Prosociality, however, poses much difficulty for these approaches.

In an effort to explain prosocial behavior, cognitive psychologists proposed the Cognitive Theory of Moral Development (Kohlberg, 1969). This theory posits a six-stage model of development for moral reasoning and social processes that drive ethical and moral behavior, such as prosociality. According to this model, individuals climb various stages of moral development. Succession throughout these stages is dictated by how an individual justifies behaviors in ethical dilemmas, allowing them to learn how to act ethically. This theory, however, is heavily criticized and is unable to thoroughly explain all aspects of prosocial behavior. Kohlberg's (1969) research is limited to male participants, suggesting strong gender biases and lack of generalizability (Gilligan, 1977; Goolsby & Hunt, 1992; Levine et al., 1985). Further, Kohlberg (1969) argues that ethical and moral behavior is driven by the need to defend rights and maintain justice, yet ignores principles such as compassion and caring (Gilligan, 1982). There is also scarce evidence that demonstrates defined stages of moral reasoning truly exist; instead, research suggests they are simply the result of Kohlberg's schema building (Falvell, 1982; Keil, 1981). Next, Psychoanalytic theory suggests that human behavior is driven by selfish, egotistical desires (Batson, 1987; Batson, 1991; Batson & Coke, 1981). Because of this, psychoanalysis postulates

that pseudo-altruism, 'altruism' that is motivated by egotistical needs and emphasizes an individual's welfare over others, drives prosocial behavior (Hoffman, 1981; Schwartz, 1993). Psychoanalytic theory, however, lacks the ability to explain non-selfish prosocial behavior or prosocial behavior driven by non-egotistical motivations. Finally, behavioral psychologists proposed Social Learning Theory, which argues individuals learn to act through observation (Bandura, 1977; Rushton, 1976). For example, children who watch adults behave generously will learn and adopt the observed behaviors. Social Learning Theory relies heavily on observation, and disregards individual differences in personality or motivation. Although these classic theories cannot completely explain prosocial behavior, they potentially play a relatively smaller role in development and implementation.

While cognitive, psychoanalytic, and behaviorist theories lack the ability to explain prosocial behavior, evolutionary theory has garnered the most research interest (Penner, Dovidio, Piliavin, & Schroeder, 2005). According to evolutionary theory, any social behavior that increases reproductive success is likely to be passed on to future generations (Cosmides & Tooby, 1994). Yet for an animal to reproduce, it must first survive. Evolutionary theorists claim an animal's survival is often determined by how well it competes with same-sex group members to secure limited resources (Franzoi, 2006). Therefore, it seems logical that animals should be selfish and illogical for animals to be helpful. Researchers, however, have recorded many incidences of animals selflessly protecting members of their own species (Fouts, 1997). For example, when chimpanzees forage for food they may release a warning call to alert the group of nearby predators (Franzoi, 2006). By releasing a warning call, a chimpanzee actually reveals its location to the predator; it is risking its life for the safety of the group. If animals are in fact driven by selfish motives and the need to survive, why would they engage in such behavior? To

answer this, evolutionary theorists propose two principles: 1) kin selection and 2) reciprocal helping.

Kin selection theory argues that individuals help blood relatives because it increases the chances that shared familial genes are passed on (Hamilton, 1963). For example, individuals enhance the odds of passing on their genes by having their own children, and also by making sure their blood relatives have children. Blood relatives share many of the same genes; thus, aiding in their survival will also help to carry on individuals' genes – even if they do not survive the helpful act (e.g., releasing warning call; Smith, 1964). As such, proponents for evolutionary theory argue that natural selection favors helpful acts when they benefit blood relatives. While this explains why individuals help blood relatives, it fails to address more general helping behavior (e.g., helping strangers or non-blood relatives). A prominent example of this is the transfer of food between those who obtained it and non-blood relatives who did not (Bliege Bird, Ready, & Power, 2018). In fact, this prosocial act of sharing food beyond one's blood relatives is seen cross-culturally, and is common among many indigenous tribes and foraging societies such as the Hiwi of Venezuela (Gurven, Hill, Kaplan, Hurtado, & Lyles, 2000), Batek of Malaysia (Endicott, 1988), Hadza of Tanzania (Blurton Jones, 2016), Meriam of Australia (Bliege Bird, Bird, Smith, & Kushnick, 2002), and Martu of Australia (Bird & Power, 2015). Clearly, the common manifestation of this prosocial behavior suggests an underlying benefit to assisting non-kin.

Helping strangers and non-blood relatives, however, is not exclusive to humans. Researchers have documented many cases of chimpanzees, dolphins, and lions protecting and nurturing unrelated newborns (Connor & Norris, 1982; Goodall, 1986). Yet, the question remains, what drives the motivation to help those who do not share familial genes? Trivers'

(1971) theory of reciprocal helping answers this by stating that individuals help others (e.g., strangers, non-blood relatives) because there is an expectation that the favor will be returned in the future. For example, an individual might drive a friend to the airport on an early Sunday morning with the expectation that this favor will be reciprocated in the future. From an evolutionary stand point, reciprocal helping acts like an insurance policy against danger or starvation (Saad, 2013). For example, protecting or feeding non-blood relatives will secure future, and equivalent, reciprocal acts. In order for reciprocal helping to work, however, the cost to the helper should be relatively low whereas the benefit to the recipient should be relatively high (Franzoi, 2006). Further, their roles must be likely to reverse in the future (Brown & Moore, 2000). For example, various species participate in social grooming (e.g., one individual cleans another). Generally, these roles are immediately reversed so that the groomee cleans the groomer (Matheson & Bernstein, 2000). The favor of grooming yields low cost to the groomer (e.g., losing time) and high benefits to the groomee (e.g., removing parasites). Taken together, kin selection and reciprocal helping demonstrate underlying mechanisms which potentially explain the transfer of helping behaviors to future generations.

Although prosocial behavior may hold evolutionary roots, it seems likely that humans would develop social mechanisms that help to maintain these adaptive helping strategies (Nesse, 2000; Simon, 1990). Indeed, most societies develop and enforce social norms which guide expectations of behavior. Because these expectations are shared, there exists the promise of reward if they are followed and the threat of punishment if they are not obeyed. Therefore, most individuals make an effort to avoid the negative social stigmas linked to norm-deviant behavior and focus on building reputations of cooperation and helping (Posner & Rasmusen, 1999; Rind & Benjamin, 1994; Whatley, Webster, Smith, & Rhodes, 1999). In fact, practicing conservation

and “being green” are influenced by the need to follow group norms (Van Vugt, 2009). Social norms are extremely powerful, especially in the context of observation; surveillance, even by strangers, can exponentially increase compliance. For example, Gerber, Green, and Larimer (2008) found that comparing one’s voter history to a neighbor’s can increase election turnout rates. Clearly, the possibility of one’s voter history being made public is enough to pressure an individual into voting. Surveillance and observation have also been found to increase behaviors such as charitable donations (Barclay, 2004; Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006; Hoffman et al., 1994; Milinski, 2002b; Rege & Telle, 2004), tax donations (Coricelli et al., 2010), and even volunteering (Bereczkei, Birkas, & Kerekes, 2007). Similar results are found while watching others. For example, those who witness prosocial behaviors are more likely to act prosocially compared to those who do not (Nook, Ong, Morelli, Mitchell, & Zaki, 2016). To further demonstrate the power of social norms, a meta-analysis of 67 studies revealed that social influence is the main predictor recycling behavior (Hornik, Cherian, Madansky, & Narayana, 1995).

Previous research has also found that the presence of an audience can influence an individual's generosity. Specifically, charitable contributions increase when an audience is present to monitor the behavior (Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006). In addition to money, recent research suggests non-monetary contributions (e.g., donating clothing, volunteering time) can also enhance one’s self presentation. For example, research findings suggest the main motivation to give non-monetary contributions is to appear generous (Ellingsen & Johannesson, 2011). Thus, even behaviors that appear selfless can have self-presentation intentions. For example, a recent study gave participants a personality measure as well as a sum of money to donate or keep; the order of these two tasks were randomized (Cueva & Dessi, 2012). Results found that

participants donated more money when they completed the personality measure first compared to those who completed it second (Cueva & Dessi, 2012). These findings suggest that the salience of one's self-presentation may actually influence philanthropic behaviors. Other research has explored the relationship between benefactor (e.g., providing the donation) and beneficiary (e.g., receiving the donation). For example, a research study randomly grouped participants into pairs with a donor and a recipient, and then randomly assigned the pairs to one of two conditions (e.g., could communicate, could not communicate; Ellingsen & Johannesson, 2007). The donors were given a sum of money as well as the decision to share the money with the recipient. The results showed that donors were more likely to share the money with recipients when they were in the communication condition compared to the no communication condition (Ellingsen & Johannesson, 2007). This suggests the lack of anonymity, combined with potential negative perceptions of others, may impact the decision to donate.

Social norms provide guidance to many behaviors, and there are two specific social norms that guide prosociality. The first, norm of social responsibility, argues that help must be given when individuals depend on or are in need of assistance (Berkowitz & Daniels, 1963). According to this norm, individuals within a society should have a strong sense of duty and feel the obligation to provide assistance, even without the assurance of future reciprocity. For example, individuals who witness a bicycle accident have an obligation to check on the injured rider, even though this act will likely never be returned. Researchers argue the norm of social responsibility holds an underlying assumption that helping is entwined in society and expected of all individuals (Radley & Kennedy, 1995). In order to explore this norm, researchers examined voluntary donations at Desolation Wilderness (e.g., a federally protected wilderness area in California; Martin, 2000). This location was chosen as fees are not mandatory at the trailheads;

thus, day-visitors are solicited for charitable donations. As expected, researchers found most day-visitors claimed to donate; and, interestingly, those who donated were more likely than those who did not to share the goals, views, and values of the Forest Service (Martin, 2000). These findings perfectly demonstrate the norm of social responsibility as day-visitors felt an obligation to engage in prosocial behavior knowing they would likely not receive any type of reciprocal prosocial act in return. These findings are also interesting in the sense that those who donated to Desolation Wilderness identified more with the Forest Service than those who did not. This identification, or association, may make individuals feel obligated to make monetary contributions. Research has also focused on social responsibility for the greater good (e.g., environmentalism), which suggests environmentalists feel morally obligated to act environmentally responsibly (e.g., recycle; Kaiser & Byrka, 2011). This further demonstrates the norm of social responsibility as these environmentalists behave responsibly despite the lack of reciprocity.

Second, norm of reciprocity suggests the need to maintain equality in social relationships; i.e., those who receive help should reciprocate help to that same individual (Gouldner, 1960). Norm of reciprocity is driven by individuals' belief in the mutual exchange of helping behaviors (Perugini, Gallucci, Presaghi, & Ercolani, 2003), i.e., individuals within a society must share beliefs and expectations concerning others' reciprocal behavior. Thus, these beliefs and expectations motivate prosocial behavior because it will be reciprocated (Oarga, Stavrova, & Fetchenhauer, 2015). For example, when observing children playing together, researchers find positive correlations between the amount of help received and the amount of help given (Fujisawa, Kutsukake, & Hasegawa, 2008). These findings suggest that prosocial behavior is likely to be reciprocated, even among children. It seems likely that a strong sense of moral

obligation motivates the reciprocity of prosocial behavior — not doing so would deviate from expected social norms. Interestingly, the reciprocity of prosocial behavior is not exclusive to the “giver.” Individuals may solicit prosocial acts with the implication they will be reciprocated in the future. In fact, previous research has demonstrated individuals are more likely to ask for help when they have the opportunity to reciprocate the favor compared to when they do not (Greenberg & Shapiro, 1971), suggesting the need to maintain equilibrium within social relationships.

Self-Presentation Motives for Engaging in Prosocial Behavior

Prosocial behavior may appear altruistic, but impression management theory argues these specific tactics allow individuals to manage their self-presentation (Berman, Levine, Barasch, & Small, 2015). Researchers have found that prosocial behavior benefits employees in the workplace, facilitates in-group membership, creates impressions of trust, and is associated with leadership.

Workplace benefits. Prosocial behaviors in the workplace, or organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), are behaviors that go above and beyond an employee's roles and obligations (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008). OCB's are acts geared towards helping peers and/or the organization, such as getting involved in work-related extracurricular activities, mentoring or helping coworkers, or volunteering for additional responsibility (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008). Indeed, there is a plethora of research dedicated to exploring OCB (e.g., Bolino, Hsiung, Harvey, & LePine, 2015; Deery, Rayton, Walsh, & Kinni, 2016; Lam, Liang, Ashford, & Lee, 2015; Spector, 2013). Importantly, these behaviors have the potential to generate material and social rewards for the employees implementing them. For example, OCB can increase an employee's status (Bolino, Turnley, &

Bloodgood, 2002; Flynn, 2003; Flynn, Reagans, Amanatullah, & Ames, 2006), and even increase social capital (e.g., relationships, networks). Additionally, Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Blume (2009) conducted a meta-analysis and found that prosocial behaviors in the workplace influence employee promotions and evaluations as much as job performance. This suggests that when employees engage in prosocial behavior, their supervisors and peers tend to respond in kind. Thus, an employee may be motivated to create an impression of a caring and helpful worker to positively influence his supervisor's perceptions – potentially resulting in the aforementioned rewards.

In-group membership. In general, individuals tend to display greater empathy to (Brown, Bradley, & Lang, 2006) and have more positive views of (Tajfel, 1978) in-group members (e.g., family, friends, allies) compared to out-group members. In fact, recent research findings suggest that those who use impression management tactics, specifically prosocial behaviors, are desired as friends and allies (Cottrel, Neuberg, & Li, 2007; Iredale, Van Vugt, & Dunbar, 2008). Clearly, engaging in prosocial tactics may help facilitate in-group status. For example, Stiff and Van Vugt (2008) had participants solve puzzles to earn points in a game. Total group points were calculated based on the completion of individual group members' puzzles. Following several rounds, groups were asked if another player could join them, and were randomly assigned to one of two conditions (e.g., groups were instructed the player was making more money by helping them, groups were instructed the player was giving up a more lucrative study to help them). The results showed groups were more likely to admit players who were giving up a more lucrative study compared to those who were going to make a profit (Stiff & Van Vugt, 2008). These results strongly suggest that groups prefer allies who are selfless and helpful, and avoid individuals who are driven by more selfish motives.

Trustworthy. Trustworthy individuals are viewed more positively than untrustworthy individuals. In fact, research suggests that trustworthy individuals are viewed more favorably and receive greater benefits than their untrustworthy counterparts. For example, employees are more likely to give higher performance ratings to trustworthy peers than to untrustworthy ones (Dirks & Starlicki, 2009). Therefore, individuals who develop a self-presentation of someone trustworthy may positively impact the perceptions of others. Various impression management tactics can be employed to create a trustworthy impression, however, researchers have recently focused on prosocial behaviors which suggests that individuals who engage in these specific tactics are viewed as trustworthy. For example, not only are individuals more likely to make charitable contributions in the presence of others, they are perceived to be more trustworthy than individuals who do not make charitable contributions (Barclay, 2004). Further, individuals who contribute larger charitable donations are viewed as more trustworthy than individuals who make smaller charitable donations (Barclay, 2004). These findings are interesting as they demonstrate that prosocial behavior may result in being perceived as trustworthy; yet it appears to be on a spectrum where the more prosocial individuals are (e.g., donating more money), the more trustworthy they appear. Beyond charitable donations, individuals who are ethical and moral are viewed as more trustworthy than those who are unethical and immoral (Simpson, Harrell, & Willer, 2013). Therefore, engaging in prosocial behavior may create an impression of being trustworthy — ultimately allowing an individual to benefit from the positive perceptions these behaviors facilitate.

Leadership. Individuals who engage in prosocial behaviors are likely to be selected as leaders (Gurven, Allen-Arave, Hill, & Hurtado, 2000; Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006), and previous research has demonstrated that leaders are generally ascribed positive attributes such as integrity,

benevolent, agreeable, and open (Pomery, Schofield, Xhilaga, & Gough, 2016; Shooter, Paisley, & Sibthorp, 2009). Milinski, Semmann, and Krambeck (2002a) found that group members are more likely to elect individuals to leadership positions when they donate more frequently compared to those who donate less frequently. Thus, individuals engaging in impression management may leverage prosocial behaviors to obtain leadership positions and the associated positive traits.

Prosocial Tactics

The current literature is extremely limited in that few studies evaluate individual prosocial tactics. Rather than research a single tactic, prosocial behaviors are often grouped together and examined as a phenomenon. As described in the below paragraphs, the current literature classifies prosocial behaviors into four broad categories: 1) help giving, 2) moral courage, 3) proenvironmental behavior, and 4) purchasing consumer goods. Due to the insufficient literature available on individual prosocial behaviors, descriptions and examples are limited throughout the following sections.

Help giving. First, help giving involves helping another individual(s); and, depending on the type of help given, these behaviors may be costly to the helper (Kayser, Greitemeyer, Fischer, & Frey, 2009). Help giving includes casual help, substantial help, emotional help, emergency help, compliant help, public help, and altruistic helping behaviors. Casual help involves simple acts such as picking up an object someone just dropped or giving directions (McGuire, 1994). Importantly, casual help results in little to no cost to the helper. Second, substantial help includes helpful acts that are slightly more costly to the helper (McGuire, 1994), such as house sitting or lending money. For example, one has to set aside precious time to take care of another's home or risk a friend not paying back the borrowed money. Third, emotional

help is driven by another's emotional circumstance (Carlo & Randall, 2002; McGuire, 1994). For example, an individual might comfort a friend whose mother passed away. Next, emergency help is a more immediate form of help that necessitates an urgent response (McGuire, 1994). Specific examples include saving someone's life, such as performing CPR or rescuing a drowning swimmer. Compliant helping behaviors include helping behaviors performed at the explicit request of another individual (Eisenberg, Cameron, Tryon, & Dodez, 1981). For example, one may agree to drive a friend to the airport or help carry an elderly person's groceries when directly asked. Next, public behaviors are purposefully performed in front of others with the desire to gain respect and admiration. For example, an individual may offer to host a charitable event or publically announce a volunteer initiative. Lastly, altruistic helping behaviors are motivated by the concern for others' wellbeing, despite any associated costs to the helper (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998). Examples of altruistic prosocial behaviors include donating blood (Lacetera & Macis, 2010) or donating money anonymously.

Moral courage. Morally courageous prosocial behaviors go above and beyond typical helping behaviors as individuals defend human rights and/or social norms that are violated. Moral courage is relatively risky, and may result in costly and/or negative consequences. Examples include acts such as joining a political demonstration or chasing after a burglar (Jonas & Brandstätter, 2004). Other examples include acts that interfere with interpersonal conflicts, such as defending an individual who is being bullied, discriminated against, insulted, assaulted, or slandered (Brandstätter & Jonas, 2012; Greitemeyer, Osswald, Fischer, & Frey, 2007; Jonas & Brandstätter, 2004; Meyer, 2009). While morally courageous helping behaviors tend to have positive intentions, they are costly to the helper and may result in negative consequences such as arrest or vengeance.

Proenvironmental behaviors. Prosocial behaviors have the capacity to extend beyond direct helping behaviors by benefiting the greater good. As previously mentioned, research suggests that people are morally obligated to engage in prosocial behaviors (Gouldner, 1960; Greenberg & Shapiro, 1971; Oarga, Stavrova & Fetchenhauer, 2015; Perugini, Gallucci, Presaghi, & Ercolani, 2003), but prosocial behaviors are not always directed towards a specific individual or group (Stern, 2002). For example, many individuals feel morally obligated to help the environment or engage in environmentally sustainable activities. These specific acts directed towards helping the environment are referred to as proenvironmental behavior (Stern, 2002). Examples of proenvironmental prosocial behaviors include environmental activism (e.g., political activist, public demonstrations); nonactivist behaviors in the public sphere (e.g., supporting politicians that defend the environment, voting for environmentally friendly laws); private-sphere environmentalism (e.g., refusing to purchase products that harm the environment); and miscellaneous environmentally friendly behaviors (e.g., recycling; reducing pollution; Stern, 2002). Rather than benefiting a single individual or group, these prosocial behaviors seek to benefit the greater good by helping the environment.

Purchase consumer goods. Although it may seem inconsistent with standard prosocial behaviors (e.g., donating, recycling, helping), purchasing consumer goods (e.g., plane ticket, shoes, jacket) can be used as a prosocial tactic to manage one's self-presentation. In general, the ownership of products allows individuals to present themselves and express their desired identity in social interactions (Zabkar & Hosta, 2013). For example, green products tend to be more expensive and have lower quality than traditional products (Griskevicius, Tybur, & Van den Bergh, 2010). Thus, purchasing environmentally friendly products can help individuals develop prosocial reputations by demonstrating their willingness to sacrifice for the benefit of the larger

group (Griskevicius, Tybur, & Van den Bergh, 2010; Willer, 2009). Berman, Levine, Barasch, and Small (2015) suggest that individuals purchase noticeable products such as shoes, hybrid vehicles, or charitable T-shirts (e.g. Product Red T-shirt) as a way to broadcast their prosocial nature. In fact, most Prius owners purchase a hybrid vehicle because it explicitly demonstrates their willingness to help the environment (Griskevicius, Tybur, & Van den Bergh, 2010; Maynard, 2007). Further, green products in general hold a high symbolic value (Uusitalo & Oksanen, 2004), and are typically purchased by those wishing to garner positive perceptions from others (Welte & Anastasio, 2010). Importantly, the current literature only focuses on how purchasing specific products (e.g., shoe, car) can be used as an impression management tactic. Beyond purchasing these ethical products, it seems likely that consumers may purchase from ethical companies (e.g., those with CSR), as a tactic to manage their self-presentation. As mentioned in the beginning of this literature review, many companies currently implement corporate social responsibility (CSR) programs which may offer consumers a way to manage their self-presentation.

Chapter 4: Current Research

Research has not yet explored how purchasing from a company with CSR efforts can be used as a prosocial tactic to manage one's self-presentation. Further, there is a gap in the literature which fails to address whether or not consumers actually seek out and purchase from companies with CSR programs. Previous research has assessed intended purchase behavior from companies that promote prosocial tendencies (e.g., Tom's of Maine™), but has not examined actual purchase behavior. If purchasing from a company with CSR efforts can be used as a prosocial tactic to manage one's self-presentation, it seems likely that individuals concerned with managing their self-presentation are more likely to purchase from companies whom they perceive to engage in CSR compared to companies who do not. In other words, it is highly possible that consumers actively seek out and purchase from companies they perceive to engage in CSR with the intention of managing their self-presentation. The purpose of this research is to answer a question that, to this point, has been assumed based on consumer intent. Do CSR programs impact consumers' decisions to purchase from a company; and if so, what is moderating this relationship? If many consumers already purchase specific products to manage their self-presentation, then we would expect self-presentation concerns to moderate the relationship between a company's perceived CSR efforts and purchase behaviors. Those who engage in impression management, regardless of the specific tactic (e.g., self-promotion, exemplification, etc.), clearly have salient self-presentation concerns – engaging in tactful behaviors that ultimately enhance their self-presentation, such as purchasing from a company with CSR efforts. To examine the moderating role of self-presentation on purchase behavior, three studies were conducted.

Pilot Study

The goal of study one is to manipulate the salience of self-presentation concerns and examine the impact on purchase intentions using hypothetical scenarios. Prior to study one, however, a pilot study was conducted to determine an efficient experimental manipulation to increase/decrease the salience of self-presentation concerns. Three variants of a self-presentation manipulation were developed and administered: 1) a scrambled sentence task, 2), a reading scenario and 3) a writing task. Each variant consisted of two conditions, resulting in a total of six conditions.

Method

Participants. The pilot study consisted of thirty participants recruited from the community via email and social media. The average age of participants was 36, and the range of ages was 24 to 67 (see Appendix A). Sixty-seven percent of participants identified as Caucasian/White, 23% as Latino/Hispanic, 7% as Black/African American, 17% as Asian/Pacific Islander, and 3% as Native American. Participants did not receive compensation for completing the study.

Procedures. All materials and procedures were approved by UNLV's Institutional Review Board (IRB approval #1237924-1). The pilot study was conducted using an online survey program. Participants were given a direct link to the study. After opening the link, participants were shown a general instruction page that included a brief summary of the study. All participants provided consent before beginning the study. Participants were asked to complete a variety of questionnaires, and assured their responses are anonymous. Next, participants completed a portion of the demographic questionnaire, including age, state, and zip code (see Appendix B). The remaining demographic questions (e.g., gender, ethnicity, education, marital status, employment status, number of people living in the household, annual household

income) were asked at the end of the survey to combat the possibility of heightened concerns of one's own demographics or social status. Participants were then randomly assigned to one of six conditions (see detailed explanation below).

Scrambled sentence task. The task was presented to participants as a test of verbal ability (see Appendix C). Participants were given a list of twenty sentences, each consisting of five words. They were asked to construct a grammatically correct sentence using four of the five scrambled words. The sentence construction, however, was simply a means to ensure participants mentally developed content related to self-presentation without becoming aware of the researcher's interest in that particular construct. Eight participants completed the scrambled sentence task. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two conditions; four participants were randomly assigned to the experimental condition and four were randomly assigned to the control condition. In the experimental condition, participants received sentences designed to increase the salience of self-presentation concerns. That is, thirteen of the twenty sentences included terms that relate to self-presentation (e.g., likeable, attractive, image). In the control condition, participants received sentences with neutral words designed to decrease the salience of self-presentation concerns. That is, all twenty sentences included words unrelated to self-presentation (e.g., house, dog, chair).

Reading scenario. The task was adapted from Williams, Hudson, and Lawson (1999), and was presented to participants as a test of reading skills (see Appendix D). The measure consisted of a short scenario depicting an upcoming part in a public debate. Participants were asked to imagine themselves in the hypothetical scenario, and to develop a mental representation of the scenario. After reading the scenario, participants were asked to write about three ways in which the scenario affected their emotions and cognitions. This short writing task, however, was

used to emphasize the importance of investing effort into reading and thinking about the hypothetical scenario. Eight participants completed the reading scenario. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two conditions; five were randomly assigned to the experimental condition and three were randomly assigned to the control condition. In the experimental condition, participants were given a scenario designed to increase the salience of self-presentation concerns. In the control condition, participants received a scenario designed to decrease the salience of self-presentation concerns.

Writing task. The task was adapted from Reed II, Aquino, and Levy (2007), and was presented to participants as an assessment of people's writing styles as they tell stories (see Appendix E). The measure consisted of a 9 X 5 table that contains nine words in each row of the first column. Participants were asked to retype each of the nine words in the remaining four columns, so that each of the nine words were written four separate times. Next, participants were asked to write a brief story which included each of the nine words at least once. Retyping the words and writing a story, however, were simply a means to ensure participants mentally developed content related to self-presentation without becoming aware of the researcher's interest in that particular construct. Fourteen participants completed the writing task. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two conditions, nine participants were randomly assigned to the experimental condition, and five were randomly assigned to the control condition. In the experimental condition, participants received words designed to increase the salience of self-presentation concerns (e.g., likeable, attractive, image). In the control condition, participants received neutral words designed to decrease the salience of self-presentation concerns (e.g., house, dog, chair).

Manipulation check. Next, all participants received a brief measure to assess the manipulation of self-presentation concerns (Williams, Hudson, & Lawson, 1999), see Appendix F. This measure consists of nine items, and has high internal consistency ($\alpha = .83$). Participants were asked to rate each item using a four-point Likert scale with endpoints of 1 (*not at all*) to 4 (*very much so*). The order of the nine items were randomized.

Data Analysis

Three independent t-tests were conducted to compare the mean scores of the manipulation check of the two conditions (e.g., experimental, control) for each measure. First, the scrambled sentence task did not produce a significant difference in scores for those with a decreased salience of self-presentation concerns ($M = 2.47, SD = 0.91$) and those with an increased salience of self-presentations concerns ($M = 2.83, SD = 0.78$) in the extent of self-presentation concerns, $t(6) = 0.600, p = 0.525$. Second, the reading scenario did not obtain a significant difference in scores for those with a decreased salience of self-presentation concerns ($M = 2.37, SD = 0.21$) and those with an increased salience of self-presentations concerns ($M = 2.82, SD = 0.69$) in the extent of self-presentation concerns, $t(6) = 1.03, p = 0.343$. The writing task, however, found a significant difference in scores for those with a decreased salience of self-presentation concerns ($M = 2.22, SD = 0.33$) and those with an increased salience of self-presentations concerns ($M = 3.17, SD = 0.46$) in the extent of self-presentation concerns, $t(12) = 4.0, p = .002$.

Study One

As previously stated, the first study utilized a procedure designed to manipulate the salience of self-presentation concerns and examine the impact on purchase intentions using hypothetical scenarios. The goal of study one was to implement the selected manipulation and

explore the effects of self-presentation concerns on overall purchase intentions. It was hypothesized that those with an increased salience of self-presentation will be more likely than those with a decreased salience of self-presentation concerns to indicate greater price fairness, value, benefit, and purchase intentions from a company with CSR efforts.

Method

Participants. Six hundred participants were recruited from a nationwide online survey panel, and received monetary compensation (e.g., \$5.00 or equivalent) in exchange for participation. The nationwide survey panel recruits participants from three sources: eRewards, Valued Opinions, and Peanut Labs (ResearchNow, 2017). The panel uses robust methodologies to ensure that participants are real people, and each participant is assigned a permanent ID number to monitor past survey participation. Further, the panel follows strict member privacy policies to ensure that participants' identities are protected and confidential. Two hundred and sixty-one participants were male, 335 were female, 2 were transgender, and 1 was gender non-conforming (see Appendix G). Eighty-two percent of participants identified as Caucasian/White, 7% as Latino/Hispanic, 7% as Black/African American, 5% as Asian/Pacific Islander, and 3% identified themselves as other ethnic groups. Quotas were set to obtain an equal sample of Gen Z's and Millennials (e.g., 18-37 years old), Generation X (e.g., 38-54 years old), and Baby Boomers (e.g., 55-71 years old).

Procedures. All materials and procedures were approved by UNLV's Institutional Review Board (IRB approval #1237924-1). Study one was conducted using an online survey program. Once registered, participants were given a direct link to the study. After opening the link, participants were shown a general instruction page that included a brief summary of the study. Participants were asked to complete a variety of questionnaires regarding shopping

behaviors and personality traits. Participants were assured their responses are anonymous. Next, the same demographic questionnaire described in the pilot study was administered following identical procedures (see Appendix B).

Reading scenario. Next, participants completed the reading scenario designed to increase/decrease the salience of self-presentation concerns (see Appendix D). In the scenarios, participants were asked to imagine they are just a few minutes away from the start of a debate. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions. The experimental condition was designed to increase the salience of self-presentation concerns, and emphasized a stressful situation in which the debate is extremely important and everyone has exceptionally high expectations. The control condition was designed to decrease the salience of self-presentation concerns, and emphasized a calming experience, in which everyone is supportive and comforting.

Purchase intention. After the reading scenario, participants read a hypothetical purchase scenario and completed a measure regarding purchase decisions (see Appendix H). The scenario and scales used in this study were adaptations from previous research (Ferreira, Avila, & Dias de Faria, 2010; Mohr & Webb, 2005). Each scenario asked participants to imagine they were shopping for a pair of jeans. Within the scenario, participants were asked to imagine they have narrowed their desired pair of jeans down to two options (e.g., Company A, Company B). The first paragraph of the scenario described the shopping experience, and that Company A's jeans were slightly more expensive than Company B's. Participants were randomly assigned to receive a scenario depicting either a \$10 difference or a \$50 difference between Company A and Company B (e.g., Company A's jeans are \$110 and Company B's jeans are \$100, Company A's jeans are \$150 and Company B's jeans are \$100). The second paragraph described Company A's

overall CSR efforts. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two groups: a) a control condition where Company A's CSR efforts are not described, and b) an experimental condition where Company A's CSR efforts are described. The control condition received the first paragraph (e.g., information unrelated to CSR efforts), and the experimental condition received both paragraphs. After reading each scenario, participants were asked to rate their perceived price fairness, value, benefit, and buying intention. Perceived price fairness (i.e., item 1) was rated on four scales with ends points of 1 (*unfair, unacceptable, unsatisfactory, very high*) to 7 (*fair, acceptable, satisfactory, very low*). Perceived value (i.e., items 2-4), perceived benefit (i.e., items 5-8), and buying intention (i.e., items 9-11) used a seven-point Likert scale with endpoints of 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 7 (*strongly agree*).

Potential Moderators

Impression management. Next, participants completed the Impression Management (IM) scale developed by Bolino and Turnley (1999) to assess the use of self-presentation strategies (see Appendix I). The IM consists of 22 items grouped into five subscales with end points 1 (*never behave this way*) and 5 (*often behave this way*). The coefficient alphas for the IM subscales are: self-promotion ($\alpha = .78$), ingratiation ($\alpha = .83$), exemplification ($\alpha = .75$), intimidation ($\alpha = .86$), and supplication ($\alpha = .88$), suggesting that the IM scale is reliable. It was expected that participants who engage in impression management, regardless of the specific tactic, will be significantly more likely than those who do not to indicate greater price fairness, value, benefit, and purchase intentions from the company with a CSR program – regardless of condition (e.g., increased/decreased salience of self-presentation concerns).

Age. While age is a standard demographic typically included in research, it is of particular importance in the current study (see Appendix B). Compared to Gen X and Baby

Boomers, Gen Z and Millennials tend to have more environmental consciousness, engage more in ethical consumption, practice more environmentally ethical behavior, and are the most environmentally conscious consumers (Bucic, Harris, & Arli, 2012; McKay, 2010; Smith & Miller, 2011; Vermillion & Peart, 2010). These ethical behaviors have affected Gen Z's and Millennials' brand preference and purchase intentions. For example, previous research has found that these younger generations claim to actively seek brands that have a positive impact on the environment (Gunelius, 2008). Further, many Gen Z and Millennials are willing to pay more for environmentally friendly brands, products, and services (California Green Solutions, 2007). Beyond the context of consuming products, Gen Z and Millennial job seekers prefer companies with CSR programs. In fact, the majority consider a potential employer's social and environmental commitments and would not accept a job if the potential employer lacks a strong CSR program (Cone Communications, 2016). If Gen Z's and Millennials are more attracted to prosocial products, brands, and jobs than older generations, then we would expect them to indicate greater price fairness, value, benefit, and purchase intentions from the company with a CSR program than Gen X and Baby Boomers.

Education. Education is another standard measure collected within the demographic questionnaire (see Appendix B). It is possible education may moderate purchase behavior. Education is often used as a reliable indicator of one's economic standing as it is stable and typically established earlier in adulthood (Bobak, Hertzman, Skodova, & Marmot, 2000; Maksimovic, Vlajinac, Radak, Maksimovic, Marinkovic, & Jorga, 2008). Further, education impacts a variety of economic experiences such as involvement and success in the workforce (Card, 1999; Hartog, 2000; Jenkins & Siedler, 2007). For example, lower levels of education are associated with lower wages and higher unemployment rates (National Center for Educational

Statistics, 2015), whereas higher levels of education are associated with higher wages (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2018a) and higher employment rates (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2018b). While annual household income was also collected in the demographic questionnaire, it is a relatively inadequate measure of one's economic standing. In fact, the National Institutes of Health Office of Behavioral and Social Sciences Research (n.d.) states that one in three respondents do not reveal their household income, and those who do may exaggerate or misstate it. Further, while education is a stable measure, income is volatile and may fluctuate annually. The association between education and economic standing is important relative to the current research as individuals with relatively lower economic standings tend to be driven by value-for-money (Gbadamosi, 2009) and use their personal circumstances (e.g., money constraints, lack of education) to justify purchase decisions (Johnstone & Tan, 2013). Due to their relatively higher cost, ethical products are not a shopping priority among these individuals (Johnstone & Tan, 2013). Further, knowledge of the benefits of purchasing ethical products does not outweigh the benefits of saving money (Johnstone & Tan, 2013). Because of the relationship between education and economic standing, it is possible that individuals with lower education levels may seek out the lowest cost item regardless of the company's participation in CSR. Thus, it was expected that individuals with lower education levels will be more likely than those with higher education levels to indicate lower price fairness, value, benefit, and purchase intentions; conversely, individuals with higher education levels will be more likely than those with lower education levels to indicate greater price fairness, value, benefit, and purchase intentions.

Frugality. Following the demographic and behavioral measures, participants completed a measure of frugality developed by Lastovicka, Bettencourt, Hughner, and Kuntze (1999; see Appendix J). The measure consists of eight items, and each item uses a six-point Likert scale

with endpoints of 1 (*definitely disagree*) and 6 (*definitely agree*). This measure has been implemented in many studies (Bove, Nagpal, & Dorsett, 2009; Shohman & Brencic, 2004) and has high internal consistency ($\alpha = .80$). Frugal shoppers tend to be price conscious and demonstrate behaviors such as price comparisons (Bove, Nagpal, & Dorsett, 2009; Lastovicka et al., 1999), discipline in spending money (Lastovicka, Bettencourt, Hughner, & Kuntze, 1999), and shopping antipathy (e.g., dislike shopping, desire to minimize time spent shopping, purchase on a per-needs basis; Bove, Nagpal, & Dorsett, 2009; Lastovicka, Bettencourt, Hughner, & Kuntze, 1999; Reid & Brown, 1996). It is possible that frugal shoppers seek out the lowest cost item regardless of a company's CSR efforts; thus, it was expected that frugal shoppers will be more likely than more lavish shoppers to indicate lower price fairness, value, benefit, and purchase intentions.

Big five personality traits. Next, participants completed a brief version of the Big Five Inventory (BFI-10) developed by Rammstedt and John (2007; see Appendix K). The BFI-10 is a 10-item measure consisting of five subscales: agreeableness (2 items), extraversion (2 items), neuroticism (2 items), conscientiousness (2 items), and openness (2 items). Each item uses a five-point Likert scale with endpoints of 1 (*disagree strongly*) and 5 (*agree strongly*). The BFI-10 predicts about 70% of the variance of the full BFI and retains 85% of the retest reliability (Rammstedt & John, 2007). As previously stated, research has found that those with different personality traits are more or less likely to engage in self-presentation (Lee, Ahn, & Kim, 2014; Seidman, 2013). Therefore, it is possible that specific personality traits will moderate purchase behavior.

Self-monitoring. Participants completed the Self-Monitoring Scale (SMS) originally developed by Snyder (1974) and later refined by Snyder and Gangestad (1986; see Appendix L).

The SMS is an 18-item measure where participants select “*true*” or “*false*” for each individual item. The SMS has relatively high internal consistency ($\alpha = .70$; Snyder & Gangestad, 1986). As previously mentioned, current research suggests that high self-monitors are more likely to engage in self-presentation whereas low self-monitors are less likely to engage in self-presentation (Hogan & Briggs, 1986; Snyder & Gangestad, 2000; Tyler, Kearns, & McIntyre, 2016; Tyler, McIntyre, Graziano, & Sands, 2015). Thus, it is likely the extent to which one self-monitors will influence the decision to purchase from companies with CSR programs. It was expected that high self-monitors will be more likely than low self-monitors to indicate greater price fairness, value, benefit, and purchase intentions.

Social desirability. Lastly, participants who are concerned with managing their self-presentation may answer questions in a socially desirable manner. In order to address this, participants completed a short version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (i.e., the Marlowe-Crowne Scale [Reynolds’s Form C]; Crowne & Marlowe, 1960; Reynolds, 1982). The shorter version of the Social Desirability Scale consists of 13 items, and participants were asked to select “*true*” or “*false*” for each individual item (see Appendix M). This scale has relatively high internal consistency ($\alpha = .62$ to $\alpha = .76$; Ballard, 1992; Loo & Thorpe, 2000; Reynolds, 1982; Zook & Sipps, 1985), as well as relatively high test-retest reliability ($r = .74$; Zook & Sipps, 1985). It was not expected that social desirability will relate to self-presentation.

Data Analysis

To examine the main hypothesis, scores from the dependent variables (e.g., price fairness, value, benefit, and purchase intention) were averaged for each participant and analyzed in separate 2(increased salience of self-presentation concerns vs. decreased salience of self-presentation concerns) X 2(no CSR vs. CSR) X 2(\$10 difference vs. \$50 difference) factorial

analyses of variance (ANOVA). Because multiple comparisons were conducted, the probability of obtaining significant results increases with every test. In order to adjust for multiple comparisons, a post hoc Bonferroni correction was conducted to correct for Type I error.

Price fairness. Results showed a significant main effect for presence of CSR, $F(1, 592) = 27.79, p < .000, \eta_p^2 = .045$. Those in the CSR condition believed the price to be more fair ($M = 4.47, SD = 1.33$) than those in the No CSR condition ($M = 3.91, SD = 1.55$). Results also showed a significant main effect for price difference, $F(1, 592) = 56.44, p < .000, \eta_p^2 = .087$. Those in the \$10 price difference condition believed the price to be more fair ($M = 4.57, SD = 1.40$) than those in the \$50 price difference condition ($M = 3.71, SD = 1.49$). There were no other significant main or interactive effects.

Value. There was a significant main effect for presence of CSR, $F(1, 592) = 18.36, p < .000, \eta_p^2 = .030$. Those in the CSR condition believed the jeans held more value ($M = 4.09, SD = 1.79$) than those in the No CSR condition ($M = 3.52, SD = 1.80$). Results also showed a significant main effect for price difference, $F(1, 592) = 32.26, p < .000, \eta_p^2 = .052$. Those in the \$10 price difference condition believed the jeans held more value ($M = 4.15, SD = 1.75$) than those in the \$50 price difference condition ($M = 3.35, SD = 1.79$). There was a marginally significant interaction between the self-presentation manipulation and CSR, $F(1, 592) = 3.30, p = .07, \eta_p^2 = .006$. As can be seen in Figure 1, in the high self-presentation condition, participants in the CSR condition ($M = 4.18, SD = 1.79$) believed the jeans held more value than those in the No CSR condition ($M = 3.22, SD = 1.7$; see Appendix N). In the low self-presentation condition, participants in the CSR condition ($M = 3.99, SD = 1.79$) believed the jeans held more value than those in the No CSR condition ($M = 3.73, SD = 1.83$). There were no other significant main or interactive effects.

Benefit. There was a significant main effect for presence of CSR, $F(1, 592) = 38.93, p < .000, \eta_p^2 = .062$. Those in the CSR condition believed the jeans were more beneficial ($M = 4.23, SD = 1.70$) than those in the No CSR condition ($M = 3.07, SD = 1.68$). Results also showed a significant main effect for price difference, $F(1, 592) = 16.84, p < .000, \eta_p^2 = .028$. Those in the \$10 price difference condition believed the jeans were more beneficial ($M = 4.01, SD = 1.77$) than those in the \$50 price difference condition ($M = 3.45, SD = 1.82$). There were no other significant main or interactive effects.

Purchase intention. There was a significant main effect for presence of CSR, $F(1, 592) = 24.43, p < .000, \eta_p^2 = .040$. Those in the CSR condition were more likely to intend to purchase the jeans ($M = 4.11, SD = 1.89$) than those in the No CSR condition ($M = 3.38, SD = 1.90$). Results also showed a significant main effect for price difference, $F(1, 592) = 27.96, p < .000, \eta_p^2 = .045$. Those in the \$10 price difference condition were more likely to intend to purchase the jeans ($M = 4.06, SD = 1.89$) than those in the \$50 price difference condition ($M = 3.30, SD = 1.89$). There were no other significant main or interactive effects.

Moderator variables. Separate hierarchical multiple regressions were performed to examine the impact of the moderator variables (e.g., impression management tactics, generation, education, frugality, Big Five personality traits, self-monitoring, social desirability). To examine this, the dependent variables (e.g., price fairness, value, benefit, purchase intentions) were analyzed in separate four-step hierarchical regression analyses. In these analyses, the first model contained the main effects of self-presentation manipulation, CSR, price difference and the moderator variable. The second model contained the main effects with the addition of the six two-factor interactions (e.g., manipulation X CSR, manipulation X price difference, CSR X price difference, manipulation X moderator, CSR X moderator, price difference X moderator). The

third model contained the main effects, the two-factor interactions, along with the addition of four three-factor interactions (e.g., manipulation X CSR X price difference, manipulation X CSR X moderator, CSR X price difference X moderator, manipulation X price difference X moderator). Finally, the fourth model contained the main effects, the two-factor interactions, the three-factor interactions, and the addition of one four-factor interaction (e.g., manipulation X CSR X price difference X moderator). The two, three, and four-factor interaction terms were created by centering and multiplying the variables (e.g., manipulation, price difference, CSR, and moderator; see Aiken & West [1991] and Frazier, Tix, and Barron [2004] for a description of this procedure). Due to the number of regressions conducted (e.g., 60 in total), only those that produced significant effects are reported. The moderator variables of impression management tactics, generation, education, frugality, big five personality traits, and social desirability did not produce any significant effects. The only moderator to produce significant effect was self-monitoring.

Self-monitoring. When price fairness was used as the dependent variable, model one, which included the self-presentation manipulation, CSR, price difference, and self-monitoring as the predictors, explained 12.4% of the variance and was significant, [$F(4, 595) = 22.82, p < .000$]. The addition of the interactive effects in models two and three did not increase the prediction of perceived price fairness. The fourth model, which contained the main effects, the two-factor interaction terms, the three-factor interaction terms, and the addition of the four-factor interaction term (e.g., manipulation X CSR X price difference X self-monitoring), explained significantly more variance [$R^2 \text{ change } .008, F(1,584) = 5.418, p = .020$]. The fourth model explains 14% of the variance (adjusted $R^2 = .14$) and was significant [$F(15,584) = 7.519, p < .000$], see Appendix O.

Discussion

The experimental manipulation (e.g., reading scenario) did not produce significant differences in participants' perceived price fairness, value, benefit, or purchase intentions in regards to Company A and Company A's jeans. There were, however, other interesting findings within these analyses. First, there was a marginally significant interaction between the experimental manipulation and the presence of CSR when value was the dependent variable. As expected, participants in the high self-presentation condition believed the jeans were more valuable when the company had CSR compared to when it did not; and, those in the low self-presentation condition believed the jeans were more valuable when the company had CSR compared to when it did not. Second, there were significant main effects for the presence of CSR when examining perceived price fairness, value, benefit, and purchase intention. Those in the CSR condition rated Company A's jeans as more fair, valuable, beneficial, and indicated greater purchase intent than those in the No CSR condition. Additionally, a measure of social desirability was included to examine whether participants' responses were distorted by the desire to appear in a socially positive light. The addition of social desirability scores to the four step models examining price fairness, value, benefit, and purchase intentions were not associated with any increases in prediction.

Study Two

Study one sought to demonstrate that an experimental manipulation of self-presentation concerns would influence responses to CSR (i.e., it would make participants more likely to intend to purchase from a company with a CSR program). Although the experimental manipulation allows us to control for many extraneous variables, it limits us to examining the participants' behavioral intentions. The second study attempted to assess participants' actual self-

presentation strategies and their potential moderating effects on real purchase behaviors. It was expected that participants who engage in self-presentation, regardless of the specific tactic, will be more likely than those who do not to purchase from companies which they perceive to have CSR efforts.

Method

Participants. Six hundred participants were recruited for this study. Participants were recruited from a nationwide online survey panel, and received monetary compensation (e.g., \$5.00 or equivalent) in exchange for participation (see study one for a detailed explanation of the survey panel). Two hundred and sixty-five participants were male, 333 were female, 1 were transgender, and 1 was gender non-conforming. Eighty-three percent of participants identified as Caucasian/White, 6% as Latino/Hispanic, 8% as Black/African American, 1% as Asian/Pacific Islander, and 3% identified themselves as other ethnic groups. Quotas were set to obtain an equal sample of Gen Z's and Millennials (e.g., 18-37 years old.), Generation X (e.g., 38-54 years old.), and Baby Boomers (e.g., 55-71 years old).

Procedures. All materials and procedures were approved by UNLV's Institutional Review Board (IRB approval #1237924-1). Once registered, participants were given a direct link to the study. After opening the link, participants were shown a general instruction page that included a brief summary of the study. Participants were asked to complete a variety of surveys to assess their likelihood to engage in self-presentation tactics, shopping behaviors, and various personality measures. Participants were assured their responses are anonymous. Next, the same demographic questionnaire described in the pilot study was administered following identical procedures (see Appendix B). Once the demographic questionnaire was completed, participants were given the Impression Management scale (IM) developed by Bolino and Turnley (1999; see

Appendix I) and a retrospective measure of their recent purchase behavior (see Appendix Q). The order of these two measures were counterbalanced.

Impression management. To examine the moderating role of self-presentation on purchase behavior, the same IM scale discussed in study one was used in this study (see Appendix I).

Purchase behavior. A retrospective measure was used to assess recent purchase decisions and the perceived CSR efforts of the companies from which the purchases were made (see Appendix Q). Participants were asked to think of the last three companies from which they made a conscious purchase decision. A conscious purchase decision was defined as one in which they were aware of alternative companies, purposefully gathered information, and made a thoughtful decision based on that information. Next, participants answered a set of questions for each individual company. The order of the three companies and their accompanying questions was randomized. Participants then answered a measure adapted from Assiouras, Ozgen, and Skourtis (2013) to evaluate perceptions of the company's CSR efforts. This measure consists of four items, and each item is rated on a seven-point Likert scale with endpoints of 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The presentation order of these four items was randomized. Finally, in order to effect self-presentation, others must know an individual purchased from the company. Thus, participants rated how much they agree or disagree with statements related to visibility of the company from which they purchased. This final measure consisted of five items, and each item was rated on a seven-point Likert scale with ends points of 1 (*completely disagree*) to 7 (*completely agree*). The presentation order of these five items was randomized (see Appendix Q).

Potential moderators. Next, participants completed various measures to assess moderating variables. The same moderators discussed in study one (e.g., generation, education, frugality, Big Five personality traits, self-monitoring, social desirability) were measured in this study.

Results

A company's perceived CSR efforts was calculated by averaging the scores from the Likert scales in question three (see Appendix Q). Likewise, visibility of the company was calculated by averaging the scores from the Likert scales in question four (see Appendix Q). The mean of company one's perceived CSR efforts was 4.65 ($SD = 1.44$), and the mean for visibility of company one was 3.75 ($SD = 1.60$). Similarly, the mean of company two's perceived CSR efforts was 4.61 ($SD = 1.41$), and the mean for visibility of company two was 3.62 ($SD = 1.61$). Lastly, the mean of company three's perceived CSR efforts was 4.47 ($SD = 1.47$), and the mean for visibility of company three was 3.46 ($SD = 1.63$), see Appendix R. Overall, participants tend to purchase from big box, general merchandise stores such as Target and Amazon; and, the most common types of products purchased are food, electronics, and clothing.

To examine the main hypothesis, the relationship between specific impression management tactics employed by the participants and the three companies' perceived CSR efforts were examined. The IM scale was used to assess engagement in impression management tactics, and includes scores for self-promotion, ingratiation, exemplification, intimidation, and supplication. Scores from the IM tactics were correlated with a company's perceived CSR efforts. Perceived CSR efforts were calculated by averaging the scores from the Likert scales in question three (see Appendix Q).

Each of the five impression management tactics were significantly correlated with the perceived CSR efforts of company one. The correlations ranged in size from .148 to .259, with the exemplification tactic most strongly related to perceived CSR efforts ($r = .259, N = 600, p < .000$, two-tailed). A similar pattern was obtained with company two; each of the five impression tactics were significantly correlated with the perceived CSR efforts of company two. The correlations ranged in size from .156 to .222, with the exemplification tactic most strongly associated to perceived CSR efforts ($r = .222, N = 600, p < .000$, two-tailed). Lastly, a similar pattern was also found with company three; each of the five impression tactics were significantly correlated with the perceived CSR efforts of company three. The correlations ranged in size from .171 to .256, with the exemplification tactic most strongly associated to perceived CSR efforts ($r = .256, N = 600, p < .000$, two-tailed), see Appendix S.

The five tactics (e.g., self-promotion, ingratiation, exemplification, intimidation, and supplication) were highly related to one another ($\alpha = .813$); therefore, a composite measure was also computed by averaging the means of the five impression management tactics to produce an overall score. A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between overall impression management and company one's perceived CSR efforts. There was a significant positive correlation between the two variables, ($r = .272, N = 600, p < .000$, two-tailed). A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between overall impression management and company two's perceived CSR efforts. There was a significant positive correlation between the two variables, ($r = .238, N = 600, p < .000$, two-tailed). Finally, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between overall impression management and company three's perceived CSR efforts. There was a significant positive correlation between the two

variables, ($r = .303$, $N = 600$, $p < .000$, two-tailed). Results of these correlations suggest that participants who engage in impression management tend to purchase from companies they perceive to have CSR efforts (see Appendix S).

In addition to the above correlations, additional exploratory Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were conducted to assess the relationship between the various moderators (e.g., generation, education, frugality, Big Five personality traits, self-monitoring, social desirability) and a company's perceived CSR efforts (see Appendix S). Further, separate Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were also conducted among females (see Appendix T) and males (see Appendix U) to examine the relationship between overall impression management and a company's perceived CSR efforts, as well as the relationship between the various moderators and a company's perceived CSR efforts.

Moderator variables. Similar to study one, separate hierarchical multiple regressions were performed to examine the impact of the interaction between overall impression management and the moderator variables (e.g., generation, education, frugality, Big Five personality traits, self-monitoring, social desirability). To examine this, the dependent variables (e.g., overall perceived CSR efforts and overall visibility of the three companies) were analyzed in separate two-step hierarchical regression analyses. Overall perceived CSR efforts were computed by averaging the means of perceived CSR efforts of the three companies' for each participant. Similarly, overall visibility of the companies was computed by averaging the means of visibility of the three companies for each participant. In these analyses, the first model contained the main effects of overall impression management and one of the moderator variables (e.g., generation, education, frugality, Big Five personality traits, self-monitoring, social desirability). The second model contained the main effects with the addition of a two-factor

interaction (e.g., overall impression management X moderator). The interaction terms were created by multiplying the initial variables (see Aiken & West [1991] for a description of this procedure). The only moderators to produce significant effects were generation, education, and conscientiousness.

Generation. When overall visibility of the companies was used as the dependent variable, model one, which included overall impression management and generation as the predictors, explained 29% of the variance and was significant, ($F(2,597) = 123.30, p < .000$). The second model, which contained the main effects and the addition of the two-factor interaction (e.g., overall impression management X generation), explained significantly more variance ($R^2 \text{ change} = .006, F(1,596) = 5.441, p = .020$). The second model explains 29.5% of the variance (adjusted $R^2 = .295$) and was significant ($F(3,596) = 84.63, p < .000$), see Appendices V and W.

Education. When overall perceived CSR efforts was used as the dependent variable, model one, which included overall impression management and education as the predictors, explained 10.7% of the variance and was significant, ($F(2,597) = 36.73, p < .000$). The second model, which contained the main effects and the addition of the two-factor interaction (e.g., overall impression management X education), explained significantly more variance ($R^2 \text{ change} = .013, F(1,596) = 8.74, p = .003$). The second model explains 11.8% of the variance (adjusted $R^2 = .118$) and was significant ($F(3,596) = 27.72, p < .000$), see Appendices X and Y.

Conscientiousness. When overall visibility was used as the dependent variable, model one, which included overall impression management and conscientiousness as the predictors, explained 27.6% of the variance and was significant, ($F(2,597) = 114.67, p < .000$). The second model, which contained the main effects and the addition of the two-factor interaction (e.g.,

overall impression management X conscientiousness), explained significantly more variance (R^2 change = .009, $F(1,596) = 7.49$, $p = .006$). The second model explains 28.3% of the variance (adjusted $R^2 = .283$) and was significant ($F(3,596) = 79.98$, $p < .000$), see Appendices Z and AA.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The purpose of the current research was to examine how purchasing from a company with CSR efforts may be used as a specific tactic to manage self-presentation. Past research has demonstrated that consumers purchase specific products (e.g., "green" products) to manage their self-presentation. Further, other studies have found that consumers intend to purchase from companies with CSR efforts, but have failed to address actual purchase behavior or potential variables moderating this relationship. Therefore, it was hypothesized that self-presentation would moderate the relationship between a company's CSR efforts and consumer purchase behavior. The current research partially supported this hypothesis.

First, data from the pilot study might have suggested that the best experimental manipulation to include in study one was the writing task. However, other various components were considered when deciding to include the reading scenario. First, there were some concerns with potential cognitive fatigue due to the writing task's requirements. The writing task requires relatively more effort (e.g., writing a total of 45 words, constructing a meaningful story using each word at least once) compared to the reading scenario or scrambled sentence task. Cognitive fatigue negatively impacts individuals' abilities to perform tasks and make judgments as their limited cognitive resources have been depleted (Timmons & Byrne, 2018), often resulting in a reluctance to participate in further effortful processing (Inzlicht & Schmeichel, 2012) and/or an insufficient capacity to process new decisions (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996; Schmeichel, Vohs, & Baumeister, 2003). Because the manipulation is the first measure participants receive in study one, there was concern with the writing task's potential negative influence on the responses in the remainder of the survey. As a result, there was further concern of high attrition rates. Study one sought to recruit a nationwide, demographically representative sample – something relatively

rare in this line of research. Therefore, a difficult decision was made to either use a less effective measure or compromise the sample in study one.

Additionally, prior research has used the original experimental manipulation or an adaptation, and found the intended effect (e.g., Cumming, Olphin, & Law, 2007; Howle, 2012; Howle & Ecklund, 2013; Renfrew, Howle, & Ecklund, 2017; Williams, Cumming, & Balanos, 2010), which instilled confidence in the reading scenario's ability to produce significant effects in study one. Further, pilot studies do not need to demonstrate a significant effect, but rather, demonstrate feasibility of the approach (Lee, Whitehead, Jacques, & Julious, 2014; National Institutes of Health, 2017). Therefore, it was determined that the reading scenario would be used in study one as the manipulation of self-presentation concerns.

In study one, however, the experimental manipulation of the salience of self-presentation concerns did not yield differences in participants' perceived price fairness, value, benefit, or purchase intention. Further, the failure of the self-presentation manipulation made it difficult to explicate the role of the potential moderators. There are several potential explanations for the failure of study one to support the hypothesis. First, it is possible the manipulation (e.g., reading scenario) was simply not able to produce the needed momentary changes in self-presentation concerns. Indeed, there has been recent debate among psychological researchers regarding the robustness and replicability of priming and manipulation studies (Cameron, Brown-Iannuzzi, & Payne, 2012; Cesario, 2014; Laws, 2016; Pashler & Wagenmakers, 2012; Wheeler & DeMarree, 2009). Because the manipulation used in study one was an adaptation from previous research (Williams, Hudson, & Lawson, 1999), perhaps it was subject to the null effects debated in the literature. Second, it is possible that even if the manipulation produced momentary changes in self-presentation concerns, these changes were overwhelmed by trait differences in impression

management. That is, persons may emit their habitual impression management responses regardless of the manipulation.

Although study one did not support the hypothesis, it did produce potentially interesting findings. First, there was a marginally significant interaction between the salience of self-presentation concerns and presence of CSR when examining perceived value of the jeans. As mentioned previously, participants in the high self-presentation condition believed the jeans were more valuable when the company had CSR compared to when it did not; and, those in the low self-presentation condition believed the jeans were more valuable when the company had CSR compared to when it did not. This finding, while marginally significant, is important as it reveals the potential effectiveness of CSR efforts. It is possible consumers view products, even if they are more expensive than others, as valuable when the company engages in CSR. Past research has found the importance of added-value in purchase decisions (Li, Wu, & Deng, 2015; Medeiros, Ribeiro, & Cortimiglia, 2015; Santini, Ladeira, Sampaio, & Falcao, 2015). Thus, it makes sense that a company's CSR efforts could be perceived as adding value to the product, potentially influencing the decision to purchase.

Second, there were significant main effects for the presence of CSR. As stated in the discussion of study one, those in the CSR condition believed the price to be more fair, the jeans to be more valuable and beneficial, and also had greater purchase intentions than those in the No CSR condition. This is consistent with previous research, which demonstrates that the presence of CSR positively impacts both consumers' perceptions of the company and purchase intentions of the product (e.g., Auger, Burke, Devinney, & Louviere, 2003; Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2011; Dutta & Singh, 2013; Du et al., 2007; Filho, Wanderley, Gomez, & Farache, 2010; IO Sustainability, 2015; Klein & Dawar, 2004; Maignan, 2001; Mohr & Webb 2005; Nanda, 2015;

Oppewal et al., 2005; Sen et al., 2006; Wigley, 2008). Although these findings are limited to hypothetical scenarios and purchase intentions, they do offer further support for the importance of CSR efforts.

Results of study two were consistent with the hypothesis. As expected, a significant association between purchase behavior and the use of impression management was found. Specifically, when looking at the past three conscious purchase decisions, the data indicate a positive relationship between impression management tactics and purchasing from companies with CSR. As scores on overall impression management increase, scores of companies perceived CSR efforts also increase. While this does not demonstrate a causal relationship, it does offer the possibility that individuals who manage their self-presentation, regardless of the specific tactic, may purchase more from companies who they perceive to have CSR efforts than companies who do not.

These findings are important for a couple of reasons. First, they add to self-presentation theory by revealing a promising, novel self-presentation tactic. A current bucket of self-presentation tactics, prosocial behavior, already includes more granular behaviors such as purchasing consumer goods (e.g., “green” products, sustainable products). Yet, it seems purchasing from ethical companies that implement CSR efforts may be an appropriate fit under this umbrella category. Second, it helps expand the current literature on CSR by providing insight into a potential variable moderating the relationship between a company's CSR and consumer purchase decisions. Identification of a possible moderator is the first step in helping to answer why, if at all, consumers purchase more from companies with CSR compared to those without. Further, this is a critical finding for companies both with and without CSR. For companies with CSR, it posits a novel way to engage consumers. If individuals who employ high

levels of impression management truly purchase from such companies as a way to manage their self-presentation, companies can leverage these desires to their benefit. For example, emphasizing CSR in messaging and advertising or promoting CSR efforts may provide these individuals with a deciding factor when making purchase decisions. For companies without CSR, these findings may help to justify the decision to implement more ethical programs and practices into the organizational structure.

Additionally, study two examined the moderating role of a number of variables (e.g., generation, education, frugality, Big Five personality traits, self-monitoring, social desirability) on the relationship between impression management and the companies' perceived CSR efforts. Only education moderated the relationship. When examining overall perceived CSR efforts, there was a significant interaction between overall impression management and education level. As predicted, participants who engage in more impression management tactics overall seem to purchase more from companies perceived to have CSR efforts than those who engage in fewer impression management tactics. Interestingly, education level moderates this relationship as this effect is particularly strong among those with lower education levels. This finding is quite perplexing. There is evidence to suggest, however, that less educated persons are more easily persuaded by company public relation tactics (van Prooijen, 2016). Perhaps a company's CSR efforts has a greater influence on these individuals, and is therefore more salient in their minds. Further, if these individuals are in fact more easily persuaded by CSR, then it is possible they are more likely to believe that purchasing from such companies will result in being seen in a positive light.

Study two also examined the effects of the aforementioned moderators on the relationship between impression management and visibility of the companies. Results showed only

generation and conscientiousness (e.g., one of the Big Five personality traits) moderated this relationship. As expected, participants who engage in more impression management tactics overall seem to publicize their purchases more so than those who engage in fewer impression management tactics. Further, generation seems to moderate this relationship. Specifically, Gen Z and Millennials engage in higher levels of visibility than both Gen X and Baby Boomers, i.e., Gen Z and Millennials publicize their purchases more so than older generations. Perhaps Gen Z and Millennials engage in more impression management behavior overall than Gen X and Baby Boomers, and see this as a useful tactic. Previous research has found that younger generations are more likely than older generations to be environmentally conscious consumers (Bucic, Harris, & Arli, 2012; McKay, 2010; Smith & Miller, 2011; Vermillion & Peart, 2010), as well as seek and pay more for ethical brands (California Green Solutions, 2007; Gunelius, 2008). Therefore, it seems possible Gen Z and Millennials actively engage in behaviors to make their purchases from ethical companies visible in order to manage their self-presentation.

Conscientiousness, another moderator, also effected the relationship between impression management and visibility of the companies. Again, those who engage in more impression management tactics overall seem to publicize their purchases more so than those who engage in fewer impression management tactics; however, this effect is particularly strong among those with lower levels of conscientiousness. Those with lower levels of conscientiousness engage in higher levels of visibility compared to those with higher levels of conscientiousness, i.e., people deficient in this personality trait publicize their purchases more so than people who have higher levels of this personality trait. As previously mentioned, conscientiousness is associated with traits such as self-discipline and motivation (Vries, Vries, & Born, 2011), and it is likely such individuals are more self-confident and self-assured compared to those with lower levels of

conscientiousness. Therefore, it is possible that individuals who seem to lack this personality trait, or at least have lower levels of it, may feel a need to engage in self-presentation behaviors such as publicizing their purchase from a company with CSR efforts. By showing their support of these ethical companies, these individuals may believe they are having a positive impact on their self-presentation and possibly being seen in a positive light. Further, perhaps individuals with higher levels of conscientiousness feel less of a need to publicize their purchase as their self-presentation is less of a priority.

When examining the impact of the moderators in study two, it is important to note the possibility of type I error. While only three of the moderators had a significant impact, repeated testing of the hypothesis (e.g., running multiple comparisons) may lead to inaccurate results. Conducting a large number of regressions can increase the likelihood of obtaining an invalid significant effect, leading researchers to believe a significant interaction exists when in actuality it does not. It is possible these significant moderators (e.g., education, generation, conscientiousness) were the result of random error, which should be taken into close consideration when interpreting the data.

Research Limitations and Future Directions

There are several limitations in the current research. First, the manipulation in study one did not produce the intended effect. An experimental manipulation of the salience of self-presentation concerns is needed to help demonstrate the hypothesized effect. As previously mentioned, it is possible the selected manipulation hindered the ability to identify significant differences. Future research should consider other experimental manipulations, such as the writing task described in the pilot study (see Appendix E). Another potential method to manipulate participants' salience of self-presentation may be the use of in-person confederates.

Previous research has employed confederates who manipulated their own impression management and asked participants to rate them on a number of measures (Bolino, Klotz, & Daniels, 2014; Wayne & Kacmar, 1991); yet, it may be necessary to use confederates to manipulate participant's salience of self-presentation concerns in a controlled setting. For example, in the context of the current research, confederates (e.g., other participants, researchers) may engage in behaviors that either increase or decrease the salience of self-presentation concerns among actual participants, and then have participants answer questions about companies' CSR efforts and purchase intentions.

Second this research utilized retrospective and self-report measures. Self-reports are often subject to inaccurate or biased information, and rely on one's ability to accurately recall prior events. Although some research has questioned the accuracy and validity of self-reports (Brenner & DeLamater, 2013), other research has indicated that self-reports can accurately predict future behaviors (Shrauger, Ram, Greninger, & Mariano, 1996), and accurately recall past undesirable behaviors. For example, when asked about recent drug use, high agreement is found between self-reports and urinalysis of substance abusers (Peters, Kremling, & Hunt, 2014; see Brener, Billy, & Grady [2003] for a review of the literature). Although the present research does not examine an undesirable behavior, it is possible that more subtle response distortion is occurring. Perhaps impression management affects how memories about purchase behaviors are stored and recalled. For example, those who engage in higher levels of impression management might be more likely to recall behaviors that they perceive as socially desirable (e.g., purchases from a company with CSR efforts) than those who engage in lower levels of impression management. In addition, the use of retrospective self-reports makes it difficult to infer causal relationships. Because these are retrospective reports, they require the participant to refer to a past experience.

Therefore, the researcher is not able to control for any variables or conduct an experimental manipulation – hindering the ability to infer causality.

In order to address the issues associated with self-report data, it will be important for future research to study more ecologically valid situations. For example, utilizing ethnographic research to monitor actual online or in-person shopping experiences and interviewing consumers in real-time. Additionally, future research may consider a diary study, allowing consumers to share their real-time purchases and complete accompanying assessments. While retrospective reports rely on participant's ability to recall past events, ethnographies and daily diaries capture live, organic behavior. These types of studies offer more authentic views into consumers' needs, barriers, motivations, and actions, allowing researchers the ability to identify reliable patterns in behavior as well as the ability for participants to justify the behavior. Further, the use of these procedures will provide more confidence in helping to specify the causal relationships because researchers can observe behavior and ask questions in real-time rather than relying on what the participants think they would do in a hypothetical situation. Additionally, participants will not need to rely on their memory, which is a limitation of retrospective reports.

Beyond shifting to more ecologically valid procedures, future research needs to address a several issues. First, it will be important to address the relative impact of differences in state and trait self-presentation. Traits are stable characteristics that are consistent overtime, while states are momentary feelings or behaviors that depend on a given situation or an individual's motives at a specific point in time. Study one attempted to manipulate state self-presentation concerns through the use of a reading scenario, whereas study two assessed trait differences in self-presentation. It is possible that individuals with traits geared towards the use of self-presentation differ in regards to purchase behavior compared to those who are only manipulated to experience

a temporary state. Further research is needed to tease apart the potential differences between traits and states within such a context.

Second, when looking at the data in study two, it is possible that a potential confounding variable is influencing the relationship between impression management and a company's perceived CSR efforts. While the data support the hypothesis, it is important to consider the possible existence of a confounding variable possibly resulting in a false correlation. Future research may want to consider participants' overall engagement in philanthropy or charitable activities. For example, past research has shown that impression management influences engagement in philanthropic behaviors (Barclay, 2004; Bereczkei, Birkas, & Kerekes, 2007; Hardy & Van Vugt, 2006; Hoffman et al., 1994; Milinski, 2002b; Rege & Telle, 2004). Thus, it is possible these philanthropic or charitable behaviors are highly associated with higher engagement in impression management tactics. Further, it is likely these individuals would also have a higher sense of awareness of companies also involved in such efforts, i.e., perhaps these individuals know of companies whose CSR efforts support the same philanthropic or charitable causes, and thus decide to purchase from them.

Third, although the current research assesses various moderators (e.g., generation, education, frugality, personality traits, self-monitoring, social desirability) it is possible that there are a great number of other potential variables that moderate the relationship between a company's perceived CSR efforts and purchase behavior (e.g., values, political ideology, culture, industry of employment, or perceived health of the economy). For example, value may moderate this relationship because of the specific values individuals hold. It is possible that individuals want to purchase from companies whose CSR efforts directly align with those values, regardless of self-presentation concerns. Perhaps they look for more than just the presence of CSR, but

want to know exactly what the CSR efforts support. Similarly, it seems likely that one's political ideologies (e.g., liberal, conservative) may also impact this relationship. For example, perhaps those who either lean more liberal or conservative specifically purchase from companies whose CSR efforts support those ideologies while boycotting companies who either lack those specific CSR efforts or actively work against them.

In addition, it will be important to explore potential parameters regarding purchasing from a company with CSR, such as a minimal or maximal expense of the purchase. For example, it is possible there is a limit to how much consumers will pay for a product, regardless of self-presentation concerns and the company's CSR. There is a large corpus of research exploring product pricing (e.g., Hamilton & Chernev, 2013; Huangfu & Zhu, 2012; Ingenbleek, Frambach, Verhallen, 2013; Pauwels & D'aveni, 2016; Wu, 2012); however, the literature seems to lack research examining the potential impact of CSR efforts. Further, there may be potential parameters surrounding the context of the purchase (e.g., online vs. in-person). Purchasing items online is often faster and more convenient than in-person, and provides consumers the opportunity to easily compare products and companies. Further, online purchases may influence the role of impression management concerns. For example, online purchases can be made in private and are essentially anonymous. It is possible that the anonymity of the internet, compared to a public in-person shopping experience, decreases the salience of self-presentation concerns when it is time to make a purchase decision.

Conclusion

This dissertation attempted to demonstrate the moderating role of self-presentation on the relationship between corporate social responsibility (CSR) and consumer purchase decisions. While the current research only partially supported this hypothesis, it provides valuable insight

into a potential variable moderating this relationship. This presents a novel foundation on which to further examine why, if at all, consumers prefer to purchase from companies with CSR efforts compared to companies who lack such initiatives. If future research is able to uncover why, it will have real-world applications as companies continue, or perhaps even begin, to invest in such efforts. Beyond helping to identify a potential moderating variable, the current research introduces the idea that purchasing from a company with CSR efforts may be used as a tactic to manage one's self-presentation. Indeed, corporate social responsibility appears to be a promising and new environment that has yet to be explored by self-presentation theory.

Appendix A.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Pilot Study Participants

Characteristic	<i>n</i>	%
Gender		
Male	10	33.3
Female	20	67.6
Age		
18-37	21	70
38-54	5	16.6
55-71	4	13.3
Ethnicity		
Asian/Pacific Islander	5	16.6
Black/African American	2	6.6
Caucasian/White	20	66.6
Latino/Hispanic	7	23.3
Native American	1	3.3
Education		
High school graduate or the equivalent	1	3.3
Some college credit, no degree	7	23.3
Bachelor's degree	18	60
Master's degree	4	13.3

Appendix B.

Demographic Information

For the following items, please select the response(s) that is most descriptive of you or fill in the blank as appropriate.

1. Please select your age from the dropdown list.
 - a. [Drop down list]

2. In which state are you a permanent, year-round resident?
 - a. [Drop down list]

3. What is your zip code?
 - a. [Text box]

4. What is your gender?
 - a. Male
 - b. Female
 - c. Transgender
 - d. Gender non-conforming

5. What is your ethnicity? Please select all that apply.
 - a. Asian Indian
 - b. Asian/Pacific Islander
 - c. Black/African American (non-Hispanic)
 - d. Caucasian/White
 - e. Latino/Hispanic
 - f. Native American
 - g. Other, please specify [Text box]

6. What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed?
 - a. No schooling completed
 - b. Some high school
 - c. High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent (for example: GED)
 - d. Some college credit, no degree
 - e. Trade/technical/vocational training
 - f. Associate degree
 - g. Bachelor's degree
 - h. Master's degree
 - i. Professional degree
 - j. Doctorate degree

7. What is your marital status?
 - a. Single, never married
 - b. Married or domestic partnership
 - c. Widowed

- d. Divorced
 - e. Separated
8. Are you currently...?
- a. Employed for wages
 - b. Self-employed
 - c. Out of work and looking for work
 - d. Out of work but not currently looking for work
 - e. A homemaker
 - f. A student
 - g. Military
 - h. Retired
 - i. Unable to work
9. How many people currently live in your household?
- a. 1
 - b. 2
 - c. 3
 - d. 4
 - e. 5
 - f. 6
 - g. 7
 - h. 8
 - i. 9
 - j. 10
 - k. More than 10
10. What is your total annual household income?
- a. Under \$10,000
 - b. \$10,000 - \$19,999
 - c. \$20,000 - \$29,999
 - d. \$30,000 - \$39,999
 - e. \$40,000 - \$49,999
 - f. \$50,000 - \$59,999
 - g. \$60,000 - \$69,999
 - h. \$70,000 - \$79,999
 - i. \$80,000 - \$89,999
 - j. \$90,000 - \$99,999
 - k. \$100,000 - \$109,999
 - l. \$110,000 - \$119,999
 - m. \$120,000 - \$129,999
 - n. \$130,000 - \$139,999
 - o. \$140,000 - \$149,999
 - p. More than \$150,000

Appendix C.

Scrambled Sentence Task

You will now be presented with 20 sets of random words, which will evaluate your verbal ability. In each set, there are five words. Please create a complete sentence using ONLY four of the five words. Drag the first word of your sentence to the space labeled "1" and the last word of your sentence to the space labeled "4." Please drag your unused word to the space labeled "5."

High Self-Presentation Concerns:

1. The sky is blue (are)
2. The desk is brown (may)
3. Going to the movies (lost)
4. Sit on the chair (down)
5. He drives a car (red)
6. The dog laid down (empty)
7. The stadium was empty (do)
8. Keep up your **appearance** (green)
9. Maintain a positive **image** (bicycle)
10. Make a good **impression** (down)
11. Have a strong **identity** (wind)
12. Actors **portray** a part (and)
13. Play the correct **role** (paper)
14. **Likeable** people are rewarded (desk)
15. **Attractiveness** is very important (the)
16. Need to be **competent** (staple)
17. Gain **respect** of others (mouse)
18. Be a **confident** person (envelop)
19. They are **watching** you (mailbox)
20. **Popular** people have friends (hill)

Low Self-Presentation Concerns:

1. The sky is blue (are)
2. The desk is brown (may)
3. Going to the movies (lost)
4. Sit on the chair (down)
5. He drives a car (red)
6. The dog laid down (empty)
7. The stadium was empty (do)
8. Walk across the street (green)
9. She ate a muffin (and)
10. The book is long (or)
11. Today is very warm (desk)
12. The house is old (are)
13. Kick the soccer ball (wind)
14. Pick up that rock (hill)
15. Drop off the keys (green)
16. They saw a cat (below)
17. The school bell rang (paper)
18. The paper blew away (next)
19. The light was bright (fix)
20. The tennis team lost (envelop)

Appendix D.

Reading Scenario

Please imagine yourself in the scenario detailed in the script, think deeply about it, create a vivid mental representation, and focus only on the scenario rather than past experiences.

High Self-Presentation Concerns

You have finished your rehearsal and are now just a couple of minutes away from the start of your debate. The crowd continues to grow and you estimate it's the biggest crowd you've ever spoken in front of. It feels like their eyes are focused directly on you. Your debate team, friends, and peers are all there watching you. You worry that you won't be able to meet their expectations. You know how badly it will affect your debate team, friends and peers if you don't perform well. They will be angry and frustrated with you. This debate is very important to them. You want to make them happy. You know how much joy they will get from seeing you do well. But are you up to their high standard? You look over to the other debate team. You want to show you are up to their standard. But deep down you worry that you aren't as good as them. You notice how confident the other team looks. They seem ready and prepared for debate. You worry that you aren't prepared. You're concerned that you're not as skilled, or mentally strong as they are. You question yourself. You worry that you're out of your league.

Now, please write down the three most significant ways in which the scenario affected your cognitions and emotions.

Low Self-Presentation Concerns

You have finished your rehearsal and are now just a couple of minutes away from the start of your debate. You notice the crowd, and you're glad that so many people came to support you. Your debate team, friends, and peers are all there backing you. Today you're not worried about other people's expectations. You know your debate team, friends, and peers will love you no matter what the result. They will enjoy just seeing you speak. This debate is not important to them. Just seeing you on stage has already made them happy. You know how much joy they get from seeing you, regardless of what happens. You know you can meet their standards. You look over to the other debate team. You aren't worried about what they think. Deep down you know that you are as good as them. You notice how confident you look compared to them. They don't seem ready or prepared for debate. You do feel prepared. You think you're more skilled and mentally stronger than they are. You have no doubts about yourself. You know how you perform doesn't matter but you believe that you can do well.

Now, please write down the three most significant ways in which the scenario affected your cognitions and emotions.

Appendix E.

Writing Task

High Self-Presentation Concerns:

The purpose of this exercise is to examine people's writing styles as they tell stories. Below you will see a table consisting of nine words. Please retype the nine words across the remaining four columns, so that you type each of the nine words four separate times.

1. Appearance				
2. Image				
3. Impression				
4. Likeable				
5. Attractive				
6. Competent				
7. Confident				
8. Popular				
9. Identity				

Now, take a few minutes to think about each of these words.

1. Appearance
2. Image
3. Impression
4. Likeable
5. Attractive
6. Competent
7. Confident
8. Popular
9. Identity

In the box below, write a brief story about yourself (in one or two paragraphs) which uses each of these words at least once. It may help if you visualize each word as it is relevant to your life.

Low Self-Presentation Concerns:

The purpose of this exercise is to examine people’s writing styles as they tell stories. Below you will see a table consisting of nine words. Please retype the nine words across the remaining four columns, so that you type each of the nine words four separate times.

1. Sky				
2. Chair				
3. Car				
4. Dog				
5. Street				
6. Book				
7. House				
8. Soccer				
9. Keys				

Now, take a few minutes to think about each of these words.

1. Sky
2. Chair
3. Car
4. Dog
5. Street
6. Book
7. House
8. Soccer
9. Paper

In the box below, write a brief story about yourself (in one or two paragraphs) which uses each of these words at least once. It may help if you visualize each word as it is relevant to your life.

Appendix F.

Manipulation Check

Please rate each of the following from 1 (not at all) to 4 (very much so).

I am concerned with...

1. Pleasing others.
2. Impressing others.
3. What others think of me.
4. Meeting other's expectations.
5. Proving myself to others.
6. Others seeing me make mistakes.
7. Performing to an adequate standard.
8. People thinking that I am incompetent.
9. Embarrassing myself in front of others.

Appendix G.

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of Study One Participants

Characteristic	<i>n</i>	%
Gender		
Male	261	43.5
Female	336	56
Transgender	2	.3
Gender non-conforming	1	.2
Age		
18-37	200	33.3
38-54	200	33.3
55-71	200	33.3
Ethnicity		
Asian Indian	4	.7
Asian/Pacific Islander	30	5
Black/African American	43	7.2
Caucasian/White	490	81.7
Latino/Hispanic	40	6.7
Native American	8	1.3
Other	6	1
Education		
Some high school	1	.2
High school graduate or the equivalent	41	6.8
Some college credit, no degree	86	14.3
Trade/technical/vocational training	26	4.3
Associate degree	62	10.3
Bachelor's degree	224	37.3
Master's degree	112	18.7
Professional degree	27	4.5
Doctorate degree	21	3.5

Appendix H.

Purchase Intention

Please read the following scenario and then answer the corresponding questions by selecting a number from one to seven.

Imagine you want to buy a pair of jeans, and you decide to go to a mall that has a variety of clothing companies. During your visit, you enter into some shops and try on several pairs of jeans. You eventually narrow down your options to jeans from Company A and Company B. The two pairs of jeans are each of high quality, have a nice design, are comfortable, and you like them both equally. However, there is a price difference between them. Company A's pair of jeans cost **\$110/\$150**, while Company B costs around \$100.

You recently learned that Company A invests in the improvement of the quality of life of society as a whole, which means it implements actions beyond paying taxes and creating job opportunities. Their products are produced in plants equipped to protect the environment. Moreover, the company implements programs to improve the quality of life of its employees and makes systematic investments in several social programs. Company A adopts a policy of information transparency for its shareholders, suppliers and clients. For these reasons, Company A is rated as being one of the most socially responsible companies – a rating that is given by a highly respected, impartial organization that evaluates companies every year.

Note: Respondents in the 'No CSR' condition receive only the first paragraph of the scenario.

1. Given the situation described in the text, evaluate the price differential charged for Company A's jeans.

Unfair 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Fair

Unacceptable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Acceptable

Unsatisfactory 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Satisfactory

Very high 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very low

2. If I buy Company A's jeans, I will be getting what my money is worth.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

3. If I buy Company A's jeans I think I will receive good value in return for the money spent.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

4. Company A's jeans are a worthwhile purchase, because I think its price is reasonable.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

5. If I buy Company A's jeans I will feel good about myself.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

6. To buy Company A's jeans would make me feel that I am doing the right thing.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

7. If I buy Company A's jeans I will be benefiting myself.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

8. To buy Company A's jeans would provide me personal satisfaction.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

9. I am willing to buy Company A's jeans.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

10. The probability of my buying Company A's jeans is high.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

11. I will probably buy Company A's jeans.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree

Appendix I.

Impression Management Scale

Please respond to the following statements by thinking about "how often you behave this way."

Never behave this way 1 2 3 4 5 Often behave this way

Self-Promotion

1. Talk proudly about your experience or education.
2. Make people aware of your talents or qualifications.
3. Let others know that you are valuable to the organization.
4. Make people aware of your accomplishments.

Ingratiation

5. Compliment your colleagues so they will see you as likable.
6. Take an interest in your colleagues' personal lives to show them that you are friendly.
7. Praise your colleagues for their accomplishments so they will consider you a nice person.
8. Do personal favors for your colleagues to show them that you are friendly.

Exemplification

9. Stay at work late so people will know you are hard working.
10. Try to appear busy, even at times when things are slower.
11. Arrive at work early to look dedicated.
12. Come to the office at night or on weekends to show that you are dedicated.

Intimidation

13. Be intimidating with coworkers when it will help you get your job done.
14. Let others know you can make things difficult for them if they push you too far.
15. Deal forcefully with colleagues when they hamper your ability to get your job done.
16. Deal strongly or aggressively with coworkers who interfere in your business.
17. Use intimidation to get colleagues to behave appropriately.

Supplication

18. Act like you know less than you do so people will help you out.
19. Try to gain assistance or sympathy from people by appearing needy in some areas.
20. Pretend not to understand something to gain someone's help.
21. Act like you need assistance so people will help you out.
22. Pretend to know less than you do so you can avoid an unpleasant assignment.

Appendix J.

Frugality Measure

Please rate each of the following statements from 1 (definitely disagree) to 6 (definitely agree).

1. If you take good care of your possessions, you will definitely save money in the long run.
2. There are many things that are normally thrown away that are still quite useful.
3. Making better use of my resources makes me feel good.
4. If you can re-use an item you already have, there's no sense in buying something new.
5. I believe in being careful in how I spend my money.
6. I discipline myself to get the most from my money.
7. I am willing to wait on a purchase I want so that I can save money.
8. There are things I resist buying today so I can save for tomorrow.

Appendix K.

Big Five Inventory-10 (BFI-10)

How well do the following statements describe your personality?

1 **2** **3** **4** **5**
Disagree strongly **Disagree a little** **Neither agree or disagree** **Agree a little** **Agree strongly**

I see myself as someone who...

1. ...is reserved.
2. ...is generally trusting.
3. ...tends to be lazy.
4. ...is relaxed, handles stress well.
5. ...has few artistic interests.
6. ...is outgoing, sociable.
7. ...tends to find fault with others.
8. ...does a thorough job.
9. ...gets nervous easily.
10. ...has an active imagination.

Appendix L.

Self-Monitoring Scale

The statements below concern your personal reactions to a number of situations. No two statements are exactly alike, so consider each statement carefully before answering. If a statement is true or mostly true as applied to you, mark T as your answer. If a statement is false or not usually true as applied to you, mark F as your answer. It is important that you answer as frankly and as honestly as you can. Record your responses in the spaces provided on the left.

1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.
2. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.
3. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.
4. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.
5. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people.
6. I would probably make a good actor.
7. In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.
8. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.
9. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.
10. I am not always the person I appear to be.
11. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone else or win their favor.
12. I have considered being an entertainer.
13. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.
14. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.
15. At a party, I let others keep the jokes and stories going.
16. I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite so well as I should.
17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).
18. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

Appendix M.

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Reynolds's Form C)

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is True or False as it pertains to you personally.

Note: Response options of True and False should be provided for each statement

1. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged.
2. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.
3. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.
4. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.
5. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.
6. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.
7. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.
8. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.
9. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.
10. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.
11. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.
12. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me.
13. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.

Appendix N.

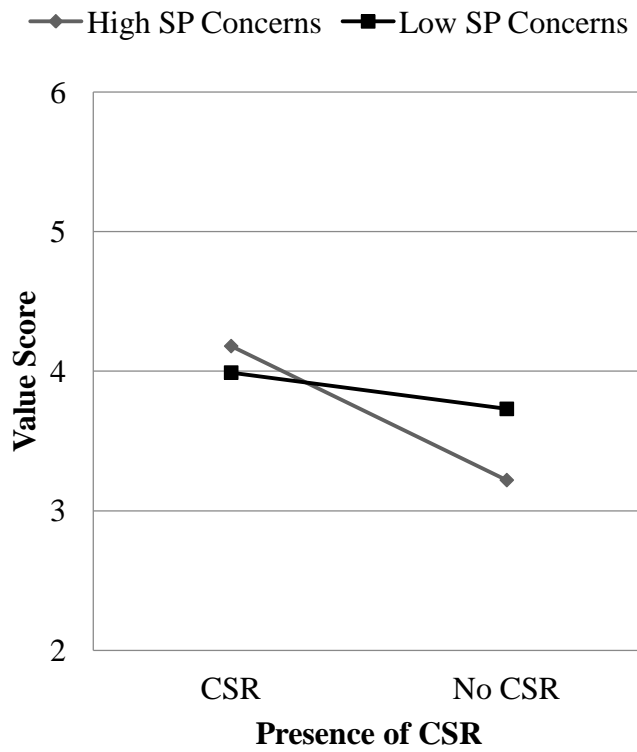


Figure 1. Differences in value mean scores across salience of self-presentation concerns (e.g., high, low) and presence of CSR (e.g., CSR, No CSR).

Appendix O.

Table 3

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Manipulation, CSR, Price Difference, and Self-monitoring Predicting Price Fairness

Predictor Variables		<i>B</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Model 1				
	Manipulation	-0.152	-0.051	-1.313
	CSR	-0.646	-0.215	-5.597***
	Price difference	-0.888	-0.298	-7.687***
	Self-monitoring	0.013	0.028	0.734
Model 2 R^2 change = .01, $F(6,589) = 1.197, p = .306$				
	Manipulation	0.584	0.196	0.977
	CSR	-0.204	-0.068	-0.372
	Price difference	-0.161	-0.054	-0.278
	Self-monitoring	-0.089	-0.196	-0.917
	Manipulation X CSR	-0.133	-0.095	-0.568
	Manipulation X Price difference	-0.236	-0.18	-1.011
	CSR X Price	-0.411	-0.292	-1.757
	Manipulation X Self-monitoring	-0.019	-0.082	-0.536
	CSR X Self-monitoring	0.05	0.223	1.381
	Price X Self-monitoring	0.035	0.144	0.968
Model 3 R^2 change = .013, $F(4,585) = 2.303, p = .057$				
	Manipulation	0.381	0.128	0.212
	CSR	-0.847	-0.282	-0.539
	Price difference	0.515	0.173	0.313
	Self-monitoring	0.523	1.15	1.66
	Manipulation X CSR	1.07	0.762	1.142
	Manipulation X Price difference	0.051	0.039	0.055
	CSR X Price	0.217	0.154	0.245
	Manipulation X Self-monitoring	-0.27	-1.154	-1.599
	CSR X Self-monitoring	-0.13	-0.582	-0.877
	Price X Self-monitoring	-0.341	-1.424	-2.086*
	Manipulation X CSR X Price	-0.904	-1.294	-1.932
	Manipulation X CSR X Self-monitoring	0.018	0.139	0.247
	CSR X Price X Self-monitoring	0.098	0.758	1.351

Model 4	Manipulation X Price X Self-monitoring	0.149	1.174	2.073*
	R^2 change = .008, $F(1,584) = 5.418$, $p = .020$)			
	Manipulation	-5.747	-1.925	-1.806
	CSR	-6.364	-2.119	-2.241*
	Price difference	-5.316	-1.783	-1.775
	Self-monitoring	-0.656	-1.443	-1.101
	Manipulation X CSR	4.917	3.501	2.591**
	Manipulation X Price difference	4.052	3.103	2.076*
	CSR X Price	3.913	2.776	2.153*
	Manipulation X Self-monitoring	0.537	2.295	1.394
	CSR X Self-monitoring	0.603	2.701	1.734
	Price X Self-monitoring	0.441	1.841	1.181
	Manipulation X CSR X Price	-3.449	-4.938	-2.902**
	Manipulation X CSR X Self-monitoring	-0.489	-3.784	-2.13*
	CSR X Price X Self-monitoring	-0.396	-3.061	-1.766
Manipulation X Price X Self-monitoring	-0.382	-3.009	-1.598	
Manipulation X CSR X Price X Self-monitoring	0.337	4.683	2.328*	

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix P.

Table 4

Demographic Characteristics of Study Two Participants

Characteristic	<i>n</i>	%
Gender		
Male	265	44.2
Female	333	55.5
Transgender	1	.2
Gender non-conforming	1	.2
Age		
18-37	200	33.3
38-54	200	33.3
55-71	200	33.3
Ethnicity		
Asian Indian	7	1.2
Asian/Pacific Islander	24	4
Black/African American	50	8.3
Caucasian/White	500	83.3
Latino/Hispanic	36	6
Native American	10	1.7
Other	5	.8
Education		
Some high school	5	.8
High school graduate or the equivalent	42	7
Some college credit, no degree	80	13.3
Trade/technical/vocational training	24	4
Associate degree	45	7.5
Bachelor's degree	237	39.5
Master's degree	123	20.5
Professional degree	24	4
Doctorate degree	20	3.3

Appendix Q.

Actual Purchase Behavior

1. Please think of the last three companies from which you made a conscious purchase decision. A conscious purchase decision is one in which you were aware of alternative companies, purposefully gathered information and made a thoughtful decision based on that information.
 - a. Company 1 write-in
 - b. Company 2 write-in
 - c. Company 3 write-in

Note: Show questions 2-4 for each individual company in Q1.

2. What was the specific product you purchased from **[insert company]**?
 - a. Product write-in
3. Now, please think of **[insert company]** and rate how much you agree with the following statements. **[Likert scale: Completely disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely agree]**
 - a. I believe this company is socially responsible.
 - b. I believe this company is environmentally friendly.
 - c. I believe this company contributes to the welfare of the society.
 - d. I believe this is company contributes donations.
4. Now, please think of **[insert company]** and rate how much you agree with the following statements. **[Likert scale: Completely disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely agree]**
 - a. I recommend this company to others.
 - b. I talk about this company to others.
 - c. I post about this company on social media.
 - d. I brag about this company.
 - e. It is important that others know I buy from this company.

Appendix R.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations for Companies' Perceived CSR

Efforts and Participants' Visibility of the Companies

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Perceived CSR Efforts		
Company 1 CSR efforts	4.65	1.44
Company 2 CSR efforts	4.61	1.41
Company 3 CSR efforts	4.47	1.47
Visibility of the Company		
Visibility of company 1	3.75	1.6
Visibility of company 2	3.62	1.61
Visibility of company 3	3.46	1.63

Appendix S.

Table 6

*Pearson's Product-Moment Correlations for Scores on Impression Management
Tactics, Moderators, and Companies' Perceived CSR Efforts*

Measure	Company 1's Perceived CSR Efforts	Company 2's Perceived CSR Efforts	Company 3's Perceived CSR Efforts
Self-promotion	.251***	.19***	.253***
Ingratiation	.233***	.179***	.242***
Exemplification	.259***	.222***	.256***
Intimidation	.148***	.156***	.236***
Supplication	.155***	.16***	.171***
Overall IM	.272***	.238***	.303***
Generation	-.083*	-.092**	-.104**
Education	-.055	-.097*	-.029
Frugality	.243***	.214***	.269***
Extraversion	.063	.041	.067
Agreeableness	.071	.075	.032
Openness	-.043	-.025	-.072
Conscientiousness	.073	.042	.065
Neuroticism	-.031	-.022	-.089*
Self-monitoring	-.021	-.021	-.005
Social desirability	.105*	.133**	.130**

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix T.

Table 7

*Pearson's Product-Moment Correlations for Scores on Impression Management
Tactics, Moderators, and Companies' Perceived CSR Efforts Among Females*

Measure	Company 1's Perceived CSR Efforts	Company 2's Perceived CSR Efforts	Company 3's Perceived CSR Efforts
Self-promotion	.218***	.115*	.250***
Ingratiation	.171**	.103	.236***
Exemplification	.192***	.142*	.202***
Intimidation	.077	.091	.223***
Supplication	.086	.053	.118*
Overall IM	.202***	.137*	.280***
Generation	-.013	-.017	-.078
Education	-.078	-.128*	-.063
Frugality	.185**	.205***	.243***
Extraversion	.024	-.014	.039
Agreeableness	.096	.120*	.082
Openness	-.064	-.112*	-.145**
Conscientiousness	.115*	.081	.058
Neuroticism	-.053	-.048	-.096
Self-monitoring	-.080	-.139*	-.039
Social desirability	.106	.147**	.112*

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix U.

Table 8

*Pearson's Product-Moment Correlations for Scores on Impression Management
Tactics, Moderators, and Companies' Perceived CSR Efforts Among Males*

Measure	Company 1's Perceived CSR Efforts	Company 2's Perceived CSR Efforts	Company 3's Perceived CSR Efforts
Self-promotion	.294***	.289***	.257***
Ingratiation	.315***	.267***	.249***
Exemplification	.341***	.321***	.321***
Intimidation	.234***	.253***	.271***
Supplication	.236***	.292***	.239***
Overall IM	.354***	.359***	.338***
Generation	-.170**	-.172**	-.138*
Education	-.025	-.055	.018
Frugality	.319***	.220***	.291***
Extraversion	.114	.107	.103
Agreeableness	.040	.012	-.031
Openness	-.018	.077	.020
Conscientiousness	.016	-.008	.068
Neuroticism	-.004	-.010	-.077
Self-monitoring	.057	.131*	.041
Social desirability	.102	.111	.149*

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix V.

Table 9

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Overall Impression Management and Generation Predicting Overall Visibility

	Predictor Variables	<i>B</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Model 1	R^2 change = .292, $F(2,597) = 123.3$, $p < .000$)			
	Overall impression management	.880	.475	12.89***
	Generation	-.244	-.140	-3.79***
Model 2	R^2 change = .006, $F(1,596) = 5.441$, $p = .020$)			
	Overall impression management	1.214	.655	7.661***
	Generation	-.258	-.148	-4.009***
	Overall impression management X Generation	-.193	-.200	-2.333*

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix W.

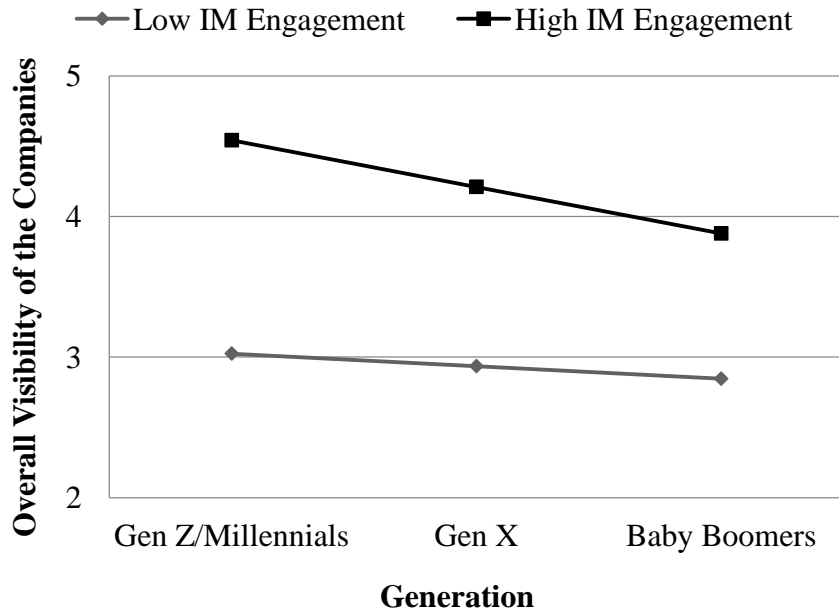


Figure 2. Interaction effect between generation and overall impression management on overall visibility of the companies.

Appendix X.

Table 10

*Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Overall Impression Management and Education
Predicting Overall Perceived CSR Efforts*

	Predictor Variables	<i>B</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Model 1	<i>R</i> ² change = .110, <i>F</i> (2,597) = 36.73, <i>p</i> < .000)			
	Overall impression management	.512	.323	8.371***
	Education	-.200	-.077	-1.999*
Model 2	<i>R</i> ² change = .013, <i>F</i> (1,596) = 8.74, <i>p</i> = .003)			
	Overall impression management	1.077	.680	5.371***
	Education	-.204	-.079	-2.049*
	Overall impression management X Education	-.362	-.374	-2.957**

Note. * *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01. *** *p* < .001.

Appendix Y.

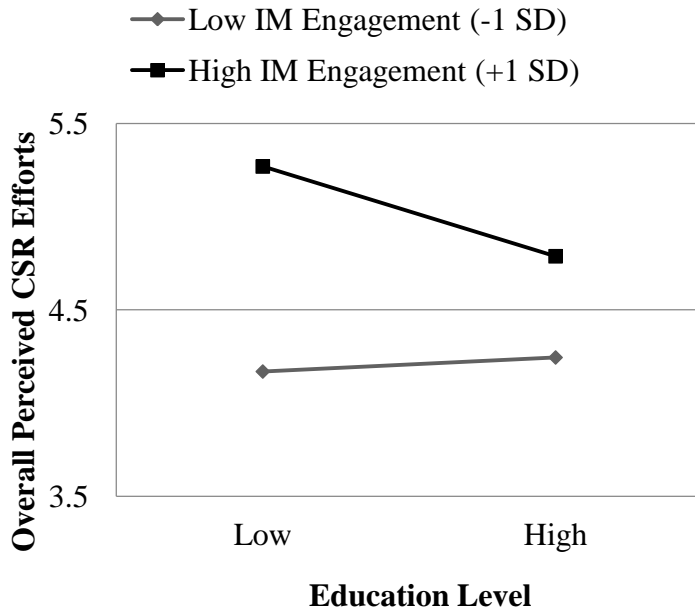


Figure 3. Interaction effect between education level and overall impression management on overall perceived CSR efforts. Low education level = No schooling completed, Some high school, High school graduate or equivalent, Some college credit, Trade/tech, Associates degree; high education level = Associate degree, Bachelor's degree, Master's degree, Professional degree, Doctorate degree.

Appendix Z.

Table 11

*Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Overall Impression Management and
Conscientiousness Predicting Overall Visibility*

	Predictor Variables	<i>B</i>	β	<i>t</i>
Model 1	<i>R</i> ² change = .278, <i>F</i> (2,597) = 114.97, <i>p</i> < .000)			
	Overall impression management	.995	.537	15.041***
	Conscientiousness	.097	.054	1.519
Model 2	<i>R</i> ² change = .009, <i>F</i> (1,596) = 7.491, <i>p</i> = .006)			
	Overall impression management	.937	.505	13.534***
	Conscientiousness	.107	.060	1.69
	Overall impression management X Conscientiousness	-.219	-.100	-2.737**

Note. * *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01. *** *p* < .001.

Appendix AA.

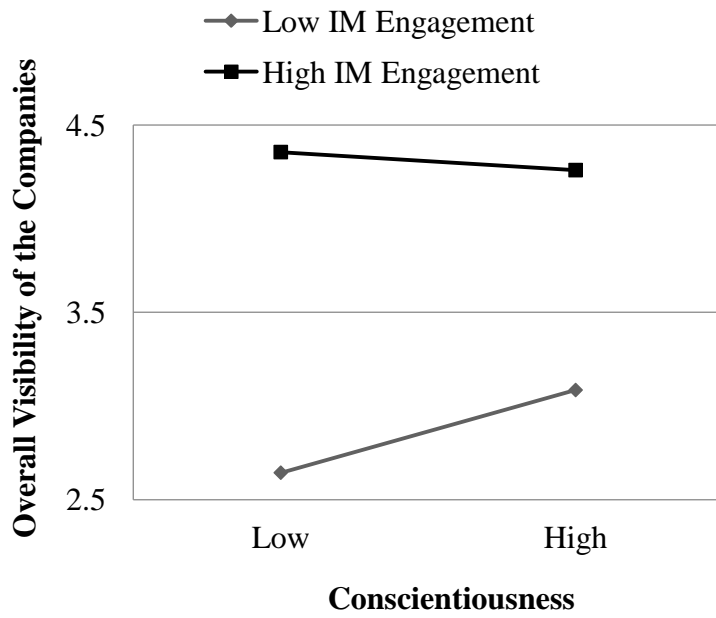


Figure 4. Interaction effect between conscientiousness and overall impression management on overall visibility of the companies.

References

- Abbate, C., Ruggieria, S., & Bocaa, S. (2013). Automatic influences of priming on prosocial behavior. *Europe's Journal of Psychology, 9*, 479-492.
- Ackerman, P. L., & Kanfer, R. (2009). Test length and cognitive fatigue: An empirical examination of effects on performance and test-taker reactions. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied, 15*(2), 163-181.
- Aguinis, H., & O'Boyle, E. (2013). Star performers in twenty-first century organizations. *Personnel Psychology, 67*(2), 313-350.
- Aiken, L.S., & West, S.G. (1991) *Multiple Regression: Testing and Interpretation Interactions*. California: Sage publications, Inc.
- Albinger, H. S., & Freeman, S. J. (2000). Corporate social performance and attractiveness as an employer to different job seeking populations. *Journal of Business Ethics 28*(3), 243-253.
- Anderson-Clark, T. N., & Green, R. J. (2017). Basking in reflected glory: The election of President Obama and naming behaviour. *Ethnic and Racial Studies, 40*, 63-76.
- Ansfield, M. A. (2007). Smiling when distressed: When a smile is a frown turned upside down. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 33*, 763-775.
- Araque-Padilla, R. A., Montero-Simo, M. J., Rivera-Torres, P., & Aragon-Gutierrez, C. (2015). Moderating the relationship between price and perceived value of ethical products. *Journal of Agricultural and Environmental Ethics, 28*(2), 217-230.
- Arterberry, B. J., Martnes, M. P., Cadigan, J. M., & Rohrer, D. (2014). Application of generalizability theory of the Big Five Inventory. *Personality and Individual Differences, 69*, 98-103.

- Assiouras, I., Ozgen, O., & Skourtis, G. (2013). The impact of corporate social responsibility in food industry in product-harm crises. *British Food Journal*, *115*(1), 108-123.
- Auger, P., Burke, P., Devinney, T. M., & Louviere, J. J. (2003). What will consumers pay for social product features? *Journal of Business Ethics* *42*, 281-304.
- Bailey, A. A. (2015). Oh, stop! You flatter me: Ingratiation in retail settings. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, *43*(9), 895-915.
- Ballard, R. (1992). Short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. *Psychological Reports*, *71*, 1155-1160.
- Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Barakat, S. R., Isabella, G., Boaventura, J. M. G., & Mazzon, J. A. (2016). The influence of corporate social responsibility on employee satisfaction. *Management Decision*, *54*(9), 2325-2339.
- Bargh, J. A., Chen, M., & Burrows, L. (1996). Automaticity of social behavior: Direct effects of trait construct and stereotype priming on action. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *71*, 230-244.
- Barclay, P. (2004). Trustworthiness and competitive altruism can also solve the "tragedy of the commons." *Evolution and Human Behavior*, *25*, 209-220.
- Barclay, P. (2013). Strategies for cooperation in biological markets, especially for humans. *Evolution and Human Behavior*, *34*(3) 164-175.
- Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee "citizenship." *Academy of Management Journal*, *26*, 587-595.

- Batson, C. D. (1987). Prosocial motivation: Is it ever truly altruistic? *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 20, 65-122.
- Batson, C. D. (1991). *The altruism question: Toward a social-psychological answer*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Batson, C. D., & Coke J. S. (1981). Empathy: A source of altruistic motivation for helping? In J. Rushton & R. M. Sorrentino (Eds.), *Altruism and Helping Behavior: Social, Personality, and Developmental Perspectives* (pp. 167-87). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Baumeister, R. F. (1982). A self-presentational view of social phenomena. *Psychological Bulletin*, 33, 3-26.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Heatherton, T. F. (1996). Self-regulation failure: An overview. *Psychological Inquiry*, 7, 1-15.
- Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 117, 497-529.
- Baumgartner, T., Heinrichs, M., Vonlanthen, A., Fischbacher, U., & Fehr, E. (2008). Oxytocin shapes the neural circuitry of trust and trust adaptation in humans. *Neuron*, 58, 639-650.
- Berkowitz, L., & Daniels., L. R. (1963). Responsibility and dependency. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 66(5), 429-436.
- Berman, J. Z., Levine, E. E., Barasch, A., & Small, D. A. (2015). The Braggart's dilemma: On the social rewards and penalties of advertising prosocial behavior. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 52, 90-104.

- Bereczkei, T., Birkas, B., & Kerekes, Z. (2007). Public charity offer as a proximate factor of evolved reputation-building strategy: An experimental analysis of real-life situation. *Evolution and Human Behavior, 28*, 277-284.
- Bernstein, M. J., Claypool, H. M., Young, S. G., Tuscherer, T., Sacco, D. F., & Brown, C. M. (2013). Never let them see you cry: Self-presentation as a moderator of the relationship between exclusion and self-esteem. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 39*(10), 1293-1305.
- Birnbaum, M. H. (1999). Testing critical properties of decision making on the Internet. *Psychological Science, 10*(5), 399-407.
- Birnbaum, M. H. (2004). Human research and data collection via the internet. *Annual Review of Psychology, 55*, 803-832.
- Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction.
- Bliege Bird, R., Bird, D. W., Smith, E. A., & Kushnick, G. C. (200). Risk and reciprocity in Meriam food sharing. *Evolution & Human Behavior, 23*, 297-321.
- Bliege Bird, R., Ready, E., & Power, E. A. (2018). The social significance of subtle signals. *Nature Human Behavior, 2*, 452-457.
- Bliege Bird, R., & Power, E. A. (2015). Prosocial signaling and cooperation among Martu hunters. *Evolution & Human Behavior, 36*, 389-397.
- Blurton Jones, N. G. (2016). *Demography and evolutionary ecology of Hadza hunter-gatherers*. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Bobak, M., Hertzman, C., Skodova, Z., & Marmot, M. (2000). Own education, current conditions, parental material circumstances, and risk of myocardial infarction in a former communist country. *Journal of Epidemiology Community Health, 54*(2), 91-96.

- Bolino, M. C., & Grant, A. M. (2016). The bright side of being prosocial at work, and the dark side, too: A review and agenda for research on other-oriented motives, behavior, and impact in organizations. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 10(1), 599-670.
- Bolino, M. C., Hsiung, H. H., Harvey, J., & LePine, J. A. (2015). "Well, I'm tired of tryin'!" Organizational citizenship behavior and citizenship fatigue. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(1), 56-74.
- Bolino, M. C., Kacmar, K. M., Turnley, W. H., & Gilstrap, J. B. (2008). A multi-level review of impression management motives and behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 34(6), 1080-1109.
- Bolino, M., Klotz, A., & Daniels, D. (2014). The impact of impression management over time. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 29(3), 1-35.
- Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (1999). Measuring impression management in organizations: A scale development based on the Jones and Pittman Taxonomy. *Organizational Research Methods*, 2, 187-206.
- Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2003a). Counternormative impression management, likeability, and performance ratings; the use of intimidation in an organization setting. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24, 237-250.
- Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2003b). More than one way to make an impression: Exploring profiles of impression management. *Journal of Management*, 29, 141-160.
- Bolino, M. C., Turnley, W. H., & Bloodgood, J. M. (2002). Citizenship behavior and the creation of social capital in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 27, 505-522.
- Bontempo, R., Lobel, S., & Triandis, H. (1990). Compliance and value internalization in Brazil and the United States. *Journal of Cross Cultural Psychology*, 27(2), 200-13.

- Branco, M. C., & Rodrigues, L. L. (2006). Corporate social responsibility and resource-based perspectives. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *69*, 111-132.
- Brandstätter, V., & Jonas, K. J. (2012). Moral courage training programs as a means of overcoming societal crisis. In K. J. Jonas & T. A. Morton (Eds.), *Restoring civil societies. The psychology of intervention and engagement following crisis* (pp. 265-283). Chichester, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Brener, N. D., Billy, J. O. G., & Grady, W. (2003). Assessment of factors assessing the validity of self-reported health-risk behavior among adolescents: Evidence from the scientific literature. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, *33*, 436-457.
- Brenner, P. S., & DeLamater, J. D. (2013). Social desirability bias in self-reports of physical activity: Is an exercise identity the culprit? *Social Indicators Research*, *117*(2), 489-504.
- Brown, D. J. (1998). *The self*. New York: Taylor and Francis Group, LLC.
- Brown, L. M., Bradley, M. M., & Lang, P. J. (2006). Affective reactions to pictures of ingroup and outgroup members. *Biological Psychology*, *71*, 303-311.
- Brown, P., Stocks, M. H., & Wilder W. M. (2006). Ethical exemplification and the AICPA code of professional conduct: An empirical investigation of auditor and public perceptions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *71*, 39-71.
- Brown, W. M., & Moore, C. (2000). Is prospective altruist-detection an evolved solution to the adaptive problem of subtle cheating in cooperative ventures? Supportive evidence using the Wason selection task. *Evolution and Human Behavior*, *21*, 25-37.
- BSR & Globe Scan. (2018). The state of sustainable business 2018: Results of the 10th annual survey of sustainable business leaders. Retrieved from <https://www.bsr.org/en/our-insights/report-view/state-of-sustainable-business-2018-bsr-globescan>

- Burusic, J., & Ribar, M. (2014). The moderating role of self-presentation tactics. *Swiss Journal of Psychology, 73*(4), 235-242.
- Buss, D. M. (2004). *Evolutionary psychology: The new science of the mind*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bye, H. H., Sandal, G. M., van de Vijver, F. J. R., Sam, D. L., Cakar, N. D., & Franke, G. H. (2011). Personal values and intended self-presentation during job interviews: A cross-cultural comparison. *Applied Psychology, 60*(1), 160-182.
- Cameron, C. D., Brown-Iannuzzi, J. L., & Payne, B. K. (2012). Sequential priming measures of implicit social cognition: A meta-analysis of associations with behavior and explicit attitudes. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 16*(4), 330-350.
- Card, D. (1999). The causal effect of education on earnings. *Handbook of Labor Economics, 3*, 1801-1863.
- Carroll, A. B. (1979). A three dimensional conceptual model of corporate performance. *Academy of Management Review, 4*, 497-505.
- Carroll, A. B. (1999). Corporate social responsibility: Evolution of a definitional construct. *Business & Society, 38*, 268-295.
- Carroll, A. B. (2008). A history of corporate social responsibility: Concepts and practices. In A. Crane, A. McWilliams, D. Matten, J. Moon, & D. Siegel (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of corporate social responsibility* (pp. 19-46). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Catfishing [Def. 2]. (2017). *Merriam-Webster Online*. Retrieved October 10, 2017, from <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/catfish>

- Cesario, J. (2014). Priming, replication, and the hardest science. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 9(1), 40-48.
- Chang, L., & Krosnick, J. A. (2009). National surveys via RDD telephone interviewing versus the Internet: Comparing sample representativeness and response quality. *Public Opinion Quarterly* 73(4), 641–678.
- Chen, C. H. V., Lee, H. M., & Yeh, Y. J. Y. (2008). The antecedent and consequence of person–organization fit: Ingratiation, similarity, hiring recommendations and job offer. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 16(3), 210-219.
- Chen, Y. K. (2010). Examining the presentation of self in popular blogs: A cultural perspective. *Chinese Journal of Communication*, 3(1), 28-41.
- Cialdini, R. B. (2001). *Influence: Science and practice*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Cirque du Soleil. (2018). *Cirque du Soleil – Global Citizen*. Retrieved from <https://www.cirquedusoleil.com/citizenship>
- Clark, M. S., & Taraban, C. B. (1991). Reactions to and willingness to express emotion in two types of relationships. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 27, 324-336.
- Cone. (2018). Cone/Porter Novelli purpose study: How to build deeper bonds, amplify your message and expand your consumer base. Retrieved from <http://www.conecomm.com/research-blog/2018-purpose-study>
- Connor, R. C., & Norris, K. S. (1982). Are dolphins reciprocal altruists? *The American Naturalist*, 119(3), 358-374.
- Coricelli, G., Joffily, M., Montmarquette, C., & Villeval, M. C. (2010). Cheating, emotions, and rationality: An experiment of tax evasion. *Experimental Economics*, 13, 226-247.

- Cornwell, B., & Lundgren, D. C. (2001). Love on the Internet: Involvement and misrepresentation in romantic relationships in cyberspace vs. realspace. *Computers in Human Behavior, 17*(2), 197-211.
- Corporate Social Responsibility. (2018). Retrieved from <https://www.mgmresorts.com/en/company/csr.html>
- Cottrel, C. A., Neuberg, S. L., & Li, N. P. (2007). What do people desire in others? A sociofunctional perspective on the importance of different valued characteristics. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 92*, 208-231.
- Cowan, K., & Kinley, T. (2014). Green spirit: Consumer empathies for green apparel. *International Journal of Consumer Studies, 38*, 493-499.
- Crowne, D. P., & Marlowe, D. (1960). A new scale of social desirability independent of pathology. *Journal of Consulting Psychology, 24*, 349-354
- Cueva, C., & Dessi, R. (2012). Charitable giving, self-image and personality. *TSE Working Paper, 12*(342), 1-22.
- Cumming, J., Olphin, T., & Law, M. (2007). Self-reported psychological states and physiological responses to different types of motivational general imagery. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 29*, 629-644.
- Daniels, E. A. & Zurbriggen, E. L. (2016). The price of sexy: Viewers' perceptions of a sexualized versus nonsexualized Facebook profile photograph. *Psychology of Popular Media Culture, 5*(1), 2-14.
- Deaux, K., & Major, B. (1987). Putting gender into context: An interactive model of gender-related behavior. *Psychological Review, 94*, 369-389.

- Deery, S., Rayton, B., Walsh, J., & Kinnie, N. (2016). The costs of exhibiting organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management, 56*(6), 1039-1049.
- de Reuver, M., & Bouwman, H. (2014). Dealing with self-report bias in mobile internet acceptance and usage studies. *Information & Management, 52*(3), 287-294.
- Dijksterhuis, A., & van Knippenberg, A. (1998). The relation between perception and behavior, or how to win a game of Trivial Pursuit. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*, 865-877.
- Dijkstra, J. K., Cillessen, A. H. N., Lindenberg, S., & Veenstra, R. (2010). Basking in reflected glory and its limits: Why adolescents hang out with popular peers. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 20*(4), 942-958.
- Dirks, K. T., & Starlicki, D. P. (2009). The relationship between being perceived as trustworthy by coworkers and individual performance. *Journal of Management, 35*(1), 136-157.
- Drolet, A., & Morris, M. W. (2000). Rapport in conflict resolution: Accounting for how face-to-face contact fosters mutual cooperation in mixed-motive conflicts. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology 36*(1), 26-50.
- Du, S., Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2007). Reaping relational rewards from corporate social responsibility: The role of competitive positioning. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 24*, 224-241.
- Du, S., Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2011). Corporate social responsibility and competitive advantage: Overcoming the trust barrier. *Management Science, 57*(9), 1528-1545.
- DuBrin, A. J. (1991). Sex and gender differences in tactics of influence. *Psychological Reports, 68*, 635-646.

- DuBrin, A. J. (1994). Sex differences in the use and effectiveness of tactics of impression management. *Psychological Reports, 74*(2), 531-544.
- Duffy, B., Smith, K., Terhanian, G., & Bremer, J. (2005) Comparing data from online and face-to-face surveys. *International Journal of Market Research 47*(6), 615–639.
- Dunn, D., & Cody, M. J. (2000). Account credibility and public image: Excuses, justifications, denials, and sexual harassment. *Communication Monographs, 67*(4), 372-391.
- Dutta, K., & Singh, S. (2013). Customer perception of CSR and its impact on retailer evaluation and purchase intention in India. *Journal of Services Research, 13*(1), 111-134.
- Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (1981). Sex of researchers and sex-typed communications as determinants of sex differences in influenceability: A meta-analysis of social influence studies. *Psychological Bulletin, 90*, 1-20.
- Eagly, A. H., & Maureen, C. (1986). Gender and helping behavior: A meta-analytic review of the social psychological literature. *Psychological Bulletin, 100*(3), 283-308.
- Edelman trust barometer: Global report. (2018). Retrieved from https://www.edelman.com/sites/g/files/aatuss191/files/2018-10/2018_Edelman_Trust_Barometer_Global_Report_FEB.pdf
- Ehrhart, M. G., & Naumann, S. E. (2004). Organizational citizenship behavior in work groups: A group norms approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*, 960-974.
- Eisenberg, N., Cameron, E., Tryon, K., & Dodez, R. (1981). Socialization of prosocial behavior in the preschool classroom. *Developmental Psychology, 71*, 773-782.
- Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R. A., & Spinrad, T. L. (2007). *Prosocial Development*. New Jersey, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

- Ellingsen, T., & Johannesson, M. (2007). Anticipated verbal feedback induces altruistic behavior. *Evolution and Human Behavior, 29*, 100-105.
- Emerson, R. M. (1976). Social exchange theory. *Annual Review of Sociology, 2*, 335-362.
- Endicott, K. (1988). In Ingold, D., Riches, T., & Woodburn, J. (Eds.), *Hunters and Gatherers Vol. 2: Property, power and ideology* (pp. 110-127).
- Epley, N., & Gilovich, T. (1999). Just going along: Nonconscious priming and conformity to social pressure. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 35*, 578-589.
- Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A. G., & Buchner, A. (2007). G*Power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavioral Research Methods, 39*(2), 175-191.
- Ferradás, M. D. M., Freire, C., Valle, A., & Núñez, J. C. (2016). Academic goals and self-handicapping strategies in university students. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology, 19*, 1-9.
- Ferreira, D. A., Avila, M. G., & Faria, Dias de Faria, M. (2010). Corporate social responsibility and consumers' perception of price. *Social Responsibility Journal, 6*(2), 208-221.
- Flammer, C. (2013). Does corporate social responsibility lead to superior financial performance? Regression discontinuity approach. *Management Science, 61*(11), 2549-2568.
- Flavell, J. H. (1982). On cognitive development. *Child Development, 53*, 1-10.
- Flynn, F. J. (2003). How much should I give and how often? The effects of generosity and frequency of favor exchange on social status and productivity. *The Academy of Management Journal, 46*(5), 539-553.

- Flynn, F. J., Reagans, R. E., Amanatullah, E. T., & Ames, D. R. (2006). Helping one's way to the top: Self-monitors achieve status by helping others and knowing who helps whom. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 91*, 1123-1137.
- Fouts, R. (1997). *Next of kin: What chimpanzees have taught me about who we are*. New York, NY: William Morrow.
- Franzoi, S. L. (2006). *Social psychology*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Freeman, R. E. (1984). *Strategic management: A stakeholder approach*. Boston, MA: Pitman.
- Fuglestad, P. T., & Snyder, M. (2009). Self-monitoring: Appraisal and reappraisal. In M. R. Leary & R. H. Hoyle (Eds.), *Handbook of individual differences in social behavior* (pp. 574-591). New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Fuglestad, P. T., & Snyder, M. (2010). Status and the motivational foundations of self-monitoring. *Social & Personality Psychology Compass, 4*, 1031-1041.
- Fujisawa, K. K., Kutsukake, N., & Hasegawa, T. (2008). Reciprocity of prosocial behavior in Japanese preschool children. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 32*(2), 89-97.
- Gardner, W. L., & Avolio B. J. (1998). The charismatic relationship: A dramaturgical perspective. *Academy of Management Review, 23*, 32-58.
- Gardner, W. L., & Cleavenger, D. (1998). The impression management strategies associated with transformational leadership at the world-class level. *Management Communication Quarterly, 12*, 3-41.
- Garriga, E., & Melé, D. (2004). Corporate social responsibility theories: Mapping the territory. *Journal of Business Ethics, 53*(1-2), 51-71.

- Gbadamosi, A. (2009). Low-income consumers' reactions to low-involvement products. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, 7(7), 882-899.
- Gerber, A. S., Green, D. P., & Larimer, C. W. (2008). Social pressure and voter turnout: Evidence from a large scale field experiment. *American Political Science Review*, 102, 33-48.
- Giacalone, R. A., & Rosenfeld, P. (2000). Self-presentation and self-promotion in an organizational setting. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 126(3), 321-326.
- Gibbs, J. L., Ellison, N. B., & Heino, R. D. (2006). Self-presentation in online personals: The role of anticipated future interaction, self-disclosure, and perceived success in Internet dating. *Communication Research*, 33(2), 1-26.
- Gibson, B., & Sachau, D. (2000). Sandbagging as a self-presentational strategy: Claiming to be less than you are. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 26, 56-70.
- Gilligan, C. (1977). In a different voice: Women's conception of self and of morality. *Harvard Educational Review* 47(4), 481-517.
- Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice: Psychological theory and women's development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Goldschmied, N., & Vandello, J. A. (2009). The advantage of disadvantage: Underdogs in the political arena. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 31, 24-31.
- Gollan, T., & Witte, E. H. (2008). It was right to do it, because..." Understanding justifications of actions as prescriptive attributions. *Social Psychology*, 39(3), 189-196.
- Goodall, J. (1986). *The chimpanzees of Gombe: Patterns of behavior*. Cambridge, MA: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.

- Goolshy, J. R., & Hunt, S. D. (1992). Cognitive moral development and marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 56, 55-68.
- Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review*, 25, 161-178.
- Grant, A. M., & Mayer, D. M. (2009). Good soldiers and good actors: Prosocial and impression management motives as interactive predictors of affiliative citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(4), 900-912.
- Grant, A. M., Parker, S., & Collins, C. (2009). Getting credit for proactive behavior: Supervisor reactions depend on what you value and how you feel. *Personnel Psychology*, 62, 31-55.
- Green, E. G. T., Deschamps, J. C., & Paez, D. (2005). Variation of individualism and collectivism within and between 20 countries: A typological analysis. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 36(3), 321-339.
- Greenberg, M. S., & Shapiro, S. P. (1971). Indebtedness: An adverse aspect of asking for and receiving help. *Sociometry*, 34(2), 290-301.
- Greening, D. W., & Turban, D. B. (2000) Corporate social performance as a competitive advantage in attracting a quality workforce. *Business and Society*, 39(3), 254-280.
- Greitemeyer, T., Osswald, S., Fischer, P., & Frey, D. (2007). Civil courage: Implicit theories, determinants, and measurement. *Journal of Positive Psychology*, 2, 115-119.
- Griskevicius, V., Tybur, J. M., & Van den Bergh, B. (2010). Going green to be seen: Status, reputation, and conspicuous conservation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 98(3), 392-404.

- Grocery Manufacturers Association, & Deloitte. (2009). Finding the green in today's shoppers: Sustainability trends and new shopper insights. Retrieved from <http://www.gmaonline.org/downloads/research-and-reports/greenshopper09.pdf>.
- Guadagno, R. E., & Cialdini, R. B. (2007). Gender differences in impression management in organizations: A qualitative review. *Sex Roles, 56*(7), 483-494.
- Gundlach, M. J., Douglas, S. C., & Martinko, M. J. (2003). The decision to blow the whistle: A social information processing framework. *The Academy of Management Review, 28*(1), 107-123.
- Gurven, M., Allen-Arave, W., Hill, K., & Hurtado, M. (2000). It's a wonderful life: Signaling generosity among the Ache of Paraguay. *Evolution and Human Behavior, 21*, 263-282.
- Gurven, M., Hill, K., Kaplan, H., Hurtado, A., & Lyles, R. (2000). Food transfers among Hiwi foragers of Venezuela: Tests of reciprocity. *Human Ecology, 28*, 171-218.
- Halbesleben, J. R. B., Bowler, W. M., Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2010). Organizational concern, prosocial values, or impression management? How supervisors attribute motives to organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 40*(6), 1450-1489.
- Hamilton, R., & Chernev. (2013). Low prices are just the beginning: Price image in retail management. *Journal of Marketing, 77*(6), 1-20.
- Hamilton, W. D. (1963). The evolution of altruistic behavior. *The American Naturalist, 97*, 354-356.
- Hardy, C. L., & Van Vugt, M. (2006). Nice guys finish first: The competitive altruism hypothesis. *Personality and Social Psychology, 32*, 1402-1413.

- Harris, K. J., Kacmar, K. M., Zivnuska, S., & Shaw, J. D. (2007). The impact of political skill on impression management effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 728-285.
- Hartog, J. (2000). Over-education and earnings: Where are we, where should we go? *Economics of Education Review, 19*(2), 131-147.
- Heatherington, L., Burns, A. B., & Gustafson, T. B. (1998). When another stumbles: Gender and self-presentation to vulnerable others. *Sex Roles, 38*, 889-913.
- Higgins, C. A., & Judge, T. A. (2004). The effect of applicant influence tactics on recruiter perceptions to fit and hiring recommendations. A field study. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*, 622-632.
- Higgins, R. L., & Snyder, C. R. (1989). The business of excuses. In R. A. Giacalone & P. Rosenfeld (Eds.), *Impression management in the organization* (pp. 73–84). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Hirt, E. R., Deppe, R. K., & Gordon, L. J. (1991). Self-reported versus behavioral self-handicapping. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 61*(6), 981-991.
- Hill, R. P. & Langan, R. (2014). *Handbook of research on marketing and corporate social responsibility*. Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar.
- Hoffman, E., McCabe, K., Schachat, K., & Smith, V. (1994). Preferences, property rights, and anonymity in bargaining games. *Games and Economic Behavior, 7*, 346-380.
- Hoffman, M. L. (1981). The development of empathy. In J. P. Rushton & R. M. Sorrentino (Eds.), *Altruism and helping behaviour: Social, personality, and developmental perspectives* (pp. 41-63). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

- Hogan, R., & Briggs, S. R. (1986). A socioanalytic interpretation of the public and the private selves. In R. F. Baumeister (Ed), *Public self and private life* (pp. 179-188). New York, NY: Springer-Verlag.
- Holbrook, A. L., Krosnick, J. A., & Pfent, A. M. (2007) Response rates in surveys by the media and government contractor research firms. In: Lekowski J. M., Tucker C., Brick M., et al. (Eds) *Advances in Telephone Survey Methodology*. New York, NY: Wiley, pp.499–528.
- Hornik, J., Cherian, J., Madansky, M. & Narayana, C. (1995). Determinants of recycling behavior: A synthesis of research results. *Journal of Socioeconomics*, 24, 105-127.
- Horswill, M. S., & Coster, M. E. (2001). User-controlled photographic animations, photograph-based questions, and questionnaires: Three Internet-based instruments for measuring drivers' risk-taking behavior. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, 33(1), 46-58.
- Howle, T. (2012). Cognitions and emotions experienced under pressure: A self-presentation and challenge/threat perspective. (Unpublished master's thesis). Florida State University, Florida.
- Howle, T. C., & Eklund, R. C. (2013). The effect of induced self-presentation concerns on cognitive appraisal and effect. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping*, 26(6), 700-710.
- Huangfu, G., & Zhu, L. (2012). Do consumers' perceptions of price fairness differ according to type of firm ownership? *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 40(4), 693-696.
- Ingenbleek, P. T. M., Frambach, R. T., & Verhallen, T. M. M. (2013). Best practices for new product pricing: Impact on market performance and price level under different conditions. *The Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 30(3), 560-573.

- Inzlicht, M., & Schmeichel, B. J. (2012). What is ego depletion? Toward a mechanistic revision of the resource model of self-control. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 7*, 450-463.
- IO Sustainability. (2015). Project ROI: Defining the competitive and financial advantages of corporate responsibility and sustainability. Retrieved from <http://projectroi.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/07/Project-ROI-Report.pdf>
- Iredale, W., Van Vugt, M., & Dunbar, R. I. M. (2008). Showing off in humans: Male generosity as a mating signal. *Evolutionary Psychology, 6*, 386-392.
- Jenkins, S., & Siedler, T. (2007). *Using household panel data to understand the intergenerational transmission of poverty*. Colchester: Institute for Social and Economic Research.
- Johns, G. (2010). Presenteeism in the workplace: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31*, 519-542.
- Johnstone, M., & Tan, L. P. (2013). An exploration of environmentally-conscious consumers and the reasons why they do not buy green products. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning, 33*(5), 804-825.
- Jonas, K. J., & Brandstätter, V. (2004). Focus on moral courage: Definitions, findings, and intervention. *Zeitschrift für Sozialpsychologie, 35*, 185-200.
- Jones, E. E. (1990). *Interpersonal perception*. New York, NY: W. H. Freeman and Co.
- Jones, E. E., & Berglas, S. (1978). Control of attributions about the self through self-handicapping strategies: The appeal of alcohol and the role of underachievement. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 4*, 200-206.

- Jones, E. E., & Pittman, T. S. (1982). Toward a general theory of strategic self-presentation. In J. Suls (Ed.), *Psychological perspectives on the self* (Vol. 1, pp. 231-262). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Jones, E. E., & Wortman, C. (1973). *Ingratiation: An attributional approach*. New York, NY: General Learning.
- Jorga, J. B. (2008). Association of socioeconomic status by education and risk factors for carotid atherosclerosis: Cross-sectional study. *Croatian Medical Journal*, 49(6), 824-831.
- Joseph, A. V. (2009). Successful examples of corporate social responsibility. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 44(3), 402-409.
- Judge, T. A., Erez, A., Bono, J. E., & Thoresen C. J. (2002). Are measures of self-esteem, neuroticism, locus of control, and generalized self-efficacy indicators of a common core construct? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83(3), 693-710.
- Kacmar, K. M., Carlson, D. S., & Harris, K. (2013). Interactive effect of leaders' influence tactics and ethical leadership on work effort and helping behavior. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 153(5), 577-597.
- Kaiser, F. G., & Byrka, K. (2011). Environmentalism as a trait: Gauging people's prosocial personality in terms of environmental engagement. *International Journal of Psychology*, 46(1), 71-79.
- Karsten, M. F. (1994). *Management and gender: Issues and attitudes*. Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- Kayser, D. N., Greitemeyer, T., Fischer, P., & Frey, D. (2009). Why mood affects help giving, but not moral courage: Comparing two types of prosocial behaviour. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 40(7), 1136-1157.

- Keil, F. C.(1981). Constraints on knowledge and cognitive development. *Psychological Review*, 88, 197-227.
- Kim, H., & Papacharissi, Z. (2003) Cross-cultural differences in online self-presentation: A content analysis of personal Korean and US home pages. *Asian Journal of Communication*, 13(1), 100-119.
- Kirschbaum, J. (2006). Improving employee's self-esteem. *Public Administration Management*, 11(1), 11-14.
- Klein, J., & Dawar, N. (2004).Corporate social responsibility and consumers' attributions and brand evaluations in a product-harm crisis. *International Journal of Research in Marketing* 21, 203-217.
- Kohlberg, L. (1969). Stage and sequence: The cognitive-developmental approach to socialization. In D. Goslin (Ed.), *Handbook of Socialization Theory and Research* (pp. 347–480). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Kopcha, T. J., & Sullivan, H. (2007). Self-presentation bias in surveys of teachers' educational technology practices. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 55(6), 627-646.
- Krantz, J. H., Ballard, J., & Scher, J. (1997). Comparing the results of laboratory and World-Wide Web samples on the determinants of female attractiveness. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, and Computers*, 29(2), 264-269.
- Kreuter, F., Presser, S., & Tourangeau, R. (2008) Social desirability bias in CATI, IVR, and web surveys: The effects of mode and question sensitivity. *Public Opinion Quarterly* 72(S1): 847-865.

- Laible, D. J., Murphy, T. P., & Augustine, M. (2014). Adolescents' aggressive and prosocial behaviors: Links with social information processing, negative emotionality, moral affect, and moral cognition. *The Journal of Genetic Psychology, 175*(3), 270-286.
- Lam, C. F., Liang, J., Ashford, S. J., & Lee, C. (2015). Job insecurity and organizational citizenship behavior: Exploring curvilinear and moderated relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*(2), 499-510.
- Lastovicka, J. L., Bettencourt, L. A., Hughner, R. S., & Kuntze, R. J. (1999). Lifestyle of the tight and frugal: Theory and measurement. *Journal of Consumer Research, 26*, 85-98.
- Latané, B., & Darley, J. M. (1969). Bystander "apathy." *American Scientist, 57*, 244-268.
- Laws, K. R. (2016). Psychology, replication & beyond. *BMC Psychology, 4*(30), 1-8.
- Leary, M. R., & Kowalski, R. M. (1990). Impression management: A literature review and two-component model. *Psychological Bulletin, 107*(1), 34-47.
- Leary, M. R., & Shepperd, J. A. (1986). Behavioral self-handicaps versus self reported self-handicaps. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(6), 1265-1268.
- Lee, E., Ahn, J., & Kim, Y. J. (2014). Personality traits and self-presentation at Facebook. *Personality and Individual Differences, 69*, 162-167.
- Lee, M. D. P. (2008). A review of the theories of corporate social responsibility: Its evolutionary path and the road ahead. *International Journal of Management Reviews, 10*(1), 53-73.
- Lee, S. J., Quigley, B. M., Nesler, M. S., Corbett, A. B., & Tedeschi, J. T. (1999). Development of a self-presentation tactics scale. *Personality and Individual Differences, 26*, 701-722.
- Levine, C., Kohlberg, L., & Hower, A. (1985). The current formulation of Kohlberg's theory and a response to critics. *Human Development, 28*, 94-100.

- Li, W., Wu, H., & Deng, L. (2015). Decision-making based on consumers' perceived value in different remanufacturing modes. *Discrete Dynamics in Nature and Society*, 2015, 1-8.
- Lindgreen, A. & Swaen, V. (2010). Corporate social responsibility. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 12(10), 1-7.
- Liu, Y., Loi, R., & Lam, L. W. (2013). Exemplification and supervisor-rated performance: The moderating role of ethical leadership. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 21(2), 145-154.
- Long, D. M. (2017). A method to the martyrdom: Employee exemplification as an impression management strategy. *Organizational Psychology Review*, 7(1), 36-65.
- Loo, R., & Thorpe, K. (2000). Confirmatory factor analysis of the full and short versions of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, *Journal of Social Psychology*, 140, 628-635.
- Loose, F. (2008). Individualism: Valued differently by parents and teachers of primary, junior high and high school students. *Social Psychology of Education*, 11(2), 117-131.
- MacDonald, K., & MacDonald, T. M. (2010). The peptide that binds: A systematic review of oxytocin and its prosocial effects in humans. *Harvard Review of Psychiatry*, 18(1), 1-21.
- MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Fetter, R. (1993). The impact of organizational citizenship behavior on evaluations of sales performance. *Journal of Marketing*, 57, 70-80.
- Maignan, I. (2001). Consumers' perceptions of corporate social responsibilities: A cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 30, 57-72.
- Maksimovic, M. Z., Vlajinac, H. D., Radak, D. J., Maksimovic, J. M., Marinkovic, J. M., & Jorga, J. B. (2008). Association of socioeconomic status measured by education and risk

- factors for carotid atherosclerosis: Cross-sectional study. *Croatian Medical Journal*, 49(6), 824-831.
- Makower, J. (2018). State of green business. Retrieved from <https://www.greenbiz.com/report/state-green-business-report-2018>
- Manago, A. M., Graham, M. B., Greenfield, P. M., & Salimkhan, G. (2008). Self-presentation and gender on MySpace. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 29(6), 446-458.
- Martin, S. R. (2000). Donations as an alternative to wilderness user fees: The case of the Desolation Wilderness. *USDA Forest Service Proceedings*, 15(4), 142-147.
- Matheson, M. D., & I.S. Bernstein. (2000). Grooming, social bonding, and agonistic aiding in rhesus monkeys. *American Journal of Primatology*, 51, 177-186
- Matsumoto, D. (1991). Cultural influences on facial expressions of emotion. *Southern Communication Journal*, 56(2), 128-137,
- Maynard, M. (2007, July 4). Say 'hybrid' and many people will hear 'Prius.' *The New York Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.nytimes.com>
- McDougall, W. (1908). *Social Psychology*. London: Methuen.
- McGuire, A. (1994). Helping behaviors in the natural environment: Dimensions and correlates of helping. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29(1), 45-56.
- McFarland, L. A., Ryan, A. M., & Kriska, S. D. (2003). Impression management use and effectiveness across assessment methods. *Journal of Management*, 29, 641-661.
- McKinsey Quarterly. (2009). Valuing corporate social responsibility: McKinsey global survey results. (February), http://www.mckinseyquarterly.com/Valuing_corporate_social_responsibility_McKinsey_Global_Survey_Results_2309.

- Medeiros, J. F., Ribeiro, J. L. D., & Cortimiglia, M. N. (2015). Influence of perceived value on purchasing decisions of green products in Brazil. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *110*(1), 158-169.
- Meyer, G. (2009). Taking risks for others: Social courage as a public virtue. In S. Scuzzarello, C. Kinnvall, & K. R. Monroe (Eds.), *On behalf of others: The psychology of care in a global world* (pp. 82–105). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Milinski, M., Semmann, D., & Krambeck, H. (2002a). Donors to charity gain in both indirect reciprocity and political reputation. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, Series B*, *269*, 881-883.
- Milinski, M., Semmann, D., & Krambeck, H. (2002b). Reputation helps solve the “tragedy of the commons”. *Nature*, *415*, 424-426.
- Mohr, L. A., & Webb, D. J. (2005). The effects of corporate social responsibility and price on consumer responses. *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*, *39*(1), 121-147.
- Mohr, L. A., Webb, D. J., & Harris, K. E. (2001). Do consumers expect companies to be socially responsible? The impact of corporate social responsibility on buying behaviour. *The Journal of Consumer Affairs* *35*(1), 45-72.
- Motowidlo, S. J., & Van Scotter, J. R. (1994). Evidence that task performance should be distinguished from contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *79*, 475-480.
- Musch, J., & Klauer, K. C. (2002). *Psychological experimenting on the World Wide Web: Investigating context effects in syllogistic reasoning*. In B. Batinic, U. D. Reips, & M. Bosnjak (Eds.), *Online Social Sciences* (pp. 181-212). Seattle: Hogrefe & Huber.

- Nagy, B., Kacmar, K. M., & Harris, K. (2011). Dispositional and situational factors as predictors of impression management behaviors. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, *12*, 229-245.
- Nanda, E. (2015). Consumer responses to corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives: Evaluating the CSR strategy of controversial industry on consumer attitude and behavioural intentions in Indonesia (Unpublished master's thesis). University of Twente, Netherlands.
- National Center for Educational Statistics. (2018a). Annual earnings of young adults. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_cba.asp
- National Center for Educational Statistics. (2018b). Employment and unemployment rates by educational attainment. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_cbc.asp
- National Center for Educational Statistics. (2015). Educational attainment differences by students' socioeconomic status. Retrieved from <https://nces.ed.gov/blogs/nces/post/educational-attainment-differences-by-students-socioeconomic-status>
- National Institutes of Health Office of Behavioral and Social Sciences Research. (n.d.). The authority on behavioral and social science research. Retrieved from http://www.esourceresearch.org/Portals/0/Uploads/Documents/Public/Oakes_FullChapter.pdf
- Nesse, R. M. (2000). Is depression an adaptation? *Archives General Psychiatry*, *57*(1), 14-20.
- Netemeyer, R., Bearden, W., & Sharma, S. (2003). *Scaling Procedures Issues and Applications*, Sage Publications, London.

- Nook, E. C., Ong, D. C., Morelli, S. A., Mitchell, J. P., & Zaki, J. (2016). Prosocial norms generalize across behavior and empathy. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 42(8), 1045-1062.
- Oarga, C., Stavrova, O., & Fetchenhauer, D. (2015). When and why is helping others good for well-being? The role of belief in reciprocity and conformity to society's expectations. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 45, 252-254.
- Ohlrich, K. (2015). Exploring the impact of CSR on talent management with Generation Y. *South Asian Journal of Business Management Cases*, 4(1), 111-121.
- Orlitzky, M., Schmidt, F. L., & Rynes, S. L. (2003). Corporate social and financial performance: A meta-analysis. *Organization Studies*, 24(3), 403-441.
- Oyserman, D., Coon, H. M., & Kemmelmeier, M. (2002). Rethinking individualism and collectivism: Evaluation of theoretical assumptions and meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 128, 3-72.
- Parhankangas, A., & Ehrlich, M. (2013). How entrepreneurs seduce business angels: An impression management approach. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 29(4), 543-564.
- Park, S. W., & Brown, C. M. (2014). Different perceptions of self-handicapping across college and work contexts. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 44, 124-132.
- Parker, B. A. (2001). Introduction to behavioral research on the Internet. *The Journal of Sex Research*, 38(4), 344-345.
- Pashler, H., & Wagenmakers, E. J. (2012). Editors' introduction to the special section on replicability in psychological science: A crisis of confidence? *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 7(6), 528-530.

- Paulus, M. (2014). The emergence of prosocial behavior: Why do infants and toddlers help, comfort, and share? *Child Development Perspectives*, 8(2), 77-81.
- Pauwels, K., & D'aveni, R. (2016). The formation, evolution and replacement of price–quality relationships. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 44(1), 46-65.
- Penner, L. A., Dovidio, J. F., Piliavin, J. A., & Schroeder, D. A. (2005). Prosocial behavior: Multilevel perspectives. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 56, 365-392.
- Perugini, M., Gallucci, M., Presaghi, F., & Ercolani, A. P. (2003). The personal norm of reciprocity. *European Journal of Personality*, 17, 251-283.
- Peters, R. H., Kremling, J., & Hunt, E. (2015). Accuracy of self-reported drug use among offenders: Findings from the Arrestee Drug Abuse Monitoring-II Program. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 42(6), 623-643.
- Peterson, D. K. (2004). The relationship between perceptions of corporate citizenship and organizational commitment. *Business and Society*, 43(3), 296-319.
- Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. (2009). Individual and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94, 122-141.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, 26, 513-563.
- Pomery, A., Schofield, P., Xhilaga, M., & Gough, K. (2016). Skills, knowledge, and attributes of support group leaders: A systematic review. *Patient Education and Counseling*, 99, 672-688.

- Posner, R. A., & Rasmusen, E. B. (1999). Creating and enforcing norms, with special reference to sanctions. *International Review of Law and Economics*, 19, 369-382.
- Pounders, K., Kowalczyk, C. M., & Stowers, K. (2016). Insight into the motivation of selfie postings: Impression management and self-esteem. *European Journal of Marketing*, 50(9), 1879-1892.
- Power, D., Schoenherr, T., & Samson, D. (2010). The cultural characteristic of individualism/collectivism: A comparative study of implications for investment in operations between emerging Asian and industrialized Western countries. *Journal of Operations Management*, 28, 206-222.
- Prade, C., & Saroglou, V. (2015). Awe's effects on generosity and helping. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 11(5), 522-530.
- Preston, L. E. (1975). Corporation and society: The search for a paradigm. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 13, 334-354.
- Preston, S. H., Fishman, E., & Stokes, A. (2015). Effects of categorization and self-report bias on estimates of the association between obesity and mortality. *Annals of Epidemiology*, 25(12), 907-911.
- Radley, A., & Kennedy, M. (1995). Charitable giving by individuals: A study of attitudes and practice. *Human Relations*, 48(6), 685-709.
- Rege, M., & Telle, K. (2004). The impact of social approval and framing on cooperation in public good situations. *Journal of Public Economics*, 88, 1625-1644.
- Reid, R. & Brown, S. (1996). I hate shopping! An introspective perspective. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, 24(4), 4-16.

- Reips, U. (2002). Standards for Internet experimenting. *Experimental Psychology*, 49(4), 243-256.
- Renfrew, J., Howle, T. C., & Eklund, R. C. (2017). Self-presentation concerns may contribute toward the understanding of athletes' affect when trialing for a new sports team. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 29(4), 484-492.
- Research Now. (2017). *Research Now Panel Book*. Retrieved from <https://www.researchnow.com/wp-content/uploads/2017/11/Panel-Book-10-17-WEB-1.pdf>
- Reynolds, W. M. (1982). Development of reliable and valid short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 38, 119-125.
- Rind, B., & Benjamin, D. (1994). Effects of public image concerns and self-image on compliance. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 134, 19-25.
- Rosenberg, J., & Egbert, N. (2011). Online impression management: Personality traits and concerns for secondary goals as predictors of self-presentation tactics on Facebook. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 17, 1-18.
- Rushton, J. P. (1976). Socialization and the altruistic behavior of children. *Psychological Bulletin*, 83, 898-913.
- Saad, G. (2013). Evolutionary consumption. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 23(3), 35-31.
- Santini, F. O., Ladeira, W. J., Sampaio, C. H., & Falcao, C. A. (2015). Perception of value, attractiveness and purchase intention: Revisiting sales promotion techniques. *Review of Business Management*, 17(56), 1173-1192.

- Schlenker, B. R., & Leary, M. R. (1982). Audience's reactions to self-enhancing, self-denigrating, and accurate self-presentations. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *18*, 89-104.
- Schmeichel, B. J., Vohs, K. D., & Baumeister, R. F. (2003). Intellectual performance and ego depletion: Role of the self in logical reasoning and other information processing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *85*, 33-46.
- Schwammlein, E., & Wodzicki, K. (2012). What to tell about me? Self-presentation in online communities. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, *17*, 387-407.
- Schwartz, B. (1993). Why altruism is impossible ... and ubiquitous. *The Social Service Review*, *67*, 314-43.
- Schwartz, S. H., & Howard, J. A. (1982). Helping and cooperation: A self-biased motivational model. In V. J. Derlega & J. Grzelak (Eds.), *Cooperation and helping behavior: Theories and research* (pp. 327-353). New York, NY: Academic.
- Seidman, G. (2013). Self-presentation and belonging on Facebook: How personality influences social media use and motivations. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *54*(3), 402-407.
- Sen, S., & Bhattacharya, C. B. (2001). Does doing good always lead to doing better? Consumer reactions to corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *38*(2), 225-243.
- Shooter, W., Paisley, K., & Sibthorp, J. (2009). The effect of leader attributes, situational context, and participant optimism on trust in outdoor leaders. *Journal of Experiential Education*, *31*(3), 395-399.
- Shrauger, J. S., Ram, D., Greninger, S.A., & Mariano, E. (1996). Accuracy of self predictions

- versus judgments by knowledgeable others. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22, 1229-1241.
- Simon, H. A. (1990). Invariants of human behavior. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 41, 1-20.
- Simpson, B., Harrell, A., & Willer, R. (2013). Hidden paths from morality to cooperation: Moral judgments promote trust and trustworthiness. *Social Forces*, 91(4), 1529-1548.
- Smith, J. M. (1964). Group selection and kin selection. *Nature*, 201, 1145-1147.
- Smith, S., & Alcorn, D. S. (1991) Cause marketing: A new direction in the marketing of corporate responsibility. *Journal of Consumer Marketing* 8(3), 19-35
- Smith, S. H., Whitehead, G. I., Blackard, M. F., & Blackard, M. F. (2015). First and second inaugural addresses of modern and traditional U.S. presidents: An analysis of self presentational strategies. *Journal of Arts and Humanities*, 4(5), 28-33.
- Snyder, C. R., Higgins, R. L., & Stucky, R. J. (1983). *Excuses: Masquerades in search of grace*. New York, NY: Wiley-Interscience.
- Snyder, M. (1974). Self-monitoring of expressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 30, 526-37.
- Snyder, M., & Gangestad, S. (2000). Self-monitoring: Appraisal and reappraisal. *Psychological Bulletin*, 126(4), 530-555.
- Snyder, M., & Gangestad, S. (1986). On the nature of self-monitoring: Matters of assessment, matters of validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(1), 125-139.
- Southwest Citizenship. (2018). Retrieved from <https://www.southwest.com/citizenship/>
- Spector, P. E. (2013). Introduction: The dark and light sides of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34, 540-541.

- Strull, T. K., & Wyer, R. S. (1979). The role of category accessibility in the interpretation of information about persons: Some determinants and implications. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37*, 1660-1672.
- Stern, P. C. (2002). Toward a coherent theory of environmentally significant behavior. *Journal of Social Issues, 56*(3), 407-424.
- Stiff, C. E., & Van Vugt, M. (2008). The power of reputations: The role of third party information in the admission of new group members. *Group Dynamics, 12*, 155-166.
- Stone, A. R. (1996). *The War of Desire and Technology at the Close of the Mechanical Age*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Story, J., Castanheira, F., & Hartig, S. (2015). Corporate social responsibility and organizational attractiveness: Implications for talent management. *Social Responsibility Journal, 12*(3), 484-505.
- Strutton, D., Pelton, L. E., & Lumpkin, J. R. (1995). Sex differences in ingratiation behavior: An investigation of influence tactics in the salesperson-customer dyad. *Journal of Business Research, 34*, 35-45.
- Suhr, J., & Wei, C. (2013). Symptoms as an excuse: Attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder symptom reporting as an excuse for cognitive test performance in the context of evaluative threat. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 32*(7), 753-769.
- Tajfel, H. (1978). *Differentiation between social groups: Studies in the social psychology of intergroup relations*. Oxford, England: Academic Press.
- Tannen, D. (1994). *Talking from 9 to 5: How women's and men's conversational styles affect who gets heard, who gets credit, and what gets done at work*. New York, NY: Morrow.

- Tedeschi, J. T., & Norman, N. (1985). Social power, self-presentation, and the self. In B. R. Schlenker (Ed.), *The self in social life* (pp. 293-322). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- The sustainability imperative. (2015). *The Nielson Company*. Retrieved from <http://www.nielson.com/us/en/insights/reports/2015/the-sustainability-imperative.html>
- Tice, D. M., Butler, J. L., Muraven, M. B., & Stillwell, A. M. (1995). When modesty prevails: Differential favorability of self-presentation to friends and strangers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *69*, 1120-1138.
- Timmons, S., & Byrne, R. M. J. (2018). Moral fatigue: The effects of cognitive fatigue on moral reasoning. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 1-12.
- Trapero, F. G. A., de Lozada, V. D. C. M., & Garcia, J. D. L. G. (2010). Consumers and their buying decision making based on price and information about corporate social responsibility (CSR). Case study: Undergraduate students from a private university in Mexico. *Estudios Gerenciales*, *26*(117), 103-117.
- Treadway, D. C., Ferris, G. R., Duke, A. B., Adams, G. L., & Thatcher, J. B. (2007). The moderating role of subordinate political skill on supervisors' impressions of subordinate ingratiation and ratings of subordinate interpersonal facilitation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*, 848-855.
- Trivers, R. (1971). The evolution of reciprocal altruism. *The Quarterly Review of Biology*, *46*(1), 35-57.
- Tseëlon, E. (1992). Is the presented self sincere? Goffman, impression management and the postmodern self. *Theory, Culture, and Society*, *9*, 115-128.
- Turban, D. B., & Greening, D. W. (1996) Corporate social performance and organizational attractiveness to prospective employees. *Academy of Management*, *40*(3), 658-672.

- Turkle, S. (1995). *Life on the Screen: Identity in the Age of the Internet*. New York, NY: Simon and Schuster.
- Twenge, J. M., Baumeister, R. F., DeWall, C. N., Ciarocco, N. J., & Bartels, J. M. (2007). Social exclusion decreases prosocial behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 92(1), 56-66.
- Tyler, J. M., Kearns, P. O., & McIntyre, M. M. (2016). Effects of self-monitoring on processing of self-presentation information. *Social Psychology*, 47(3), 174-178.
- Tyler, J. M., McIntyre, M. M., Graziano, W. G., & Sands, K. J. (2015). High self-monitors' cognitive access to self-presentation-related information. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 54, 205-219.
- United States Census Bureau. (2018). *QuickFacts United States*. Retrieved from <https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/table/US/PST045217>
- Uusitalo, O., & Oksanen, R. (2004). Ethical consumerism: A view from Finland. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 28, 214-221.
- Vaish, A., Carpenter, M., & Tomasello, M. (2016). The early emergence of guilt-motivated prosocial behavior. *Child Development*, 87(6), 1772-1782.
- Valkenburg, P. M., Schouten, A. P., & Peter, J. (2005). Adolescents' identity experiments on the internet. *New Media and Society*, 7(3), 383-402.
- Van Prooijen, J. W. (2017). Why education predicts decreased belief in conspiracy theories. *Applied Cognitive Psychology*, 31, 50-58.
- Van Veen, H. A. H. C., Bulthoff, H. H., & Givaty, G. (1998). Psychophysics tests on the Internet: An evaluation. *Perception*, 27(179).

- Van Vugt, M. (2009). Averting the tragedy of the commons: Using social psychological science to protect the environment. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 18*, 169-173.
- Vogel, D. (2005) *The market for virtue: The potential and limits of corporate social responsibility*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Voracek, M., Stieger, S., & Gindl, A. (2001). *Online replication of evolutionary psychological evidence: Sex differences in sexual jealousy in imagined scenarios of mate's sexual versus emotional infidelity*. In U. Reips & M. Bosnjak (Eds.), *Dimensions of Internet science* (pp. 91-112). Lengerich, Germany: Pabst.
- Walther, J. B., Van Der Heide, B., Kim, S., Westerman, D., & Tong, S. T. (2008). The role of friends' appearance and behavior on evaluations of individuals on Facebook: Are we known by the company we keep? *Human Communication Research, 34*, 28-49.
- Wang, Q., Dou, J., & Jia, S. (2016). A meta-analytic review of corporate social responsibility and corporate financial performance: The moderating effect of contextual factors. *Business and Society, 55*(8), 1083-1121.
- Wang, Y. (2015). *Does playing dumb make you look good? Modesty and supplication as impression management tactics* (Master's thesis). Retrieved from https://etd.ohiolink.edu/!etd.send_file?accession=bgsu1429046806&disposition=inline
- Wayne, S. J., & Kacmar, K. M. (1991). The effects of impression management on the performance appraisal process. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 48*, 70-88.
- Wayne, S. J., Liden, R. C., Graf, I. K., & Ferris, G. R. (1997). The role of upward influence tactics in human resource decisions. *Personnel Psychology, 50*, 979-1006.

- Welte, T. H. L., & Anastasio, P. A. (2010). To conserve or not to conserve: Is status the question? *Environment and Behavior*, *42*, 845.
- Whatley, M. A., Webster, J. M., Smith, R. H., & Rhodes, A. (1999). The effect of a favor on public and private compliance: How internalized is the norm of reciprocity. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, *21*(3), 251-259.
- Wheeler, S. C. & DeMarree, K. G. (2009). Multiple mechanisms of prime-to-behavior effects. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, *3*, 566-581.
- Whitaker, B. G., & Dahling, J. J. (2013). The influence of autonomy and supervisor political skill on the use and consequences of peer intimidation in organizations. *Human Performance*, *26*(5), 353-373.
- Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Pierce, J. R. (2008). Effects of task performance, helping, voice, and organizational loyalty on performance appraisal ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *93*, 125–139.
- Wigley, S. (2008). Gauging consumers' responses to CSR activities: Does increased awareness make cents? *Public Relations Review*, *34*(3), 306-308.
- Williams, K. D. (2007). Ostracism. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *58*, 425-452.
- Williams, S. E., Cumming, J., & Balanos, G. M. (2010). The use of imagery to manipulate challenge and threat appraisal states in athletes. *Journal of Sport Exercise Psychology*, *32*, 339-358.
- Williams, M., Hudson, J., & Lawson, R. J. (1999). Self-presentation in sport: Initial development of a scale for measuring athletes' competitive self-presentation concerns. *Social Behavior and Personality*, *27*(5), 487-502.
- Wood, D. J. (1991a). Social issues in management: Theory and research in corporate

- social performance. *Journal of Management*, 17, 383-406.
- Wood, D. J. (1991b). Corporate social performance revisited. *Academy of Management Review*, 16, 691-718.
- Wu, C. H. (2012). Product-design and pricing strategies with remanufacturing. *European Journal of Operational Research*, 222(2), 204-215.
- Yukl, G. A., & Tracey, B. (1992). Consequences of influence tactics used with subordinates, peers, and the boss. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77, 525-535
- Zabkar, V., & Hosta, M. (2013). Willingness to act and environmentally conscious consumer behaviour: Can prosocial status perceptions help overcome the gap? *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, 37(3), 257-264.
- Zahari, A. (2003). Indirect selection and individual selection in sociobiology: My personal views on theories of social behaviour. *Animal Behaviour*, 65(5), 859-863.
- Zook, A., & Sipps, G. J. (1985). Cross-validation of a short form of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 41, 236-238.
- Zyglidopoulou, S. C., Georgiadis, A. P., Carroll, C. E., & Siegeld, D. S. (2012). Does media attention drive corporate social responsibility? *Journal of Business Research*, 65(11), 1622-1627.

Curriculum Vitae
Mandy May Walsh

Office Address:

Department of Psychology
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
Las Vegas, Nevada 89154
Mail Stop 5030
email: walshm20@unlv.nevada.edu

Education:

Ph.D. University of Nevada, Las Vegas, 2018
Experimental Psychology: Quantitative/Experimental
M.A. University of Nevada, Las Vegas, 2016
Experimental Psychology: Quantitative/Experimental
B.A. University of Nevada, Las Vegas, 2013
Psychology

Research Experience:

08/2013-present Graduate student, University of Nevada, Las Vegas working with Dr. Murray Millar.
07/2012-08/2013 Undergraduate research assistant, University of Nevada, Las Vegas working with Dr. David Copeland.
12/2011-03/ 2012 Undergraduate research assistant, University of Nevada, Las Vegas working with Dr. Noelle Lefforge.
07/2011-12/2011 Undergraduate research assistant, University of Nevada, Las Vegas working with Dr. Jennifer Rennels.

Teaching Experience:

2015 Instructor of Record, Introduction to Psychology. *Syllabus available upon request.*

Honors and Awards:

2016 Graduate and Professional Student Association Travel Grant, UNLV
2015 Graduate and Professional Student Association Travel Grant, UNLV
2014 Graduate and Professional Student Association Travel Grant, UNLV

Academic Service:

2015-2016 President, Experimental Student Committee
2014-2015 Psi Chi Liaison, Experimental Student Committee
2014-2015 Quantitative Experimental Emphasis Representative, Experimental Student Committee
2013-2014 General Experimental Emphasis Representative, Experimental Student Committee

Professional Service:

- 2015-2016 Member-at-Large, Society for Personality and Social Psychology Graduate Student Committee
- 2014, 2015 Student Grant Reviewer, Association for Psychological Science Student Caucus
- 2014, 2015 Campus Representative, Association for Psychological Science Student Caucus

Professional Membership:

Association for Psychological Science
Association for Psychological Science Student Caucus
Outreach to Undergraduate Mentoring Program, University of Nevada, Las Vegas
Rocky Mountain Psychological Association
Society for Personality and Social Psychology
Western Psychological Association

Conference Presentations:

- Walsh, M.,** Millar, M. (April, 2016). The Effects of Relationship Priming on Sex Differences in Suspicion. Presented at the Western Psychological Association Convention, Long Beach, California.
- Walsh, M.,** & Millar, M. (January, 2016). Behavioral Reactions to Emotional and Physical Infidelity: Mate Abandonment vs. Mate Retention. Presented at the Society for Personality and Social Psychology Annual Meeting, San Diego, California.
- Walsh, M.,** & Millar, M. (April, 2015). Desirability of socially dominant males: The effects of female availability. Presented at the Western Psychological Association Convention, Las Vegas, Nevada.
- Westfall, R. S., Millar, M., & **Walsh, M.** (April, 2015). Effects of instructor attractiveness on classroom learning. Presented at the Rocky Mountain Psychological Association Convention, Boise, Idaho.
- Walsh, M.,** Millar, M., & Westfall, R. S. (April, 2015). The effects of female mate value on the desirability of male social status. Presented at the Rocky Mountain Psychological Association Convention, Boise, Idaho.
- Walsh, M.,** & Millar, M. (February, 2015). Women's suspicion of costly traits varies throughout the menstrual cycle. Presented at the Society for Personality and Social Psychology Annual Meeting, Long Beach, California.
- Walsh, M.,** & Millar, M. (2014, April). The effects of gender and cost on suspicion: An evolutionary perspective. Presented at the Western Psychological Association Convention, Portland, Oregon.
- Rennels, J., Noles, E., Kayl, A., & **Walsh, M.** (2011, November). Comparing intermodal knowledge among 5-, 8-, and 11-month old infants. Presented at the UNLV Psi Chi Research Conference, Las Vegas, Nevada.

Manuscripts Submitted or in Preparation:

Walsh, M., Millar, M., & Westfall, R. S. (in press). Sex differences in responses to emotional and sexual infidelity in dating relationships. *Journal of Individual Differences*.

Millar, M., Westfall, R. S., & **Walsh, M.** (submitted). The moderating effects of mate-value on the relationship between perceived sex ratio and mating strategies.

Westfall, R. S., Millar, M., & **Walsh, M.** (submitted). The effects of self-esteem threat on physical attractiveness stereotypes.

Walsh, M., Millar, M., & Westfall, R. S. (submitted). Women's suspicion of evolutionary costly claims in initial courtship communications: Menstrual cycle effects.

Walsh, M., & Millar, M. (2016). The effects of gender and cost on suspicion in initial courtship communications. *Evolutionary Psychological Science*, doi: 10.1007/s40806-016-0062-8

Westfall, R. S., Millar, M., & **Walsh, M.** (2016). Effects of instructor attractiveness on learning. *The Journal of General Psychology*, 143(3), 161-171.