



Turun yliopisto
University of Turku

FROM CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY TO CONSUMER RESPONSIBILITY

A Study of the Factors that Influence Purchase Intentions

Master's Thesis
in Marketing

Author:
Joonas Savolainen 417485

Supervisors:
Ph.D. Ulla Hakala
M.Sc. Mekhail Mustak

1.11.2016
Turku

Turun yliopiston laatujärjestelmän mukaisesti tämän julkaisun alkuperäisyys on tarkastettu Turnitin OriginalityCheck -järjestelmällä.

The originality of this thesis has been checked in accordance with the University of Turku quality assurance system using the Turnitin OriginalityCheck service.

Table of contents

1	INTRODUCTION.....	5
1.1	Background of the study.....	5
1.2	Purpose and structure of the study.....	7
2	CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY.....	11
2.1	Defining CSR.....	11
2.2	CSR and related concepts.....	13
2.3	Measurement of CSR.....	15
2.4	Consumer perceptions of CSR.....	17
3	CONSUMER RESPONSIBILITY.....	20
3.1	Profiling conscious consumers.....	20
3.2	The influence of moral norms.....	22
3.3	Price and quality as obstacles to ethical consumption.....	23
3.4	Instilling responsibility into consumer's behavior.....	26
4	EMPIRICAL RESEARCH.....	29
4.1	Research methods.....	29
4.2	Construct measurement.....	31
4.3	Data collection.....	34
4.4	Reliability and validity of the research.....	35
5	RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	38
5.1	Respondent profile.....	38
5.2	Importance of CSR and responsible purchase intentions.....	38
5.3	Influence of reference groups.....	42
6	DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS.....	44
6.1	Discussion on the findings.....	44
6.2	Managerial implications.....	48
6.3	Limitations and future research.....	49
7	SUMMARY.....	51
	REFERENCES.....	54

List of figures

Figure 1	Research framework	30
Figure 2	Research framework with results	44

List of tables

Table 1	Operationalization of variables	33
Table 2	Reliability test	37
Table 3	Gender distributions	38
Table 4	Respondents' age profile	38
Table 5	The perceived importance of CSR	39
Table 6	Personal responsibility for sustainability	40
Table 7	Regression of one independent variable toward responsible purchase intention (N=237)	40
Table 8	Regression of two independent variables toward responsible purchase intention (N=237)	41
Table 9	Regression of four independent variables toward responsible purchase intentions (N=237)	41
Table 10	Results and hypotheses	42
Table 11	Influence of reference groups and other actors	43

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Sustainability issues and ethical problems are among the most critical concerns faced by modern society. In spring 2016, 174 countries and the European Union signed the Paris agreement, which is designed to reduce global warming to 1,5 degrees Celsius (United Nations 2016). In addition to nation states, various multinational corporations and financial institutions have committed to promoting United Nation's Environment Program's climate goals. For example, 40% of stock markets belonging to UN's Sustainable Stock Markets Initiative offer one or more sustainability indices (UNEP 2015). Furthermore, more than 800 of the largest listed companies in the world support a global agreement to curb climate change (CDP 2016). Companies that neglect their social responsibilities face both public outrage and financial sanctions. One of the most recent examples is the Volkswagen emissions scandal, where the German car manufacturer manipulated the computer program on its cars to show lower pollution levels. The total cost of recalls, law suits and fines is estimated to go up to 30 billions dollars (The Economist 2016). On the other hand, in 2015 thirteen of America's largest companies pledged a total of 140 billion dollars to help fight climate change (Financial Times 2015). Major tech companies, such as Google, Apple and Microsoft are also doing their share by investing in solar power and clean energy production (Fortune 2015).

In addition to environmental matters, today's companies are being scrutinized over working conditions and employees' human rights. A recent report by Amnesty International reveals that major electronic brands have used suppliers that resort to child labor. According to the report, the cobalt used in many electronic devices, such as smartphone batteries, comes from Congolese mines where adults and children as young as seven work in hazardous conditions (Amnesty International 2016, 4–9.) This is but one example of the critique multinational corporations face for failing to ensure that no human rights violations take place in their supply chain. Increasing attention from watchdog groups and ordinary consumers has forced some of the world's largest corporations to take active measures to avoid any ethical misconduct. As of today, 8000 companies have signed the UN Global Compact initiative and thus have committed to advancing human and labor rights, fighting environmental degradation and corruption and furthering various societal goals (United Nations 2014, 3).

Based on the abovementioned facts, it would seem that corporate social responsibility is here to stay. As stated by a KPMG survey (2013, 10), the days of debating whether companies should pay attention to CSR matters or report them are long gone. Indeed, research shows that investing time and money into corporate responsibility pays itself

back in multiple ways. For example, ethical conduct leads to positive product evaluations (Brown & Dacin 1997, 73), which affect consumers' purchase intentions (Sen & Bhattacharya 2001, 238). Other potential benefits include the company's lucrativeness as an employer (Turban & Greening 1997, 669) and positive word-of-mouth referral by satisfied stakeholders (Du et al. 2007, 237). Instead of being a strategic asset, CSR is quickly turning into a necessity as firms realize its potential economic benefits (Falkenberg & Brunsæl 2011, 16). The interest in corporate social responsibility is also evident in academic literature; in the 1970's only 23 articles were published on CSR issues and in the 1980's the amount dropped to 16. Between 1990 and 2005, however, the number of articles doubled and nearly half of all articles to date have been published from 2005 onwards (Aguinis & Glavas 2012, 934.)

In spite of all the attention, CSR continues to attract criticism. Ideally, ethical behavior would attract more customers and unethical behavior would result in boycotts and reluctance to do business with irresponsible companies (Carrigan & Attalla 2001, 560). However, when it comes to corporate sustainability, this is not always the true. The financial impact of corporate social responsibility is a controversial topic with opinions for and against it (Lin et al. 2009, 56). Several studies indicate that consumers have positive attitudes towards sustainability and that they expect companies to behave in a responsible manner (Cone Communications, 11; BBMG et al. , 6). Nonetheless, consumers seem to have an ability to deny their own responsibility or shift it to other actors, such as companies and governments (Antonetti & Maklan 2014, 719; Wray-Lake et al. 2010, 72; Chatzidakis et al. 2007, 92).

The existence of this disparity has been acknowledged in marketing literature, where it is often referred to as the attitude-behavior gap (Carrigan & Attalla 2001, 564; Chatzidakis et al. 2007, 94–95). Various reasons have been proposed as to why this gap exists. According to some, high price or poor quality of ethical goods may be contributing factors (Bray et al. 2011, 601–603). In reality, consumers' purchase intentions are formed as a result of complex processes where information about product attributes is combined with personal norms and preferences (Luchs et al. 2015, 1457–1460). Studies have indicated that lack of information may be responsible for the inconsistencies between consumers' positive attitudes and their actual behavior (Carrigan & Attalla 2001, 570–571; Bray et al. 2011, 602). Furthermore, there is evidence that ethical consumption is at least partially mediated by consumers' belief in their ability to influence through purchase decisions (White et al. 2012, 105). It is possible that consumers would be more likely to change their consumption habits, if they knew about the positive consequences their actions have (De Pelsmacker & Janssens 2007, 376).

At a time when global environmental and social concerns are more pressing than ever, it is of vital importance to make consumers aware of the impact their consumption habits have on other people and nature. In fact, governments are increasingly turning to

individuals to address global problems. Of course not all individuals are willing to accept the responsibility that is appointed to them, especially if it means giving up their comfortable lifestyles (Skill & Gyberg 2010, 1878). Therefore, it has been proposed that other actors besides governments should also be tasked with promoting sustainable consumption. Rather than viewing morality as exogenous to the market system companies and non-governmental organizations should participate in instilling a sense of responsibility into their relevant audiences (Soneryd & Uggla 2015, 914)

1.2 Purpose and structure of the study

There is increasing evidence that consumers expect companies to behave in a sustainable manner (BBMG et al. , 11; Gibbs & Soell 2014, 16). While managers are beginning to acknowledge this demand, they are sometimes faced with a frustrating situation where sustainable actions on the company's part do not translate into profits (Cochran & Wood 1984, 55; Brammer & Millington 2008, 1341). This may be due to the fact that a relatively small percentage of consumers are actually willing to behave according to their pro-sustainability attitudes (Prothero et al. 2011, 32; Phipps et al. 2013, 1229).

Although consumers state that they are willing to behave ethically, the level of expressed activity remains low (Devinney et al. 2006, 32). However, studies have also demonstrated that consumers differ in their sensitivity regarding responsibility issues and that there is a consumer segment that gives great consideration to companies' ethical conduct and is willing to shop accordingly (Dawkins 2005, 155). Furthermore, some researchers propose that ethical consumers do not necessarily form a pre-existing market but are rather made as such by a variety of actors (Caruana & Crane 2008, 1497). In all, consumers might consider corporate social responsibility as either important or very important, but might see their own responsibility as limited when it comes to responsible shopping. Furthermore, studies have shown that most consumers still put price and quality before sustainability (Carrigan and Attalla (2001, 566). The aforementioned findings provide the premises for this study, whose *purpose is to examine which factors most influence consumers' responsible purchase intentions.*

Corporate social responsibility is notoriously hard to measure (Turker 2009, 411). One of the reasons for this is that companies have various stakeholder groups that have their own expectations and priorities. To make things more complicated, these expectations are often more or less contradictory (Carroll 1991, 42). Shareholders, for example, expect companies to generate a steady profit and maximize the value of their shares. Thus, environmental and social sustainability may be of secondary concern to them (Barnea & Rubin 2010, 72). Even scholars and marketing researchers find it hard to agree on the dimensions, or components, of CSR (Pinkston & Carroll 1996, 199). As

Carrigan and Attalla note (2001, 563), consumers too form a heterogeneous group and as such are unlikely to be unanimous on the importance of CSR dimensions. Some, of course, are not even remotely interested in sustainability matters. Nevertheless, consumers are nowadays more conscious than they have ever been (Webb et al. 2008, 92). In spite of the surge in pro-sustainability thinking, some academics and managers remain skeptical of the ethical consumer segment's market potential (Uusitalo & Oksanen 2004, 220). This cynicism is somewhat understandable. After all, a company's first and foremost *raison d'être* is to make a profit, at least according to some executives and shareholders (Friedman 2007, 173–174). In order to bridge this gap between promoting sustainability and achieving companies' financial goals, it is important to assert whether or not there is a connection between the perceived importance of CSR and responsible purchase intentions. Therefore the first research question of this study is: **How does the perceived importance of CSR predict responsible purchase intentions?**

So far it has become clear that even though consumers react positively to CSR matters and ethical products, they may not always choose the responsible option when shopping. Research has shown that socially responsible behavior is often the result of individual norms (e.g. Kallgren et al. 2000, 1010; Hunecke et al. 2001, 848; Thøgersen 2008, 468 – 470). These norms are defined as self-expectations that accompany specific situations (Schwartz 1977, 221–279). They are in turn influenced by social pressure (Ajzen 1988, 124–125). Personal and social norms are therefore not mutually exclusive, but rather complement each other (Thøgersen 2009, 349). Violating these norms can result in negative reactions on behalf of the individual herself or her peers (Schwartz 1973, 353). It has been proven that social norms are especially powerful when it comes to ethical behavior (Bratt 1999, 650; Harland et al. 1999, 2522). For example, environmentally conscious behavior has been linked to norms imposed by one's friends and family members (Bamberg 2003, 26–27). Likewise, individuals who believe they can influence societal outcomes are more likely to act in a more sustainable way (White et al. 2012, 105). Hence, the second research question of this study is: **How does personal responsibility for sustainability predict responsible purchase intentions?**

It is widely accepted that environmentally and socially sustainable products tend to cost more (De Pelsmacker et al. 2005, 368; Hughner et al. 2007, 103; Padel & Foster 2005, 610). This belief has in fact resulted in a fallacy in which price is considered an indicator or high ethical standards even if this is not always true (Davies et al. 2012, 40). Secondly, consumers perceive sustainable products as being of poorer quality than normal alternatives (Hughner et al. 2007, 103; Bray et al. 2011, 601). Despite being seen as the biggest barriers to sustainable purchase intentions, price and quality affect individuals' decision-making in various ways. For example demographic factors such as age and income group play a role in the formation of responsible purchase intentions (Tucker et al. 1981, 472; Littrell & Dickson 1999, 52; Carrigan et al. 2004, 402). There-

fore, consumers in the low-income groups may express positive intentions towards shopping responsibly but may lack the financial resources to do so. When it comes to quality, some consumers are actually willing to pay more for ethical attributes that are linked to improved personal health and wellbeing (Shaw et al. 2005, 192). Similarly, some may appreciate the altruistic feeling that results from responsible shopping (Szmigin et al. 2007, 400–401). The third and final research question of this study is: **How do price and quality predict responsible purchase intentions?**

As mentioned previously, personal norms are shaped by social interaction. People are likely to adopt behaviors that others they look up to approve of. Similarly, they tend to avoid activities that are frowned upon by people they aspire to be like. In marketing literature these groups of people are called either aspirational or disclaimant reference groups depending on whether an individual seeks to become like the members of that particular group or distance herself from them (Arnould et al. 2004, 610–612). In addition to people, organizations too influence public opinion through campaigning and promotions. Considering how influential reference groups and other actors are in the formation of attitudes towards sustainability, it is surprising how little attention they have received in the past. While the exact ways in which these actors affect consumers' behavior fall beyond the scope of this study, this matter is nonetheless important and deserves a more detailed look. Therefore, to complement the aforementioned research questions, this study will also explore the credibility of various actors and reference groups in influencing sustainable consumer behavior.

In a wider context, both corporate and consumer responsibility strive to make lifestyles more sustainable. The Global Footprint Network, a non-profit organization tasked with monitoring the annual use of ecological resources, determined that in 2016 the natural resources of that year had been spent on August 8th. This means that from thereon natural resources are being used at a faster pace than the Earth can renew (Global Footprint Network, 2016) This kind of overconsumption will eventually destroy the natural environment and speed up global warming, a phenomenon that has been described as the “greatest long-term threat to biodiversity” and the “greatest social justice challenge of the 21st century” (United Nations 2014). In order to effectively combat climate change, people need have a certain standard of living. It is therefore important to address social sustainability as well and reduce the inequality between first and third world countries.

It was stated in the beginning of this chapter that sustainability concerns a variety of stakeholders. Similarly, corporate social responsibility and consumer responsibility cannot be treated as two separate issues. Companies have to make sure that they are doing everything in their power to integrate sustainability into their actions. However, it is equally important that consumers demand sustainable behavior from companies. This

requires them to be aware of what CSR is and how it can be improved. It is also paramount that consumers take these matters into consideration in their everyday behavior.

In addition to informing companies about which CSR initiatives consumers perceive as the most important, this study will shed light on the obstacles impeding ethical purchasing and consumption and contribute to extant literature on how consumers are made more responsible. Information on these matters is essential for promoting environmentally and socially sustainable behavior. Studying the relationship between consumers' responsibility and their expectations towards companies could determine how different parties could combine their efforts to act together in a more responsible way.

The thesis will begin with a brief literature review on the various definitions of CSR. The following chapter will then explore some of the related concepts and will thereby provide more definitional clarity. The next two chapters will focus on the measurement of CSR and, more specifically, what domains of CSR do consumers consider as important. The third part of this study will delve into responsible shopping in more detail by first offering a definition of a responsible consumer and then examining possible factors that might hinder sustainable purchase intentions. Having discussed both corporate responsibility and responsible purchase intentions, the final chapter of the third part will take a closer look at the actors and reference groups that influence consumer behavior. The fourth part of the study deals with methodological questions as well as the actual results of the research. Finally, the study will end with a discussion about the results and the implications they might have for both managers and future researchers.

2 CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

2.1 Defining CSR

In the past various explanations have been given as to what corporate social responsibility means. The wide variety of overlapping concepts has only added to the confusion surrounding CSR (Joyner & Payne 2002, 299–301; Schwartz & Carroll 2008, 148–152). In his literature review, Peloza (2009, 1522) discovered 36 unique metrics developed to conceptualize and measure CSR. The lack of definitional clarity has undoubtedly hindered further theoretical development and implementation of CSR (Lindgreen & Swaen 2010, 1). While the multitude of concepts and definitions can seem perplexing, it also shows the evolution of corporate responsibility (Waddock 2004, 5).

In order to understand CSR, it is necessary to take look at its history. Corporate social responsibility has been the subject of academic interest since the early 20th century, with the majority of articles being published from 1950's onwards (Glavas & Kelley 2014, 168). The 1950's saw the advent of modern CSR literature with the publication of Howard Bowen's *Social responsibilities of the businessman*. During that period CSR was still mostly referred to as social responsibility, which may be due to the fact that, despite their growing influence, corporations were not yet as prominent as they are today (Carroll 1999, 269). In his book, Bowen (1953, 3, 6) acknowledged that business has become an inseparable part of American society and must therefore assume voluntary responsibilities that can help alleviate economic problems and allow the full pursuit of economic goals. He labeled this the doctrine of social responsibility.

In the 1960's other authors further elaborated on Bowen's ideas. McGuire (1963, 144) wrote that "the idea of social responsibilities supposes that the corporation has not only economic and legal obligations but also certain responsibilities to society which extend beyond these obligations". In his definition of CSR, Johnson (1971, 50) stated that socially responsible managers should pay attention to the interests of various stakeholder groups instead of just maximizing shareholder value. Johnson's definition is noteworthy because it shares many similarities with Freeman's (1984, 49) stakeholder theory. This and other related concepts will be discussed in the following chapter. Around the same time Johnson expanded existing CSR theory, the Committee for Economic Development, which is a nonprofit, business-led organization founded to promote the interests of U.S. companies, issued its own definition of corporate responsibility. According to CED (1971, 15), there are three circles of responsibilities: the innermost consists of economic obligations such as making products, providing jobs and enabling economic growth. The middle circle is comprised of changing social values. These might include, for example, environmental protection and fair treatment of em-

ployees. The outermost circle can be seen as a discretionary layer that tops off those responsibilities whose fulfillment is expected of companies.

Towards the end of the 1970's more terms started to appear alongside social responsibility. For example Sethi (1975, 59) introduced the concept of corporate social performance that shares many similarities with CSR. In his seminal work, Carroll (1979, 499–500) defined corporate social responsibility as consisting of four blocks, which represent economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities. Similarly to the definition proposed by CED, the first two blocks of Carroll's model concentrate on the company's obligations as a business unit, which must abide by the laws of society. Likewise, it must follow ethical rules that are not necessarily codified into laws (Schwartz & Carroll 2003, 508). Carroll did not comment on what these rules are; he simply contended that they are the hardest of the four to comply with. Lastly, there are the discretionary commitments. Whether they can be called responsibilities is questionable, since they are based on free will. Such activities might include, for example, donating to charitable causes, but not engaging in them is not in itself unethical.

Carroll (1991, 42) later developed his conceptualization of CSR further by introducing his "pyramid of corporate social responsibility". The pyramid contains the four dimensions used in Carroll's previous works. According to Carroll, the pyramid shape is appropriate for showing the different dimensions in relation to one another, with economic and legal commitments forming the two bottom layers. He also clarified the notion of ethical responsibilities by defining them as "the obligation to do what is right, just and fair and to avoid or minimize harm to stakeholders".

In the late 1990's and early 2000's, more and more definitions started to incorporate the previously neglected environmental aspect as well. For example, in its Green Paper the European Commission (2001, 4) defined CSR as "a concept whereby companies decide voluntarily to contribute to a better society and a cleaner environment". Likewise, large business networks like CSR Europe included business' impact on the natural environment in their reporting guidelines (Moir 2001, 17).

In order to clarify the definitional inconsistencies, Dahlsrud (2008, 5) conducted an extensive content analysis of scientific articles and web sites. He discovered that most definitions of CSR included not four but five dimensions. These were stakeholder, social, economic, voluntary and environmental responsibilities.

This study adopts the aforementioned five-dimensional definition of corporate social responsibility. However, seeing that companies exist to earn profit, or at least cannot survive in the long run by just breaking even (e.g. Friedman 2007, 173–174; Scherer & Palazzo 2007, 1097), it does not make sense to consider economic obligations as social responsibilities. Likewise, regulatory compliance is not a social responsibility since violating the law has direct and negative consequences for the firm (McWilliams & Siegel 2001, 117). Furthermore, as many of the definitions mentioned in this chapter have pro-

posed, neither economic expectations nor legal requirements transcend the minimum requirements that are placed on companies. Based on these arguments, corporate social responsibility is defined in this study as firms' obligation to take into account various social, environmental, voluntary and stakeholder concerns in their decision-making processes and everyday operations.

2.2 CSR and related concepts

As stated in the previous chapter, defining CSR is made even more complex by the fact that there are a variety of other concepts and terms that are very similar to it. Garriga and Melé (2004, 51–71) have divided these concepts into four categories based on their approach to corporations' role in society: Instrumental theories consider corporate responsibility useful in the sense that it allows maximization of profits. Political theories see social responsibility as a way of gaining influence in society. Integrative theories are more clearly centered on promoting societal goals. Ethical theories consider companies' obligations as morally founded. This chapter adopts the aforementioned categorization, moving from instrumental to ethical theories. While the definitions offered here are by no means exhaustive, they provide additional information on some of the more closely related concepts and their relationship to CSR.

To start off, it is necessary to address the differences between corporate social responsibility and cause marketing. This is important because the two concepts tend to get mixed quite often. In the past researchers have defined cause marketing, or cause-related marketing, as “a horizontal form of cooperative sales promotions” (Varadarajan 1986, 61) and as a link between philanthropic and promotional activities (Grahn et al. 1987, 67–69). Regardless of the author, all definitions seem to include somehow linking a specific cause to revenue producing customer interactions. Varadarajan and Menon (1988, 60) note that, besides increasing sales, CRM can also be used as a brand management tool. Based on the previous definitions, it can be concluded that CRM differs from corporate social responsibility by virtue of its revenue-generating nature. As Robinson et al. (2012, 126) formulate it, CRM is actually subordinate to CSR, which encompasses a wider variety of responsibility-related themes than just supporting charitable causes in the hopes that it will lead to increased profits.

Corporate citizenship and corporate social performance are among the terms that frequently appear together with CSR (Fassin et al. 2011, 426). In his book, McGuire (1963, 144) argued that companies' responsibilities extend beyond mere legal requirements. He compared firms to citizens who take an interest in social issues, such as politics, education and people's overall wellbeing. Similarly, Davis (1973, 313) wrote that companies' responsibilities should start where the law ends. According to him, comply-

ing with minimum requirements does not qualify as social responsibility because it is something any good citizen would do. According to Windsor (2001, 39) the basic notion of corporate citizenship is that companies should act as virtuous citizens and good neighbors that maintain friendly relationships with the local community. This, in turn, leads to increased revenues and greater shareholder value, which creates a self-reinforcing cycle that further encourages responsible behavior. Corporate citizenship is therefore in line with the neoclassical view of the firm that places emphasis on self-interest. CSR on the other hand, advocates stronger responsibility, even if it is not always in the best interest of the firm (Wood & Logsdon 2001, 86.) However, not all researchers agree on this “limited view” of corporate citizenship (Matten & Crane 2005, 168). Maignan and Ferrell (2000, 459–460) propose a framework that is almost an exact replica of Carroll’s definition of CSR. Even though the model includes all the same dimensions, the authors write about “meeting social responsibilities”. To conclude this discussion, Valor (2005, 205) states that CSR is more developed in the normative sense, because it offers more ways to advance social control of companies.

Wartick and Cochran (1985, 760–767) defined corporate social performance as consisting of three dimensions: social responsibility, social responsiveness and social issues management. While the domain of social responsibility consists of the four domains introduced by Carroll, social responsiveness is seen as a means to fulfill these obligations and social issues management deals with the implementation and operationalization of social responsiveness. According to Wood (1991, 691–718), CSP has multiple sides and it should be examined as a process that starts with the introduction of ethical principles, then moves on to create responses based on these principles, and finally results in concrete outcomes that address various social issues. CSR can therefore be seen as one part of the CSP process.

Stakeholder theory is another concept that is closely related to CSR. Introduced by Freeman (1984, 49), the theory proposes that stakeholders are “those groups who can affect or are affected by the achievement of an organization’s purpose”. In other words, the stakeholder theory examines various connections a company has and the goals that result from harmonizing expectations and priorities (Donaldson & Preston 1995, 67). In the context of stakeholder theory, CSR is a strategic orientation that enables the company to pursue other activities while maintaining a high level of corporate responsibility (Russo & Perrini 2010, 209).

The relationship between business ethics and corporate social responsibility is somewhat problematic. Enderle (2010, 731–732) argues that the situation is made worse by “the messy reality of CSR”. He takes Carroll’s definition of corporate social responsibility as an example of this. According to Enderle, all four building blocks of Carroll’s model are essentially ethical. Therefore, the inclusion of ethical responsibility as a separate dimension does not make sense to him. In order to understand the relationship be-

tween ethics and CSR, it is imperative to understand what is meant by business ethics. De George (1987, 204) defines business ethics as a set of normative questions that cannot be tied to any ethical theory, but must always be examined in their proper contexts. For this reason, business ethics entails a variety of disciplines, ranging from theological to philosophical, and all of them are legitimate in their own right. Business ethics is therefore a form of applied ethics that investigates how moral norms and values affect situations that are considered business (Velasquez 2006, 15). Thus, business ethics is the study of moral topics that entails a wider variety of issues than those traditionally linked to CSR.

Finally, it is also imperative to define what sustainable development is and how it is related to CSR. In 1987 a U.N.-led international commission, with Gro Harlem Brundtland as its head, formulated the following statement: “[sustainable development] meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (The Brundtland Report 1987, 8). The publication of the commission’s report marked the beginning of a new era in sustainability discussion because it brought social issues alongside environmental problems, that had so far been the main cause for concern (Ingenbleek et al. 2015, 1430). Although sustainable development and economic growth are often seen as opposites (Doyle 1998, 774), the private sector undeniably has a key role in solving sustainability-related problems (Barkemeyer et al. 2014, 16). In order to become sustainable, society has to provide its citizens with a reasonable standard of living (Bansal 2002, 123). Because corporations control the majority of productive resources, they are paramount in achieving this (Hopwood et al. 2005, 49–50). Hence, CSR is one way of promoting sustainable development.

Although there are many different concepts related to corporate social responsibility, most of them address the same issue: How to make business more sustainable. Also, as Dyllick and Muff (2016, 158) point out, so far sustainability discussion has taken place on two different levels, with the macro level concerning the economic system, society and the entire world. The micro perspective, on the other hand, has been focused on social responsibilities at company level. While both of these perspectives have their place in the sustainability discourse, the real question should be, how to link these two approaches in an effective way (Whiteman et al. 2013, 307–309). Waddock (2004, 5) summarizes this discussion by proposing that the different concepts should not be viewed as exclusive, but rather as parallel universes that sometimes overlap each other.

2.3 Measurement of CSR

Despite of being acknowledged as having a real effect on business’ success, CSR is still very hard to measure (Turker 2009, 411). Of course one might ask why is it important

to measure CSR. Carroll (2000, 473) counters this with a foolproof logic: “it is an important topic to businesses and to society, and measurement is one part of dealing seriously with an important matter”.

Using Carroll’s conceptualization of economic, legal, ethical and discretionary responsibilities Aupperle et al. (1985, 445) developed one of the first scales used to measure CSR values on an organizational level. Despite its subsequent influence, their scale measured organizations’ orientation toward CSR instead of actual outcomes (Ruf et al. 1998, 122). This is also apparent in the PRESOR (Perceived Role of Ethics and Social Responsibility) scale developed by Singhapakdi et al. (1996, 1135). Furthermore, Carroll’s four-dimensional model is problematic in measuring CSR outcomes because studies have failed to prove the existence of these dimensions (Garcia de los Salmones et al. 2005, 372, 374). The four dimensions also tend to overlap each other and cannot therefore be measured separately (Carroll 1993, 34; Perez & Rodriguez del Bosque 2013, 270).

Developing a measurement scale is not a simple task. Waddock and Graves (1997, 305) note that most measures of corporate social responsibility encompass only a few dimensions thus making it difficult to evaluate the company’s overall responsibility. Based on literature, Maignan and Ferrell (2000, 285) divide the research streams on this subject into three broad categories: expert evaluations, single- and multiple-issue indicators and surveys of managers. Turker (2009, 414) develops this categorization further by adding four more approaches. These include reputation indices or databases, content analysis of corporate publications and scales measuring CSR at individual and organizational levels.

In the past single-issue indicators have been used as measures of corporate social responsibility. Indicators such as pollution (Bragdon & Marlin 1972, 15) and incidence of white-collar crime (Baucus & Baucus 1997, 130) have been used to determine companies’ commitment to responsibility. As the word “single-issue” suggests, their biggest flaw is the inability to describe all the characteristics of corporate social responsibility (Maignan & Ferrell 2000, 285). Acknowledging this problem, researchers have tried combining these single-issue measures into multiple-issue instruments. Even so, they are generally considered to be too narrow to capture the multidimensional nature of corporate social responsibility (Turker 2009, 414).

Aggregate measures are commonly used in constructing databases on companies’ social performance. Two of the most commonly used are the Kinder, Lydenberg, Domini & Company, or KLD, database and the CSID. The KLD is a social rating service that evaluates U.S. securities based on their responsibility (Ruf et al. 1998, 126). Its Canadian equivalent is the CSID. Established in 1992, the Canadian Social Investment Database contains assessments of companies traded on the Toronto Stock Exchange (Mahoney & Thorne 2005, 244). Both of these indices use dimensions such as community

and employee relations, diversity, environmental concerns and product quality to assess the strength of companies' CSR commitments (Turker 2009, 414). However, Maignan and Ferrell (2000, 285) note that these measures are not based on theoretical arguments, which may hinder their validity.

In the recent decades content analysis has gained acceptance as a legitimate tool of CSR measurement. In their study on corporate responsibility reporting Cowen et al. (1987, 121) found that reporting on such dimensions as energy usage, environmental issues, fair business practice and community involvement are greatly influenced by corporate size, whereas human resources and product safety are almost always addressed regardless of how big the company is. Although some researchers argue that certain dimensions will be established as valid measures through repeated use (Ruf et al. 1998, 121), the arbitrary choice of these indicators is still seen as their biggest downside (Ingram & Frazier 1980, 620).

Developing on the aforementioned studies Turker (2009, 411) conducted a survey on Turkish business professionals to find out which dimensions they consider the most important. Findings revealed that the respondents found the companies' primary responsibilities to be toward the natural environment, the society and future generations. Interestingly, customers, whose role is vital in ensuring the continuity of the business, were considered less important. Greening and Turban (2000, 274) broadened the organizational perspective by questioning prospective employees about the dimensions they value the most. As in previous studies, the findings highlight the importance of the natural environment and employee relations. Other dimensions that emerged as equally important were treatment of women and minorities and product quality.

Öberseder et al. (2014, 103) combined the managerial and the consumer perspectives by interviewing 48 consumers and CSR managers to develop their own scale, which was then tested on Austrian consumers. According to their results, consumers considered three out of seven dimensions to be of greater importance. The most important domains were fair treatment of customers, employee relations and the environment. The society, the local community and suppliers were also deemed as somewhat important, whereas shareholders were considered the least important.

2.4 Consumer perceptions of CSR

The variety of different stakeholder groups is one of the reasons why scholars cannot seem to agree on the dimensions of CSR; every group has its own view of the company's activities, based on which they form expectations (Fiedler & Kirchgeorg 2007, 183; Hillenbrand & Money 2007, 266; Mitchell et al. 1997, 863). Adopting the customer perspective Öberseder et al. (2014, 102) introduce the term CPCSR, or consumer

perceptions of corporate social responsibility. Perceptions of companies' activities have been proven to influence consumer behavior, even if they are not always based on reality (Magnusson et al. 2011, 467).

However, recent studies have shown that there is often a disparity between companies' CSR activities and consumers' perceptions of them (Bhattacharya et al. 2008, 38–39; Du et al. 2007 238; Sen et al. 2006, 164). Even though research indicates that consumers are increasingly interested in CSR (Pomeroy & Dolnicar 2009, 293–294), the general public still does not actively seek CSR related information (Dawkins 2005, 116). Most consumers acquire CSR information through a third party, such as news coverage or word of mouth communications (Du et al. 2010, 16). Surprisingly, Morsing and Schultz (2006, 332) discovered that when it comes to CSR issues, consumers prefer to be informed through “minimal-release” channels such as annual reports. Traditionally these kinds of reports are seen as being made with the needs of the financial sector in mind (Gray et al. 1995, 48).

Singh, del Mar Garcia and Rodriguez del Bosque (2008, 600) propose that consumers are more sensitive to the tangible aspects of CSR. Megicks et al. (2008, 642–644, 650) conducted a study of British consumers to see whether CSR issues play a part in their purchase decisions. They measured the effect of factors such as animal and human rights, environmental concern and product safety together with various store-related variables to see which of these were most relevant to consumers. The findings indicate that although consumers' commitment to responsible shopping is relatively strong, situational factors influence their priorities.

Despite the fact that consumers differ greatly in their attitudes towards CSR, there is a niche group that gives great consideration to sustainability issues and is also interested in CSR information (Dawkins 2005, 115). A global survey conducted by GlobeScan (2001, 6) distinguishes two types of consumers who are more inclined to use their purchasing power to bring about social change: Conventional activists demand that corporations do their share by following the norms of corporate social responsibility, whereas social activists demand a more proactive approach to improving the state of the environment and narrowing the gap between the rich and the poor. A U.S. based PR agency, Cone Communications (27, 33–37), conducted a similar survey, where they were able to differentiate several consumer types among the respondents. Their socially responsible consumer spectrum includes five categories: the disbelievers, the passivists, the emotionalists, the advocates and the activists. Disbelievers are only interested in the financial side of business. Passivists do not think that they alone can make a difference. Emotionalists support emotionally appealing CSR initiatives if they do not have to go out of their way to show their support. Advocates support CSR initiatives if they themselves are champions of the focal issue. Again, advocates are the most committed consumers

who are willing to make drastic changes in their consumption behavior. Based on the discussion above, the first hypothesis of this study is:

H₁: The perceived importance of corporate sustainability influences responsible purchase intentions positively.

3 CONSUMER RESPONSIBILITY

3.1 Profiling conscious consumers

As stated in the previous chapter, companies are facing consumers who not only seek to fulfill their personal needs, but who also demand that firms behave in a socially and environmentally sustainable way. In literature, these consumers go by many different names, some of which include socially conscious, green, sustainable, pro-social, ethical and altruistic consumers (Wells et al. 2011, 810).

Webster (1975, 188) defines a socially conscious consumer as someone “who takes into account the public consequences of his or her private consumption or who attempts to use his or her purchasing power to bring about social change”. Socially responsible consumption can therefore be considered a consumer movement. According to Kozinets and Handelman (2004, 691), a consumer movement is a special kind of social movement that strives to change the predominant way of consumption and marketing.

It is generally accepted that socially conscious consumption is rooted in the environmental movement (Freestone & McGoldrick 2008, 446). The difference between the two consumer movements is that socially conscious consumption encompasses a wider range of issues (Shaw et al. 2000, 880). As stated by Strong (1996, 5), besides environmental matters, socially conscious consumers are also concerned about human wellbeing. This means that conscious consumers “care whether a corporation promotes employees from minority ethnicities, plan their consumption to avoid harm to other animals, worry about product transportation distances and probably a plethora of other concerns” (Harrison et al. 2005, 4).

Much of the research has concentrated on profiling the socially responsible consumer. Generally, women tend to be more sensitive to ethical issues than men (Wells et al. 2011, 818) and highly educated, high-income groups are more likely to show their support through purchase behavior (Tucker et al. 1981, 472; Littrell & Dickson 1999, 52). There is evidence that young consumers are more socially conscious than the older generation. According to Nielsen Global Sustainability Report (2015, 9), sustainable consumption is on the rise among millennials, or those born between early 1980’s and 2000. Despite the current economic instability, young consumers are willing to pay extra for ethical products. Some, however, have argued that research on demographics has over-emphasized the role of young people (Carrigan et al. 2004, 402).

Several studies have also indicated that consumers are willing to reward socially responsible companies (e.g. Du et al. 2007, 237; Lichtenstein et al. 2004, 26; Sen & Bhattacharya 2001, 238; Sen et al. 2006, 164). Conversely, there is also proof that consumer boycotts have a real and profound impact on target companies. For example, the

famous Nestlé boycott over infant formula cost the company over 40 million dollars (Nelson-Horchler 1984, 54–56). The emergence of the Internet has made information more accessible and has thus increased the power of boycotts (Reed 1999, 18–19). According to Mason (2000, 27), in the end of the millennium a staggering 44% of British consumers had boycotted an unethical product or company. Although impressive, these figures might give an overly optimistic picture of how conscious consumers really are.

According to Young et al. (2010, 22) 30% of consumers express positive attitudes towards environmentally sustainable consumption, whereas only 5% act according to their pro-environmental attitudes. What is more, marketers are often faced with cynicism when trying to launch ethical products (Carrigan & Attalla 2001, 566). If there is no demand for ethical goods, manufacturers will not consider them as a viable product segment and will remove said products from their range (Uusitalo & Oksanen 2004, 220). Consumers may also perceive ethical activism as threatening to their current lifestyle and therefore resort to cynicism as a way of coping with negative feelings (Bertilsson 2015, 461–462).

Another possible explanation is the previously mentioned attitude-behavior gap. In spite of extensive research, the reasons behind this gap remain relatively unclear (Auger et al. 2003, 299; Belk et al. 2005, 276; De Pelsmacker et al. 2005, 364–365; Shaw & Connolly 2006, 353). According to some, self-evaluation surveys, that are traditionally used to assess consumers' responsibility, lead to a social desirability bias: Instead of answering according to their actual purchase intentions, consumers respond what they think is expected of them (Antonetti & Maklan 2015, 53.)

In the past, researchers have examined the influence of moral norms and personal values on ethical decision-making (e.g. Shaw & Shiu 2002, 292; Vermeir & Verbeke 2008, 546–547). Even though studies show that there is a relationship between moral imperatives and ethical purchasing, consumers sometimes make choices that go against social or personal norms (e.g. Antonetti & Maklan 2014, 718). Oftentimes, context-specific issues such as price and perceived quality come between consumers' intentions and their actions (Caruana et al. 2016, 215).

In addition to price and quality, studies also indicate that consumers feel they do not have enough information to make ethical choices (Shaw & Clarke 1999, 113). According to Boulstridge and Carrigan (2000, 355–368), most consumers are unable to differentiate responsible brands from irresponsible ones. What is more, some do not think that having more information would change their consumption habits, whereas others feel that additional information would only make their choices more difficult. Taking these problems into consideration, De Pelsmacker et al. (2005, 382) conclude that correct information about the effects of fair trade is a necessary prerequisite for adoption of ethical products. Furthermore, results indicate that information about the effects of ethical purchasing increases consumers' likelihood of choosing the responsible alternative

(White et al. 2012, 105). As Carrigan and Attalla (2001, 566) put it, consumers are not indifferent to information concerning companies' ethical conduct; they simply value good prices and quality more than sustainable product attributes.

The next chapter will take a more detailed look at the effects that moral norms, price and quality have on consumers' purchase intentions. The study will then move on to discuss how different reference groups could participate in making consumers more responsible by informing them about the effects of their consumption.

3.2 The influence of moral norms

Responsibility is often seen as closely related to morality. Although results on the influence of moral norms are somewhat contradictory (Bamberg & Schmidt 2003, 281), they seem to have at least some significance in explaining responsible behavior (Taylor & Todd 1997, 691). In his work on helping behavior, Fleishman (1980, 630) proposed that altruistic behavior stems from either felt moral obligation or the individual's own will to do something that benefits a greater number of people. Expectations that the society imposes on an individual take the form of norms, which then shape the individual's personal beliefs about what is socially acceptable (Schwartz 1973, 353). Sometimes these beliefs are seen as a product of individual reasoning instead of internalized social rules. However, the two are not mutually exclusive, but both play a role in the formation of personal norms (Thøgersen 2009, 349.)

There is strong evidence that personal norms can predict ethical behavior (Bratt 1999, 650; Harland et al. 1999, 2522; Thøgersen 1999, 451; Hunecke et al. 2001, 848). Nonetheless, studies indicate that although consumers react positively to the idea of ethical consumption, this does not necessarily show in their behavior (Carrigan & Attalla 2001, 564; Bray et al. 2011, 560). Part of this is due to self-evaluation bias; consumers see themselves as more responsible than they actually are (Peattie 2010, 213–214). Furthermore, following moral imperatives comes at a price; making responsible choices sometimes means that consumers have to pay more or use more time to find and compare alternative products (Eckhardt et al. 2005, 427). This leads to a situation where consumers make up justifications and excuses to explain why they did not make the responsible choice (Scott & Lyman 1968, 47).

In addition to making up excuses, consumers tend to shift their personal responsibility to other actors. This is evident in Wray-Lake et al.'s (2010, 79–80) longitudinal study of American adolescents' environmental attitudes. The findings indicate that young people tend to downplay their personal responsibility as opposed to that of the government. Some studies also show that consumers feel unable to correct sustainability-related problems and instead attribute responsibility to companies who make the

products (Niva & Timonen 2001, 334.) What is more, even when consumers see themselves as responsible, this sense of responsibility does not extend to all areas of behavior (Downing & Ballantyne 2007, 5). In light of these findings, Wells et al. (2011, 827) raise the question whether involvement in some sustainable activity can actually lessen consumers' sense of personal responsibility. According to Luchs et al. (2015, 1460) this is something marketing managers need to be aware of. Targeting the same group of responsible consumers who are already engaged in sustainable behavior may lead to moral exhaustion.

In spite of their complex nature, moral imperatives can influence purchase intentions positively. For example, Nordlund and Garvill (2003, 345) discovered that personal norms act as a mediator between values, problem awareness and willingness to cooperate. Similarly, in their study, Luchs et al. (2015, 1455) found that felt responsibility is actually a better predictor of responsible purchase intentions than attitude towards sustainability. Based on the aforementioned arguments, the second hypothesis of this study is:

H₂: Personal responsibility for sustainability influences responsible purchase intentions positively.

3.3 Price and quality as obstacles to ethical consumption

Poor perceptions of quality are seen as a hindrance to purchase of ethical products (Gleim & Lawson 2014, 510). Studies have found that if consumers believe that there is a trade-off between product quality and promoting sustainability, companies' CSR efforts may actually be detrimental to sales (Sen & Bhattachariya 2001, 239). In their study on fair trade coffee, Bird & Hughes (1997, 162) list poor quality and packaging as partially responsible for the low market share of Oxfam and Traidcraft that are among the biggest importers of ethical products in the UK.

Quality is traditionally seen as an intrinsic product attribute that is hard to observe without prior experience of the product in question (Olson 1977, 284–285; Zeithaml 1988, 6). Ideally consumers would weigh different product attributes and then make an informed purchase decision (Peter & Olson 1987, 45). However, due to a variety of reasons, such as lack of motivation or perceived association of intrinsic and extrinsic attributes, consumers tend to use more tangible, extrinsic attributes, as cues (Chang & Wildt 1996, 56). Brands are a good example of extrinsic attributes because they decrease a consumer's perceived risk in a situation where he or she is faced with imperfect product information (Erdem & Swait 1998, 139). Relying on cues may lead to inertia. Having acknowledged price and quality as the biggest barriers to purchase of ethical

products, Bray et al. (2011, 603) asked consumers to name the product they would buy regardless of price. Surprisingly, respondents ended up choosing the same brand they were used to buying, which in turn decreased their likelihood of buying the ethical alternative.

There are of course differences between consumers and product categories. To put it simply, some people value quality more than a clean CSR record and will continue to buy products that meet their criteria, whereas others, who are perhaps more idealistic, will buy ethical products despite of their poor quality (Carrigan & Attalla 2001, 574; Berens et al. 2007, 236). The former case is a classic expression of hedonism, where the consumer puts value on the maximization of his or her personal gains (Szmigin et al. 2007, 400). Davies et al. (2012, 45) studied the relationship between price, quality and responsibility in luxury products and found that people tended to view ethicality and high quality as total opposites. Moreover, respondents considered high-end luxury products as expensive enough and were not willing to pay more for ethically sound products. These findings are supported by Boulstridge and Carrigan's (2000, 355–368) study, where researchers discovered that high product quality was generally more important than the manufacturing company's CSR record.

However, as Gabriel and Lang (1995, 110–111) note, modern consumers may appreciate the emotional experience associated with the purchase more than the physical sensation derived from it. This would indicate that positive feelings derived from acting responsibly are an end in itself (Szmigin et al. 2007, 400–401). Furthermore, some products that are considered sustainable or ethical have also functional benefits. For example, consumers might be willing to pay more for organic groceries because their quality is linked to improved personal health (Shaw et al. 2005, 192).

Nevertheless, quality remains a significant hurdle to ethical purchasing. In their study, Auger et al. (2003, 300) presented respondents with multiple scenarios, in which they had to indicate how much they would be willing to pay for functional benefits and social attributes. Although their results support the existence of a socially conscious consumer group, the authors recognize that a large majority of consumers cannot be bothered with ethical issues, especially if they are induced at the cost of other product attributes. Therefore the third hypothesis of this study is:

H₃: Low product quality influences responsible purchase intentions negatively.

As mentioned before, price may be an impediment to responsible purchase intentions. Ethical products are usually more expensive than normal ones, or at least are considered as such by the public (De Pelsmacker et al. 2005, 368; Hughner et al. 2007, 103; Padel & Foster 2005, 610). For example, in order to ensure that their products meet the standards placed on fair trade products many alternative trade organizations demand

that suppliers pay their workers a minimum wage, respect health and safety regulations and avoid use of forced, prison or child labor (Bird & Hughes 1997, 161). This kind of control leads to increased production costs (Trudel & Cotte 2009, 63).

The high price of ethical goods affects consumer behavior in several ways. For one, buying ethical products requires sufficient income (Bird & Hughes 1997, 166) and in some instances their purchase is even frowned upon, if the person(s) buying them are on some sort of government welfare (Olson et al. 2016, 893). Furthermore, each country's living standards play a part in consumers' propensity to spend on ethical products. Eckhardt et al. (2010, 432) discovered that consumers in developing countries gave little to no consideration to ethical aspects when purchasing a product because they preferred the best quality they could afford.

Nevertheless, some consumers are indeed willing to pay more for ethical products (Freestone & McGoldrick 2008, 462). Studies show that age plays a part in consumers' willingness to pay for responsible goods. Results indicate that older consumers are more aware of ethical matters than previously thought and are willing to take these matters into consideration when shopping (Carrigan et al. 2004, 411–412). They may also have more disposable income and are thereby less affected by financial constraints than their younger counterparts (Moschis 2000, 13).

Regardless of extensive research, the relationship between price and responsibility remains problematic. According Davies et al. (2012, 40), consumers' belief that ethical products are always expensive has led to a fallacy, in which price is seen as an indicator of high ethical standards, even if this is not always true. According to an alternative view, prices of ordinary products are actually distorted because they do not account for the negative externalities that their production causes (Peattie 2010, 211).

Moreover, consumers often ignore the total costs of acquisition and use. For example, government penalties and incentives should be taken into account as part of a rational evaluation (Peattie 2010, 205). Sterner and Bartelings (1999, 476, 482, 485) studied a Swedish municipality that had introduced a waste management system where inhabitants paid for their waste per kilogram produced. Environmentally conscious behavior, such as composting, diminished the total amount of payable waste. During the time when the study was conducted, recycling increased significantly. However, this kind of behavior requires people to be, at least to some extent, informed on the savings that might accrue (Turrentine & Kurani 2006, 1221–1222). Hence, the fourth hypothesis of this study is:

H₄: High price influences responsible purchase intentions negatively.

3.4 Instilling responsibility into consumer's behavior

According to Caruana and Crane (2008, 1497), beliefs that consumer responsibility is easily objectified and measured have led to a belief that there is a ready segment of responsible consumers that are just waiting to be found. As a consequence, marketers have seen consumer responsibility as something that can just be tapped into (Mitchell 1997, 26–27). Researchers argue that instilling responsibility into consumers' behavior is a complex sociocultural process that concerns not just consumers themselves, but companies, governments and various institutions (Shamir 2008, 8–9). Some even propose that companies should be tasked with educating consumers on these matters (McDonagh 1998, 611). If responsible consumer segments do not exist *per se*, they must be made and this process, in turn, revolves around giving meaning to the subject in the political and public sphere (Sender 2005, 139). Furthermore, this kind of communication would promote greater understanding of sustainable consumer behavior, as opposed to companies just marketing social initiatives they perceive as important (Caruana & Crane 2008, 1499).

In marketing literature, actors that influence consumer behavior are called reference groups. According to Schiffman and Kanuk (1997, 323), “a reference group is any person or group that serves as a point of comparison (or reference) for an individual in forming either general or specific values, attitudes or behavior”. Reference groups are usually divided into four subcategories based on their attractiveness in consumers' eyes. *Avoidance groups* carry negative connotations and consumers are willing to go to great lengths to disassociate themselves from these groups. *Aspirational groups*, on the other hand, are seen as attractive and worth striving for. A *disclaimant group* is one to which an individual admits belonging, but has negative feelings for. Conversely, an individual may feel pride over being a member of a *contactual group* and as a consequence is likely to conform to the norms of that particular group (Arnould et al. 2004, 610–612.)

Reference groups influence consumer behavior through social norms. This has been widely acknowledged in sustainability literature. Individuals are more likely to engage in behavior that their contactual or aspirational reference groups approve of. Similarly, they tend to avoid behavior that is frowned upon by their peers or people they look up to. This is evident in Nolan et al.'s (2008, 920) study where the researchers observed Californians' willingness to conserve energy. They discovered that households were more prone to cut back on energy consumption when they were given information about what others in the neighborhood were doing to save electricity. Their findings are supported by previous studies such as Schultz's (1999, 31) work on curbside recycling, where it was found that positive comments from ones neighbors increased the motivation for waste sorting. Likewise, Bamberg (2003, 26–27) discovered that friends and

family members were highly influential in decisions regarding information search on alternative energy sources.

While reference groups are no doubt instrumental in influencing consumer behavior, they are not the only actors that have a say in people's consumption choices. Previously in this chapter it was mentioned that companies and governments were amongst those who are left with the task of sensitizing consumers to responsibility issues. Goldsmith & Goldsmith (2011, 117) refer to these actors as outside influences as opposed to friends and family members. According to them "people will respond to information designed to change their minds, and the desired behavioral change will follow". Whether or not this strategy is successful depends on a variety of factors, such as information source, medium, personal characteristics of the recipient and nature of the message.

Sanne (2002, 281–282) has explored the roles of companies, politicians and the media in setting agendas related to sustainable consumption. According to him, business has become such a pervasive part of modern society that it can no longer be separated from the media or politics. Companies are engaged in heavy, although often covert, lobbying to promote their business interests. Media, on the other hand, operates on the premise that advertisers, not readers or viewers, pay most of its costs. This may in turn have a significant influence on the way sustainability issues are treated in media outlets (Miller & Riechert 2013, 54). What is more, even sovereign states and governments, that were previously considered to be above business, are losing their traditional power due to globalization (Scherer & Palazzo 2011, 909).

This is not to say that corporations can do as they wish. Dishonest or manipulative communication holds reputational risks that may damage a company's reputation permanently. In their study on CSR communication, Du et al. (2010, 13) make an important distinction between different information sources and their credibility: The less controllable a source is, the more credible it will appear. Therefore, companies promoting their own sustainability initiatives are sometimes perceived as doing so only for financial reasons. Becker-Olsen et al. (2006, 52) suggest that this might be due to poor fit with corporate objectives. If these objectives are not in line with the initiative in question, the endeavor may in fact harm previously held positive attitudes towards the firm. Hence, it is imperative for companies to pay attention to the cause they want to commit to. Secondly, a clear connection should be established between the company and its social program.

For this same reason non-profit or non-governmental organizations are often thought of as being more sincere than companies. For example, a comparison between the credibility of a brewer and an anti-drunk driving organization revealed a significant difference between the two (Szykman et al. 2004, 16–17). However, as Finch et al. (2015, 276) found in their study on source legitimacy, individuals with strong environmental values tend to also find environmental non-governmental organizations, or ENGO's, a

highly credible source of information. This would suggest that NGO's have the most influence on people who are already predisposed to acting in a sustainable way. In the recent years more and more NGO's have also started collaborating with companies because the latter already have access to the consumer base and resources that are necessary in instituting social change. Companies, on the other hand, see this kind of collaboration as a means of legitimizing their sustainability initiatives (Linton 2005, 603 – 604.)

Although this chapter does not provide any hypotheses, it links CSR and consumer responsibility together. Reference groups and other actors undoubtedly play a key role in consumers' willingness to adopt sustainable practices. This information is of particular interest to companies who question the meaning of sustainability reporting or do it because it is expected of them. Also, depending on the results, more companies could benefit from collaboration with third parties, such as NGO's, and the leverage that could result from it.

4 EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

This study was conducted using quantitative data. Quantitative data lends itself to statistical analysis, which means that the resulting numbers can be used to directly represent the phenomenon in question. In general, this allows for more objective results. On the other hand, representativeness is of particular concern and needs to be addressed using sufficient sample sizes. However, quantitative research is often useful in tracking trends, such as those in consumer behavior (Hair et al. 2016, 153–154.) The data used in this study was collected through questionnaires that were emailed to business students at the Turku School of Economics.

Due to the relatively large number of responses that were required, the data was collected using a sample survey. According to Fink (2003, 2), survey information can be evaluated based on six criteria:

- Specific, measurable objectives
- Sound research design
- Sound choice of population or sample
- Reliable and valid instruments
- Appropriate analysis
- Accurate reporting of results

The following chapters will go through each of these criteria in more detail.

4.1 Research methods

In order to answer the research questions, a framework was constructed, where the perceived importance of CSR, personal responsibility for sustainability, quality and price acted as predictor variables for responsible purchase intentions. Logistic regression was chosen as the research method due to its capability to predict discrete outcomes (see for example Tabachnick & Fidell 2007, 437). In this case responsible purchase intentions were the dependent variable.

Based on the theoretical findings presented in the previous chapters, it was proposed that the perceived importance of CSR and consumers' personal responsibility for sustainability would have a positive effect on responsible purchase intentions (hypothesis 1 & 2). Conversely, it was theorized that high price and low quality would have a negative impact on consumers' responsible purchase intentions (hypotheses 3 & 4). The research model is depicted in the figure below.

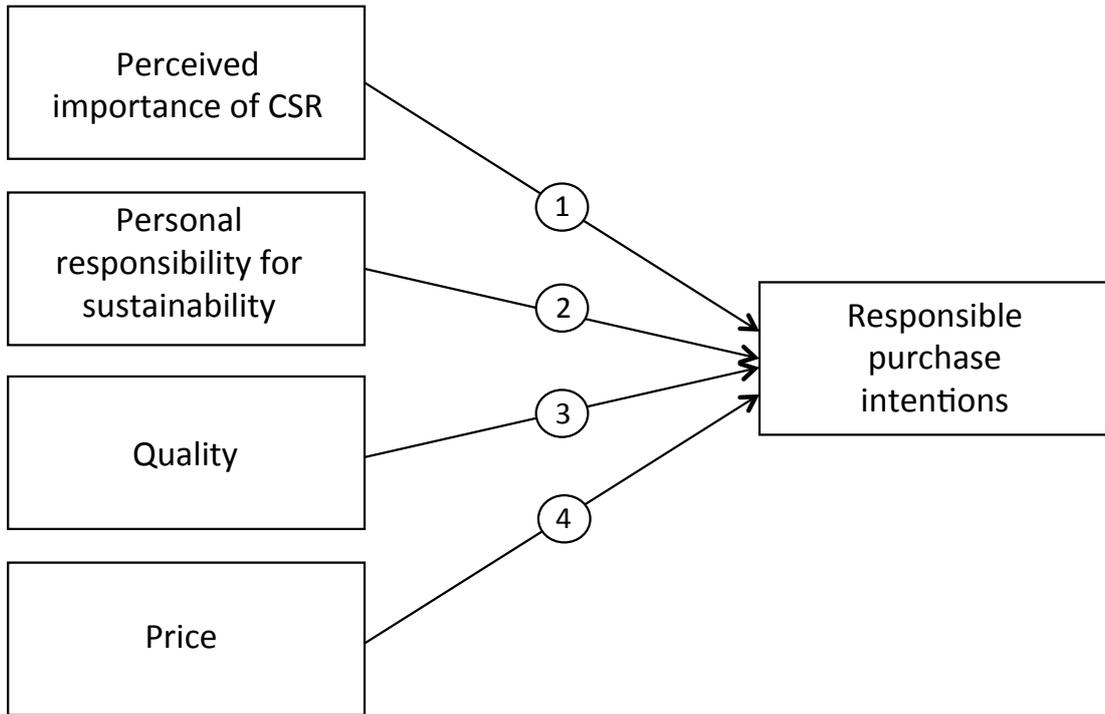


Figure 1 Research framework

The framework can also be described in terms of regression equations. In the first equation (a), the importance of CSR is regressed on responsible purchase intentions. In the next equation (b), personal responsibility for sustainability is also included. Lastly, quality and price are added alongside the two other variables (c).

$$(a) \ln \left(\frac{p}{1-p} \right)_i = \beta_{10} + \beta_{11} \text{PIoCSR}_i$$

$$(b) \ln \left(\frac{p}{1-p} \right)_i = \beta_{20} + \beta_{21} \text{PIoCSR}_i + \beta_{22} \text{PRfS}_i$$

$$(c) \ln \left(\frac{p}{1-p} \right)_i = \beta_{30} + \beta_{31} \text{PIoCSR}_i + \beta_{32} \text{PRfS}_i + \beta_{33} Q_i + \beta_{34} P_i$$

where

PIoCSR_i = the perceived importance of CSR

PRfS_i = personal responsibility for sustainability

P_i = price

Q_i = quality

$\ln \left(\frac{p}{1-p} \right)_i$ = logit of choosing the responsible option

$\beta_{10}, \beta_{20}, \beta_{30}$ = intercepts of the lines

β_{11}, β_{21} and $\beta_{31}; \beta_{32}$ = coefficients of the predictors

4.2 Construct measurement

In total, the survey questionnaire consisted of four measures. The first one was adapted from Luchs et al.'s (2015, 1470, 1453) attitude towards sustainability measure, which consisted of nine items. The scale had demonstrated strong reliability by receiving a Cronbach alpha score of 0,92. In the original measure, respondents were asked to indicate whether information concerning product attributes would influence their purchase decisions. Since all of the factors were either directly (e.g. minimizing pollution, using fair labor practices, using efficient production processes) or indirectly (e.g. enabling fair and responsible product disposal) related to CSR efforts, this fact was emphasized in the instructions to avoid misunderstandings between consumer and corporate responsibility. Therefore, in the modified measure used in this study respondents were asked to indicate how important they considered various CSR dimensions to be.

The second instrument was built using two separate measures; Luchs & Miller's (2015, 267) consumers' felt responsibility for sustainability and Webb et al.'s (2008, 94) traditional purchase criteria, consisting of five and four items respectively. Luchs and Miller (2015, 257) had developed their measure based on studies of employees' felt responsibility for promoting change in the workplace. Replacing all the workplace terms with those related to sustainable consumption they got a strong measure with a Cronbach alpha score of 0,78. The other half of the scale consisted of Webb et al.'s instrument measuring the importance of price and quality. Both were measured using two items. The authors had gotten a Cronbach alpha score of 0,72 for their scale.

The third measure was modified from Luchs et al.'s (2015, 1452) product choice stimuli. The original instrument featured a choice of two blenders, one of which was environmentally, socially and economically more sustainable, but whose performance was poorer. In addition to choosing between the two products, respondents were asked to indicate how much they would be willing to pay for each. Due to respondents' average age, home appliances were replaced with garments in this study. To minimize the chance of any brand bias, non-branded, white t-shirts were chosen as the items of interest. Moreover, it was important to avoid garments that are typically perceived as men's or women's clothing. The t-shirt proved to be a neutral option, since it can be worn by both genders. Instead of indicating the sustainability of the product on a scale from one to ten, respondents were provided with information about materials and labor used in the manufacturing process. To account for the possibly inferior quality (e.g. Bray et al. 2011, 602–603), a statement was added saying that the sustainable product might not be as durable as its counterpart. However, this statement is somewhat controversial and will be discussed in the chapter concerning the limitations of this study. Prices for both products were calculated based on the average price of similar products in real-life stores.

The fourth and final measure was modified from Bamberg's (2003, 25) scale of normative influence. The instrument was originally designed to measure the level of support offered by various persons and/or institutions for the use of a brochure on green electricity. Possible influences included friends, family, groups from the environmental movement, known professors and electricity providers. While these options are justified, they do not convey the full extent to which various actors affect consumers' decision-making. Based on other researchers', such as Sanne's (2002, 281–282), work on agenda setting and implementation of sustainability, two more options were added: politicians and the media. Other modifications included removing professors from the list of possible influences and replacing energy providers with just companies. Also, due to the wider array of issues that are included social responsibility, groups from the environmental movement were substituted with non-governmental organizations.

Table 1 Operationalization of variables

To examine which factors most influence consumers' responsible purchase intentions.		
Purpose of the study:		
Research questions:	1. How does perceived importance of CSR predict responsible purchase intentions?	2. How does felt personal responsibility for sustainability predict responsible purchase intentions?
Theoretical concepts:	CSR measurement (chapter 2.3) Consumer perceptions of CSR (chapter 2.4)	Moral norms (chapter 3.2) Price and quality (chapter 3.3)
Survey questions, question number & sources:	1. Please rate how much you agree that each of the following sustainability-related issues is important to you? (Modified Luchs, Phipps & Hill 2015, 1470)	4. Please indicate how well the following statements describe your behavior. (Modified Luchs & Miller 2015, 267) (Modified Webb, Mohr & Harris 2008, 94)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Minimizing pollution - Using fair labor practices - Using efficient production processes - Minimizing resource consumption - Supporting local communities - Enabling product longevity - Enabling recycling of resources - Enabling fair and responsible product disposal 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I feel obligated to try to implement sustainable practices where appropriate. - When I am shopping, I buy the lowest priced product regardless of the working conditions in the factory - It's up to me to bring about improvements in sustainability. - I buy the highest quality product, regardless of its impact on the environment. - I feel little obligation to challenge or change the way sustainability related practices have been conducted. - When I am shopping, I buy the highest quality product regardless of the working conditions in the factory. - I feel a personal sense of responsibility to be more sustainable in my product choices. - I buy the lowest priced product, regardless of its impact on the environment. - I am unable to correct sustainability related problems with my choices.
		3. How do price and quality predict responsible purchase intentions? (Modified Luchs, Phipps & Hill 2015, 1452)
		Consumer responsibility (chapters 2.4 & 3.1) Attitude-behavior gap (chapter 3.1)
		6. Imagine that you are in process of choosing between the two products below. Please pay careful attention to the information given about each product. Please select the product you would be most likely to purchase.

Luchs et al.'s CFRS measure, as well as Webb et al.'s traditional purchase criteria instrument were designed to be used with a five point Likert scale. The attitude towards sustainability measure, on the other hand, had been designed for a seven-point ordinal scale. While it was important to get precise information, it was acknowledged that adding more levels could make interpretation harder and, perhaps more importantly, confuse respondents (Hair et al. 2016, 246). Therefore, the importance of CSR scale was simplified by dropping off two intermediate levels. As for the last measure, no changes were made to the existing five-point scale. The endpoints for this scale were 1 (very unlikely) and 5 (very likely).

4.3 Data collection

The data collection took place during a two-week period in April 2016. An email (Appendix 1) containing a link to the online survey (Appendix 2) was sent to Finnish-speaking students of Turku School of Economics. In order to do this, the questionnaire had to be translated from English to Finnish. Both the English questionnaire and the translated version were revised carefully to detect any possible mistakes. The survey was distributed online to make participation easier and to guarantee respondents' anonymity (Cargan 2007, 102; Bryman & Bell 2011, 669). In order to increase the response rate, five winners were chosen from a random draw of responses and each was given a pair of movie tickets. Respondent's email addresses were treated separately so that their confidentiality would not be compromised. The survey was sent to 2414 students with 237 (9,8%) responding. In marketing research, using student samples is a relatively common practice (Bryman & Bell 2011, 191). In this case it can be justified by the fact that university students form a homogenous group, thus reducing the chance of random error (Koçak et al. 2007, 167). Although students do not represent Finnish consumers as a whole, they are highly educated and are therefore aware the impact that their consumption choices have. Furthermore, they are likely to be part of the middle- to high-income groups after they graduate from university and will thereby exert more power through their choices (Tucker et al. 1981, 472; Littrell & Dickson 1999, 52). Based on demographic factors presented in previous chapters, university students are also likely to be vanguards of the change towards more responsible consumption.

To further increase response rates, an effort was made to include all essential measures while keeping the questionnaire as short as possible. Excessive length is often the biggest impediment to completing a survey, since it can result in respondent fatigue (Wilson 2010, 151). Likewise, open-ended questions can seem daunting to respondents (Brace 2013, 142). In addition to excluding all open-ended items, survey design was improved by varying the order of statements. This was done so that the questions would

not look too much alike, which again could result in loss of respondent interest. Drawing inspiration from Luchs et al.'s (2015, 1452) product choice stimuli measure, infographics were chosen as a means of presenting the two products in the hypothetical purchase situation. This too was done to prevent respondents from getting bored.

Due to the nature of the subject, there is a possibility of social desirability bias. It is born out of the respondents attempt to provide the answers he or she thinks are socially desirable (Bryman 2004, 165). This is a risk especially because unethical behavior is frowned upon in many modern societies (Bamberg & Möser 2007, 15–17; Steenhaut & Van Kenhove 2006, 270–271). This kind of error was minimized by carefully revising the questionnaire. For example, the question concerning respondents' moral obligation to correct problems related to sustainable consumption was rephrased to avoid unnecessary feelings of guilt. Similarly, careful attention was given to product attributes in the hypothetical purchase situation.

A pilot test was conducted on four respondents (n=4). This was done in order to improve the reliability and validity of the measures (Wilson, 2010 153). However, all of the questions in the survey had been used in previous studies, which improves their trustworthiness. The use of pre-existing indicators is recommended especially for first-time researchers who lack the experience to develop their own measurement tools (David & Sutton 2004, 142.) Another reason for the pilot test was to eliminate all ambiguities there might be (Bryman & Bell 2011, 262–263). In other words, if one or more questions could be understood in multiple ways, they had to be modified or dropped out. For example, in the first measure questions related to the reuse of resources and recycling of resources were deemed too similar by the test respondents, hence the other one was removed. Based on feedback received, question wording was also modified to better accommodate for differences between Finnish and English.

4.4 Reliability and validity of the research

Validity refers to a measurement scale's freedom from any nonrandom error. This means that in order to be valid, an instrument has to accurately represent the concept of the study (see for example Hair et al. 2010, 3.) Validity is further divided into external and internal validity. External validity refers to the generalizability of the findings; in other words, how well the results apply to other subjects beyond the specific research context (see for example Bryman & Bell 2011, 43). In this case, there is no reason to assume that the results would have been different had the study been conducted someplace else with a similar respondent profile. However, it is important to acknowledge that business students' attitudes towards sustainability might differ from those of students of other faculties. Furthermore, there is a gender bias since 60,3% of the respond-

ents were female (see chapter 5.1 for more information). Internal validity means that the results cannot be explained by any extraneous variable (see for example Black 1999, 44). To reduce this kind of risk, the research model was designed to include multiple independent variables, one of which turned out to be a mediator between another variable and the predicted outcome.

Research validity can be evaluated in multiple ways (see for example Bryman & Bell 2011, 159). The validity of this study was assessed through three different approaches of content, construct and predictive validity. The first one, content validity, involves a subjective but systematic assessment of the items included in each scale. This is usually done by conducting a pilot test on a small group of respondents or asking the opinion of expert panelists (see for example Hair et al. 2010, 257). In this study, existing scales developed by other researchers were used to ensure that the requirements for content validity were met. As stated in the previous chapter, a small pilot test was also conducted to eliminate any remaining inconsistencies.

Predictive validity, on the other hand, refers to a correlation between an instrument and a predicted outcome (see for example Black 1999, 194). In this study predictive validity was evaluated through the correlation of the independent and dependent variables used in the logistic regression model. The results support the model's ability to predict consumers' purchase intentions.

Construct validity means the extent to which the scales included in the study actually reflect the latent construct they are supposed to measure (see for example Hair et al. 2010, 708). Construct validity can be improved by deducting hypothesis from relevant theoretical concepts (see for example Bryman & Bell 2011, 160). This study follows the *logical* or rational approach of construct validity (Black 1999, 219), which means that the question sets were derived from concepts and constructs that had a solid theoretical foundation. Furthermore, the construct validity is improved by the fact that none of the instruments were purely researcher-developed, but had been tested in previous studies.

To make sure that all the items included in each scale measured the same thing, a Cronbach's alpha test was conducted. The test employs a technique called split-half method to estimate the scale's internal correlations. It involves dividing the scale in half and assigning indicators to items on a random or odd-even basis. Respondents scoring high on one measure should get similar scores on other indicators as well. The coefficients indicating the degree of correlation will get a value ranging from zero to one, with one being the maximum and zero indicating no correlation whatsoever (see for example Bryman & Bell 2011, 158.) There are no explicit rules as to what is considered a good Cronbach's alpha score, but most researchers agree that 0.7 can be considered a rule of thumb for an acceptable level of internal reliability (see for example Schutte et al. 2000, 56; Hair et al. 2010, 255). In this study, all the sum variables exceeded this

lower limit. The variables are represented in table 1 along with their Cronbach's alpha scores and number of items included.

Table 2 Reliability test

CONSTRUCT	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Importance of CSR	.742	8
Felt responsibility for Sustainability	.730	5
Price	.860	2
Quality	.824	2

There are no strict guidelines regarding sufficient sample size for logistic regression. As with any other statistical method, a more robust sample size will increase the representativeness of the model (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007, 442). However, if the sample size is too big, all effects become significant (Pampel 2000, 30). On the other hand, the coefficients' properties are poorly understood in small samples and it is therefore recommended to include at least 100 cases per study (Long 1997, 54). Based on these arguments, it can be concluded that a sample size of 237 observations is sufficient enough for a logistic regression analysis.

5 RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 Respondent profile

The gender and age distributions are presented in their respective tables below. Out of 237 respondents 143 (60,3%) were female. This is in line with previous studies, in which women were found to take more interest in sustainability matters (e.g. Wells et al. 2011, 818).

Table 3 Gender distributions

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Male	94	39.7
Female	143	60.3
Total	237	100.0

The eldest respondents were 60 (men) and 46 years old (women), while the youngest were 20 years old in both genders. The mean age for both genders was relatively low, 26,4 for men and 24,92 for women. This can be explained by the fact that the survey was conducted among university students.

Table 4 Respondents' age profile

Gender	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Male	20	60	26.40	6.03	94
Female	20	46	24.92	4.03	143
Both sexes included	20	60	25.50	4.96	236

The standard deviations were relatively high, as can be seen from table 4. Taking into consideration the mean ages for both genders, it can be assumed that the standard deviations were influenced by the eldest respondents. Although no observations were excluded, it was decided that further categorization of different age groups would not make much sense, since most of the cases were so close to each other.

5.2 Importance of CSR and responsible purchase intentions

The research questions of this study were concerned with the influence of different variables on consumers' purchase intentions. In addition to measuring how the perceived importance of CSR affects purchase intentions, personal responsibility for sustainability, price and quality were chosen as the other predictors.

Table 5 The perceived importance of CSR

Please rate how much you agree that each of the following CSR-related issues is important to you.				
	Men n=94		Women n=143	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Minimizing pollution	3.936	.8652	4.119	.7644
Using fair labor practices	4.223	.8695	4.643	.5228
Using efficient production processes	3.926	.9531	3.692	.8327
Minimizing resource consumption	3.787	.8535	3.874	.8791
Supporting local communities	3.309	.9507	3.622	.8866
Enabling product longevity	4.223	.8444	4.462	.6794
Enabling recycling of resources	4.138	.8626	4.399	.7425
Enabling fair and responsible product disposal	3.979	.9614	4.231	.8615

The results indicate that consumers consider five of the eight proposed CSR domains to be of greater importance. On a scale from 1 to 5, where 5 was extremely important, the mean score of these five domains exceeded 4. Of the five most important domains, fair treatment of employees was the number one, followed by enabling product longevity and recycling of materials. Respondents also considered enabling reuse of resources after consumption and minimizing pollution as important, although less so than the three domains mentioned before.

Table 6 Personal responsibility for sustainability

Please indicate how much each of the following statements describes your behavior.				
	Men=94		Women=143	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
I feel obligated to implement sustainable practices where appropriate.	3.766	1.052	4.098	.7152
It's up to me to bring about improvements in sustainability.	3.447	.9460	3.832	.7505
I feel little obligation to challenge or change the way sustainability related practices have been conducted.	3.245	1.064	2.755	1.043
I feel a personal sense of responsibility to be more sustainable in my product choices.	3.926	1.090	4.196	.7436
I am unable to correct sustainability related problems with my choices.	2.521	1.171	2.175	1.016

Respondents were also asked to indicate whether they felt they were personally responsible for promoting sustainability matters. The mean scores of five questions are presented in table 6. In the next phase, questions measuring the perceived importance of CSR were combined to make a new variable that could be used to predict purchase intentions. The process was repeated with questions concerning personal responsibility for sustainability, price and quality.

Due to the fact that it was not possible to actually observe consumers' purchase behavior, a hypothetical purchase situation was set up, where respondents had to choose between two products. Taking into account these parameters, logistic regression was deemed as the most appropriate research method. Logistic regression is formulated to explain how different predictor variables affect a dichotomous (two-group) variable (see for example Hair et al. 2010, 341). The effect is expressed as a ratio of odds and the logarithmic expression of this ratio gives the *logit*, which indicates the direction and size of change (see for example Tabachnick & Fidell 2007, 438–439).

Table 7 Regression of one independent variable toward responsible purchase intention (N=237)

Variables	B	Std. Error	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
(Constant)	-6.355	1.482	18.282	.000	.002
Importance of CSR	.160	.044	13.237	.000	1.173
Overall percentage = 75.1		-2 log likelihood = 255.193		Nagelkerke R ² = .091	

***Significant at $p < .001$; **significant at $p < .01$; *significant at $p < .05$

The first part of the model tested the effect of the perceived importance of CSR on responsible purchase intentions. The results of this regression model are depicted in table 7. They show that the perceived importance of CSR is highly significant ($p < .001$)

in predicting responsible purchase intentions. The first model is able to predict correctly 75,1% of all cases. The overall percentage predicted by the beginning block is 74,3. Therefore, it can be said that the model's explanatory power increases with the introduction of new variables. Other indicators, such as the Nagelkerke R^2 , were also used to evaluate the goodness of the model. In the first model this value is .091, which means that the perceived importance of CSR explains 9,1% of total variance.

Table 8 Regression of two independent variables toward responsible purchase intention (N=237)

Variables	B	Std. Error	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
(Constant)	-9.845	1.809	29.621	.000	.000
Importance of CSR	.050	.050	.992	.319	1.051
Personal responsibility for sustainability	.369	.074	24.623	.000	1.446
Overall percentage = 76.4		-2 log likelihood = 223.059		Nagelkerke R^2 = .226	

***Significant at $p < .001$; **significant at $p < .01$; *significant at $p < .05$

In the second model, personal responsibility for sustainability was added alongside the perceived importance of CSR. Adding more variables improved the overall percentage of the model by 1,3%. The second model was able to predict correctly 76,4% of all cases. It is important to note that when personal responsibility for sustainability was added into the model, it became a highly significant predictor, whereas the importance of CSR stopped being significant ($p > .05$). Consequently, personal responsibility for sustainability appears to be a mediator between the importance of CSR and responsible purchase intentions.

Table 9 Regression of four independent variables toward responsible purchase intentions (N=237)

Variables	B	Std. Error	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
(Constant)	-5.804	2.264	6.571	.010	.003
Importance of CSR	0.53	.053	.985	.321	1.054
Personal responsibility for sustainability	.282	.080	12.423	.000	1.326
Quality	.069	.113	.380	.538	1.072
Price	-.573	.117	24.142	.000	.564
Overall percentage = 82.7		-2 log likelihood = 190.776		Nagelkerke R^2 = .419	

***Significant at $p < .001$; **significant at $p < .01$; *significant at $p < .05$

The third regression model also included price and quality as independent variables. Of the four variables, price and personal responsibility for sustainability were highly significant predictors of responsible purchase intentions, whereas quality and the perceived importance of CSR were insignificant. The third model was able to predict correctly 82,7% of all cases.

Table 10 Results and hypotheses

Hypothesis		Direction	Result
H1	Perceived importance of corporate sustainability influences responsible purchase intentions positively.	+	Supported
H2	Personal responsibility for sustainability influences responsible purchase intentions positively.	+	Supported
H3	Low product quality influences responsible purchase intentions negatively.	-	Not Supported
H4	High price influences responsible purchase intentions negatively.	-	Supported

The results indicate that when a consumer deems CSR as important, this increases the likelihood that he or she will purchase the ethical alternative. Furthermore, if the respondent considers him- or herself responsible for promoting sustainability, this increases the likelihood of choosing the responsible alternative, even more so than the perceived importance of CSR. Thus, an increase in one of these variables also increases the probability that the dependent variable will be 1. Conversely, if the consumer considers price as an important purchase criterion, this decreases the likelihood of responsible purchase. In table 6, this is indicated by the Exp. (B)-value, which is the odds ratio. Regression coefficients (B) were also added into table to make interpretation easier, although they are usually better suited for linear regression (see for example Black 1999, 680). The results, along with the hypotheses of the study, are presented in table 7.

5.3 Influence of reference groups

In addition to answering questions about the perceived importance of CSR, personal responsibility, price and quality, respondents were presented with a list of six possible reference groups. They were then asked to indicate how likely each of these groups was to influence their decisions to consume responsibly. Respondents' mean scores and standard deviations are depicted in table 7.

Table 11 Influence of reference groups and other actors

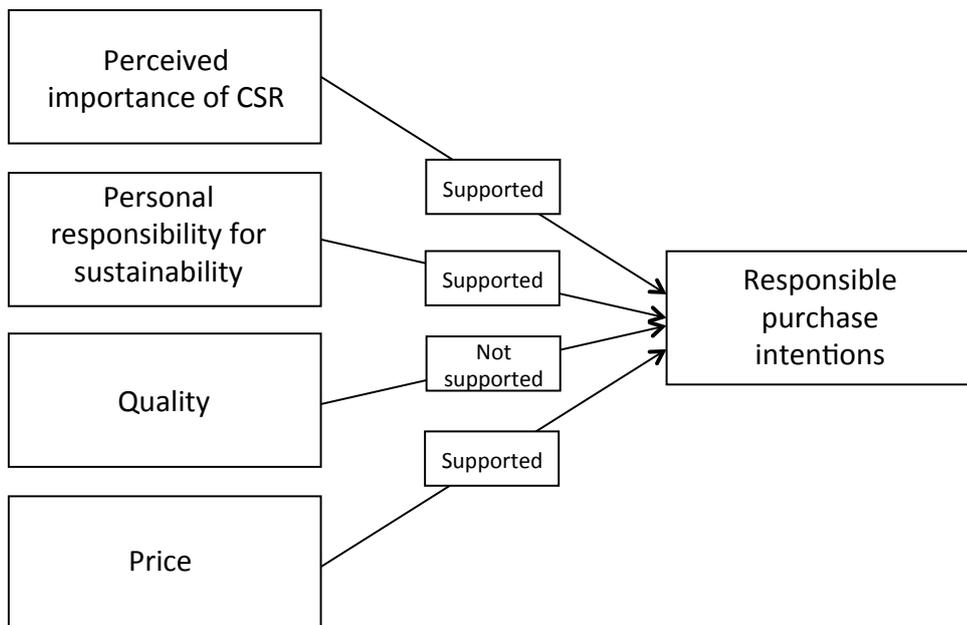
How likely would the following people/institutions influence your decision to consume responsibly?				
	Men n=94		Women n=143	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Friends	3.660	1.0427	3.678	.9007
Family	3.511	1.0650	3.671	1.0798
Media	3.043	1.0464	3.524	.7584
NGO's	2.266	1.0491	2.517	1.0336
Politicians	1.926	.9643	1.979	.8596
Companies	3.011	1.0523	3.021	.9075

Family members and friends were clearly the biggest influencers among both genders, followed by companies and media. Politicians and non-governmental organizations were two lowest-scoring reference groups with politicians being the only group to receive an aggregate score of less than 2 or “not likely”.

6 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Discussion on the findings

The findings of this study indicate that consumers' consider fair treatment of employees, enabling product longevity and recycling of resources as the most important components of corporate social responsibility. Other important components included enabling reuse of resources after consumption and minimizing pollution. These results support previous findings on the perceived importance of CSR domains. Similarly to this study, respondents in other surveys tended to highlight employee relations, environmental concerns and fair treatment of customers (Öberseder et al. 2014, 103; Greening and Turban 2000, 274). Although fair treatment of customers was not measured explicitly in this study, questions such as enabling product longevity and enabling fair and responsible product disposal can be seen as a part of it; after all, they are related to product quality and customer empowerment, with the latter encouraging consumers to responsible behavior.



*Stops being significant when personal responsibility for sustainability is introduced into the model

Figure 2 Research framework with results

The first hypothesis of the study (H_1) concerned the relationship between the perceived importance of CSR and responsible purchase intentions. The results show that the perceived importance of CSR is a strong predictor of responsible purchase intentions. This is in line with previous findings (e.g. Du et al. 2007, 237; Lichtenstein et al.

2004, 26; Sen & Bhattacharya 2001, 238; Sen et al. 2006, 164). Considering that nearly 75% of all respondents chose the “normal”, or non-responsible, alternative, it is possible that the ones who indicated they would buy the sustainable product also lead generally responsible lifestyles. Even though it is beyond the scope of this study to make a nuanced classification of consumer types, the results hint that different types, like the ones proposed by GlobeScan’s (2001, 6) and Cone Communications’ (27, 33–37) surveys, might exist among respondents. Regarding the perceived importance of CSR, all the mean scores were relatively high. None of the mean scores was less than three on a five-point scale, indicating that the majority of respondents deem CSR to be either important or very important. The fact that all respondents were in their 20’s or 30’s would seem to indicate that young people have generally positive attitudes towards CSR and that they expect companies to do business in a sustainable way. This too supports previous findings on the perceived importance of CSR (The Nielsen Company 2015, 9). Nonetheless, despite high mean scores, the majority of respondents did not choose the responsible option. This implies that the differences in the perceived importance of CSR between those who are willing to buy sustainable products and those who are not, are very subtle. It is also possible that respondents’ scores on the perceived importance of different CSR domains did not reflect their actual opinions. Some may have given answers that are more likely to be deemed as socially acceptable. The results of this study do not allow for comparisons between age groups, since the number of elder respondents was too low to hold any statistical significance. Based on the results, it can be concluded that the study is able to answer the first research question: **How does the perceived importance of CSR predict responsible purchase intentions?**

The study also investigated the effect of moral norms on responsible purchase intentions. The results show that personal responsibility for sustainability is highly significant in predicting responsible purchase intentions. Moreover, when the perceived importance of CSR and personal responsibility for sustainability are placed in the same model, perceived importance of CSR stops being significant. This suggests that personal responsibility for sustainability is actually a mediating variable between the perceived importance of CSR and responsible purchase intentions. In other words, consumers, who consider CSR important and plan to shop ethically, also see themselves as responsible for promoting sustainability and this sense of responsibility is a stronger predictor of responsible purchase intentions than the perceived importance of CSR. These findings support previous studies on the effect of personal responsibility (Bratt 1999, 650; Harland et al. 1999, 2522; Thøgersen 1999, 451; Hunecke et al. 2001, 848). Again, the mean scores for individual items were relatively high, or low for questions with reverse wording. This seems to imply that consumers are indeed aware of the impact that their behavior has on the environment and other people. However, the majority of respondents in this study still did not choose the ethical product when given the choice. In light

of the findings on the perceived importance of CSR, it is possible that despite acknowledging their own responsibility, consumers still consider companies as somehow more responsible for sustainability issues (Niva & Timonen 2001, 334). In sum, the study is able to answer research question number two: **How does personal responsibility for sustainability predict responsible purchase intentions?**

Considering that personal responsibility is almost never the only variable that influences consumers' ethical purchasing, the model used in this study also examined the effects of price and quality on purchase intentions. Especially price is known to influence consumers' choices more than perhaps any other factor related to the purchase of ethical goods (De Pelsmacker et al. 2005, 368; Hughner et al. 2007, 103; Padel & Foster 2005, 610). In this sense, the results of this study do not differ. Price had a negative effect on purchase intentions. This means that an increase in price resulted in a drop in the likelihood of purchase. What is more, the effect remained highly significant despite the introduction of other variables. It is important to note that the study was conducted among university students. Respondents may therefore be more price sensitive than those who work full time or are otherwise better off financially (Bird & Hughes 1997, 166). Furthermore, questions concerning incomes were intentionally left out of the questionnaire because they were determined to be insignificant in such a homogeneous sample. The biggest source of income for most students is the financial aid paid by the Finnish social security agency. Therefore, it is possible that the phenomenon described by Olson et al. (2016, 893), where government-sponsored welfare programs diminish responsible purchase intentions, takes place in Finland as well. However, the results of this study do not allow for such conclusions. Again, this is another theme that merits further research.

The effect of quality, on the other hand, is not so straightforward. Previous findings indicated that low product quality would have a negative relationship with responsible purchase intentions the same way price did (Boulstridge & Carrigan 2000, 355–368; Bray et al. 2011, 603). However, according to the results of this study, quality is insignificant in predicting consumers' ethical choices. It seems that consumers are willing to buy sustainable products regardless of their low quality. The tradeoff between quality and sustainability is often taken as granted in responsibility literature (Gleim & Lawson 2014, 510). Yet today there are more and more products on the market that are both sustainable and of high quality. The relationship between quality and sustainability may also depend on the product category; consumers might be willing to pay more for environmentally sustainable food products because they have been linked to improved personal wellbeing (Shaw et al. 2005, 192). On the other hand, their willingness to spend more on durable goods that may not last as long as expected might be significantly lower (Auger et al. 2003, 300). It is also possible that sustainable goods are sometimes the ones that are of higher quality and not the other way around. This study used a hypo-

thetical purchase situation to measure consumers' purchase intentions. The two products presented in the scenario were non-branded to avoid any bias. In reality, consumers often use brands as cues in order to save time and trouble and avoid disappointment (Chang & Wildt 1996, 56). This may lead to inertia that prevents them from ever trying alternative products that are more sustainable. Hence, when it comes to quality, sustainable products may suffer from their image more than they do of their actual quality. Based on the discussion above, it can be stated that the study is able to answer to research question 3: **How do price and quality predict responsible purchase intentions?**

In addition to exploring the effect of the abovementioned factors, the study also delved into the wider subject of responsible consumption and, more specifically, which actors most motivate consumers to take sustainability matters into consideration in their daily lives. Based on literature, it was proposed that reference groups that are comprised of friends and family members, as well as others who are held in high esteem by the respondents would garner the most votes (Arnould et al. 2004, 610–612). Conversely, it was theorized that consumers would consider companies' social initiatives less credible, because they are thought to have an ulterior motive (Becker-Olsen et al. 2006, 52). Likewise, politicians' business connections were seen as a liability that could possibly hinder their independent decision-making. Similarly, previous research considered media as being dependent on advertising income and hence tied to promoting a consumption-oriented lifestyle (Miller & Riechert 2013, 54). Studies had also shown that non-governmental organizations are perceived as more sincere when it comes to distributing sustainability-related information (Szykman et al. 2004, 16–17; Finch et al. 2015, 276).

As predicted, friends and family members were the top influencers among respondents. This is natural since both are contactual groups, which means that respondents come in contact with these groups on a daily basis. Therefore, adherence to norms is of vital importance in obtaining group membership or acceptance of those whose opinions matter. Non-governmental organizations received a relatively low score. Respondents ranked media as the third most credible source of sustainability-related information. Unlike in Sanne's (2002, 281–282) model of agenda setting, respondents made a clear distinction between the credibility of different actors. It seems that consumers do not think that the integrity of the media is compromised by its connections to businesses. They indicated, however, that politicians are not as trustworthy as companies. Companies were the fourth most credible source of information after the media. The fact that politicians scored the lowest points may be a sign of consumers' growing disillusionment with democracy and government officials' inability to tackle pressing sustainability-related concerns (Scherer & Palazzo 2011, 909). What is more, the disparity between the scores received by companies and politicians seems to indicate that respondents consider politics and business two different spheres, or that they are not aware of

their interconnectedness or simply choose to ignore it. Previous results suggested that NGO's would have ranked before companies (Szykman et al. 2004, 16–17). However, as Finch et al. (2015, 276) point out, individuals supporting sustainable values are often the ones who perceive NGO's as more credible than other sources. It is therefore possible that these values are not prevalent in the sample population. For this reason, some of the respondents may not be willing to compromise their lifestyles over ethical issues and may have adopted a skeptical attitude towards NGO's that criticize today's consumption oriented society (Bertilsson 2015, 461–462).

6.2 Managerial implications

This study has shown that companies that have a clean CSR record are likely to be able to leverage their reputation in the marketing of ethical goods. Responsible products, however, are still plagued by their image of being too expensive. Companies do not therefore consider them as a viable product segment. Despite all the attention, CSR reporting still suffers from similar problems. Consumers express interest in corporate responsibility and demand that companies behave ethically, but are unwilling to adapt their own lifestyles to become more sustainable.

Previous studies had demonstrated that consumers prefer to be informed on CSR matters through so called minimal-release channels, such as annual reports or sustainability reports. Many companies have undoubtedly accepted this as a fact and have adopted a passive approach to informing consumers about their CSR initiatives. Others have chosen to educate consumers through cause marketing campaigns, which are often considerably narrower in scope than holistic CSR programs. Some studies also indicated that non-business actors, such as NGO's are generally perceived as more credible than companies when it comes to distributing sustainability related information.

According to the results of this study, some consumers actually consider companies as more influential than NGO's or politicians. This would suggest that a more proactive promotion of CSR matters could appeal to consumers' sense of personal responsibility, which could then result in increased willingness to pay a higher premium for ethically sound products. On the other hand, companies are in the middle of a network comprised of suppliers, retailers and consumers. This position, combined with the fact that consumers consider them a reliable source of information, makes them ideal ambassadors for sustainable development. For example, multinational consumer goods companies could use their bargaining power to advocate for safer working conditions and environmental protection. In addition to informing consumers about what they are doing, they could also educate consumers on proper disposal of products and their carbon footprint.

Disseminating this kind of information would further encourage consumers to improve their own sustainability.

6.3 Limitations and future research

As all empirical research, this study has its own limitations. First of all, the study was conducted employing a quasi-experimental approach, which means that all possible variables were not accounted for (see for example Bryman & Bell 2011, 50–52). In other words, the results of this study may have been influenced by the presence of some extraneous variable. For instance, lack of information on the potential benefits of ethical purchasing may have influenced respondents' choices in the hypothetical purchase scenario (Shaw & Clarke 1999, 113). What is more, purchase intentions do not necessarily translate into actual behavior. This has been acknowledged as especially problematic for the study of the attitude-behavior gap. It should also be taken into consideration that CSR and consumer responsibility are hard to measure due to the wide variety of related concepts. Different research methods may result in inconsistencies between studies that have explored the same issues.

As for the differences that exist between this and previous studies on consumers' purchase intentions, some may be attributed to research design. It is possible that respondents' attitudes towards ethical purchasing differ depending on product category. For instance, Luchs et al. (2015, 1452) presented respondents with a choice of alternative home appliances, one of which was more responsible than the other. This study, on the other hand, used clothing to illustrate the many facets of ethical decision-making. The fact that this study found product quality to be a non-significant predictor of responsible purchase intentions might indicate that consumers consider quality as a more important attribute in a functional product, such as home electronics. Moreover, some ethical products may in fact be of higher quality than their ordinary counterparts.

Another limitation is related to the sample of this study. As stated previously, using student samples is a rather common practice in academic research. However, as this study examined the effect of price on ethical purchase intentions, the sample may have influenced the results. Seeing that students are part of the lower income group, they might weigh price and quality in a different way than other consumers do. Furthermore, since the sample is comprised of business students, it is possible that different results would have been obtained, had the study been conducted using a sample based on students from other faculties.

It should also be noted that the variables included in this study represent only some of the factors that might cause the attitude-behavior gap to exist. There are various other factors that influence consumer responsibility. While some of these factors have been

briefly mentioned in this study, there are many more, some of which have not yet been studied in the context of sustainable consumption. The many research streams of consumer responsibility and their constant evolution serve as a reminder of this. Nevertheless, as previous studies indicate, price and moral imperatives are significant predictors of ethical purchase intentions. In this sense, the findings of this study support existing theory and contribute to it by validating the effects of these variables.

This study has covered only some of the factors that cause the attitude-behavior gap, leaving open many possible avenues for future research. One possible direction could be to examine how other variables influence the relationship between the importance of CSR and responsible purchase intentions. Considering that other studies have demonstrated that relevant information, or the lack of it, can influence consumers' purchase intentions, and that this study measured the influence of various information sources, future research could include the level of CSR awareness as one of the moderating variables. It should also be noted that the media consists of multiple channels and that individuals often use many of these channels simultaneously. Hence, future research could study the differences between different communication outlets regarding their influence on sustainable consumption.

Furthermore, since this study was conducted among business students, replicating it with different sample groups is necessary to assert that the results are actually representative of this demographic group. Although the mean age of this study's sample was relatively low, some of the respondents were significantly above the average age. Their percentage of all respondents, however, was too low to allow for comparisons between age groups. It would be interesting to conduct a longitudinal survey on the same respondents to see whether their attitudes towards CSR or their purchase intentions change as they become older.

7 SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to examine which factors most influence consumers' responsible purchase intentions. To achieve this, various definitions of CSR and other related concepts were first compared to get a better understanding of what corporate social responsibility is and what it is not. The study then moved on to discuss different ways of measuring CSR outcomes. After this, the definition of consumer responsibility was examined along with some of the factors that might encourage or hinder sustainable purchase intentions. Based on theoretical findings, a research model was constructed to test the relationship between CSR and these intentions. Having covered both consumer and corporate social responsibility, the study also explored how different reference groups and other actors influence individuals' decisions to consume responsibly.

In the context of this study, corporate social responsibility was defined as firms' obligation to take into account various social, environmental, voluntary and stakeholder concerns in their decision-making processes and everyday operations. As other researchers have stated before, the fact that there are a variety of other concepts similar to CSR sometimes creates confusion. For this reason, some of the more closely related terms were compared with each other and corporate social responsibility. Instead of being exclusive, these concepts should be considered different sides of the same issue. Based on existing literature, it was concluded that the most commonly used measures of CSR outcomes were related to employee relations, environmental sustainability and fair treatment of customers.

A literature review revealed that consumers differ greatly in their interest in CSR. Although more and more consumers pay attention to corporate responsibility, the majority still does not actively seek information on these matters. Instead, most consumers prefer to stay informed through so-called "minimal release" channels that do not require any significant effort on their part. This shows in shopping too; situational factors often come between positive purchase intentions and actual behavior.

Acknowledging that consumers' purchase intentions are probably influenced by a variety of factors, and that all of these factors cannot be studied at once, this study focused on the relationship between responsible purchase intentions, the perceived importance of CSR, moral norms and price and quality. The study employed a research model where the importance of CSR was presumed to have a positive effect on responsible purchase intentions. Likewise, moral imperatives were expected to influence shopping intentions positively, whereas high price and low quality of ethical goods were presumed to have an adverse effect on consumers' plans to buy socially responsible products. In addition to exploring how different variables influence responsible purchase intentions, the study also focused on which actors are the most influential in making consumers more sensible to sustainability-related issues.

The empirical part of this study consisted of a survey that was conducted among Finnish business students. All the measures used in the study were chosen on the basis that they had been used in previous research. This was done to ensure that the acquired results would be as reliable as possible. Furthermore, three different assessments of validity were performed to make sure that the concepts used in the study corresponded with the actual phenomena being measured. Based on the aforementioned tests it was concluded that the results were indeed accurate and gave a reliable picture of the subject matter.

The results indicate that the perceived importance of corporate social responsibility corresponds to ethical purchase intentions. In other words, consumers who consider various CSR issues as important are more likely to choose the ethical alternative when shopping. However, when moral norms are accounted for in the form of consumers' personal responsibility for sustainability, the aforementioned relationship disappears. This seems to indicate that consumers, who feel a personal responsibility to promote sustainability, consider CSR as important and are also willing to shop according to their beliefs. As for other variables, the results show that price has a negative effect on responsible purchase intentions. Based on the results of this study, it can be said that although consumers express positive attitudes towards corporate social responsibility, the high price of ethical goods acts as a deterrent against responsible shopping. Unlike in the previous studies, low product quality did not affect purchase intentions. That being said, the effect of quality may be dependent on the product in question.

The study also examined the influence that various reference groups have on consumer behavior. The respondents were presented with six different groups and asked how likely each of these was to influence their decisions to consume responsibly. According to the results, family members and friends were the most credible sources of information. Companies and the media were the second most important influencers. Compared to other actors, respondents did not consider non-governmental organizations as especially credible. Politicians did even worse; they were the most unreliable group of the six. The influence of friends and family members was to be expected in light of previous research. The credibility of companies, on the other hand, came as a surprise especially when compared to the low scores received by politicians and NGO's.

In conclusion, this study has proven that consumers' interest in corporate social responsibility leads to positive purchase intentions. As other studies have noted before, the high price of ethical products negates the positive effects of CSR reputation. On the other hand, consumers do not seem to care if ethical goods are of lower quality or not. Furthermore, personal responsibility for sustainability is a strong predictor of responsible purchase intentions, even more so than the perceived importance of CSR. As some of the previous studies have noted before, lack of information may be a significant factor in explaining consumers' reluctance to pay a higher price for ethical goods. In this

light, it is possible that at least some would be willing to spend more on responsible products if they knew about the positive effects their consumption choices can have. Informing consumers on the possibilities of responsible consumption might also evoke feelings of personal responsibility, which could then lead to more sustainable consumption behavior. This, together with the fact that consumers consider companies a credible source of sustainability-related information, implies that companies could actually do a great deal more to promote sustainability matters than they are doing today. Acting together with suppliers and other partners, they could participate in making consumers more responsible and thus strive for a greater change in sustainable living and consumption. CSR and consumer responsibility are not two separate issues, but rather two ways of achieving the same goal. Adopting a more holistic approach to sustainable consumption is the only way to achieve lasting results that are both profitable and within the carrying capacity of our planet.

REFERENCES

- Aguinis, H. – Glavas, A. (2012) What we know and don't know about corporate social responsibility: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, Vol. 38 (4), 932–968.
- Ajzen, I. (1988) *Attitudes, personality & behavior*. Open University Press, Maidenhead.
- Antonetti, P. – Maklan, S. (2014) Exploring postconsumption guilt and pride in the context of sustainability. *Psychology & Marketing*, Vol. 31 (9), 717–735.
- Antonetti, P. – Maklan, S. (2015) How categorisation shapes the attitude-behaviour gap in responsible consumption. *International Journal of Market Research*, Vol. 57 (1), 51–72.
- Arnould, E. – Price, L. – Zinkahn, G. (2004) *Consumers*. McGraw-Hill, New York.
- Auger, P. – Burke, P. – Devinney, T. M. – Louviere, J. J. (2003) What will consumers pay for social product features? *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 42 (3), 281–304.
- August 8th is Earth Overshoot Day this year. Global Footprint Network. <www.overshootday.org/newsroom/press-release-english/>, retrieved 20 November 2016.
- Aupperle, K. E. – Carroll, A. B. – Hatfield, J. D. (1985). An empirical examination of the relationship between corporate social responsibility and profitability. *Academy of Management Journal*, 28(2), 446–463.
- Bamberg, S. – Möser, G. (2007). Twenty years after Hines, Hungerford, and Tomera: A new meta-analysis of psychosocial determinants of pro-environmental behaviour. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, Vol. 27 (1), 14–25.
- Bamberg, S. (2003) How does environmental concern influence specific environmentally related behaviors? A new answer to an old question. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, Vol. 23 (1), 21–32.
- Bamberg, S. – Schmidt, P. (2003) Incentives, morality, or habit? Predicting students' car use for university routes with the models of Ajzen, Schwartz, and Triandis. *Environment and Behavior*, Vol. 35 (2), 264–285.
- Bansal, P. (2002) The corporate challenges of sustainable development. *The Academy of Management Executive*, Vol. 16 (2), 122–131.
- Barkemeyer, R. – Holt, D. – Preuss, L. – Tsang, S. (2014) What happened to the 'development' in sustainable development? Business guidelines two decades after Brundtland. *Sustainable Development*, Vol. 22 (1), 15–32.
- Barnea, A. – Rubin, A. (2010) Corporate social responsibility as a conflict between shareholders. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 97 (1), 71–86.

- Baucus, M. S. – Baucus, D. A. (1997) Paying the piper: An empirical examination of longer-Term financial consequences of illegal corporate behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 40 (1), 129–151.
- Bhattacharya, C. B. – Sen, S. – Korschun, D. (2008). Using corporate social responsibility to win the war for talent. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, Vol. 49 (2), 37–44.
- Becker-Olsen, K. L. – Cudmore, B. A. – Hill, R. P. (2006) The impact of perceived corporate social responsibility on consumer behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 59 (1), 46–53.
- Belk, R. – Devinney, T. M. – Eckhardt, G. (2005) Consumer ethics across cultures. *Consumption, Markets and Culture*, Vol. 8 (3), 275–289.
- Berens, G. – Riel, C. B. M. – Rekom, J. (2007) The CSR-quality trade-off: When can corporate social responsibility and corporate ability compensate each other? *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 74 (3), 233–252.
- Bertilsson, J. (2015) The cynicism of consumer morality. *Consumption Markets and Culture*, Vol. 18 (5), 447–467.
- Bird, K. – Hughes, D. R. (1997) Ethical consumerism: The case of “fairly-traded” coffee. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, Vol. 6 (3), 159–167.
- Black, T. R. (1999) *Doing qualitative research in the social sciences: an integrated approach to research design, measurement and statistics*. SAGE Publications, London.
- Boulstridge, E. – Carrigan, M. (2000) Do consumers really care about corporate responsibility? Highlighting the attitude-behaviour gap. *Journal of Communication Management*, Vol. 4 (4), 355–368.
- Bowen, H. R. (1953) *Social responsibilities of the businessman*. Harper and Row, New York.
- Brace, I. (2013) *Questionnaire design: How to plan, structure and write survey material for effective market research*. Kogan Page Limited, London.
- Bragdon, J. H. – J. A. Marlin (1972) Is pollution profitable? *Risk Management*, Vol. 19, 9–18.
- Brammer, S. – Millington, A. (2008) Does it pay to be different? An analysis of the relationship between corporate social and financial performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 29 (12), 1325–1343.
- Bratt, C. (1999) The impact of norms and assumed consequences on recycling behaviour. *Environment & Behavior*, Vol. 31 (5), 630–656.
- Bray, J., Johns, N., & Kilburn, D. (2011). An exploratory study into the factors impeding ethical consumption. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 98 (4), 597–608.

- Brown, T. J. – Dacin, P. A. (1997) The company and the product: Corporate associations and consumer product responses. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 61 (1), 68–84.
- Bryman, A. (2004) *Social Research Methods*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Bryman, A. – Bell, E. (2011) *Business Research Methods*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Business and the Paris agreement. CDP. <www.cdp.net/Documents/policy/corporate-support-global-agreement-on-climate-change.pdf>, retrieved 27 July 2016.
- Cargan, L. (2007) *Doing Social Research*. Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Lanham.
- Carrigan, M. – Attalla, A. (2001) The myth of the ethical consumer – Do ethics matter in purchase behaviour? *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 18 (7), 560–578.
- Carrigan, M. – Szmigin, I. – Wright, J. (2004). Shopping for a better world? An interpretive study of the potential for ethical consumption within the older market. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 21 (6), 401–417.
- Carroll, A. B. (1979) A three-dimensional conceptual model of corporate performance. *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 4 (4), 497–505.
- Carroll, A. B. (1993) *Business & society: Ethics & stakeholder management*. South-Western College, Cincinnati.
- Carroll, A. B. (1991) The pyramid of corporate social responsibility: Toward the moral management of organizational stakeholders. *Business Horizons*, Vol. 34 (4), 39–48.
- Carroll, A. B. (1999) Corporate social responsibility: Evolution of a definitional construct. *Business & Society*, Vol. 38 (3), 268–295.
- Carroll, A. B. (2000) A commentary and an overview of key questions on corporate social performance measurement. *Business & Society*, Vol. 39 (4), 466–478.
- Caruana, R. – Carrington, M. J. – Chatzidakis, A. (2016) “Beyond the attitude-behaviour gap: Novel perspectives in consumer ethics”: Introduction to the thematic symposium. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 136 (2), 215–218.
- Caruana, R. – Crane, A. (2008) Constructing consumer responsibility: Exploring the role of corporate communications. *Organization Studies*, Vol. 29 (12), 1495–1519.
- Chang, T. – Wildt, A. R. (1996) Impact of product information on the use of price as quality cue. *Psychology & Marketing*, Vol. 13 (1), 55–75.
- Chatzidakis, A. – Hibbert, S. – Smith, A. P. (2007) Why people don't take their concerns about fair trade to the supermarket: The role of neutralisation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 74 (1), 89–100.

- Cochran, P. L. – Wood, R. A. (1984) Corporate social responsibility and financial performance. *The Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 27 (1), 42–56.
- Corporate social responsibility monitor 2001: Global public opinion on the changing role of companies. GlobeScan. <http://www.globescan.com/news_archives/csr01%20promo%20exec.pdf>, retrieved 8 February 2016.
- Cowen, S. S. – Ferreri, L. B. – Parker, L. D. (1987) The impact of corporate characteristics on social responsibility disclosure: A typology and frequency-based analysis. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, Vol. 12 (2), 111–122.
- Dahlsrud, A. (2008) How corporate social responsibility is defined: An analysis of 37 definitions. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, Vol. 15 (1), 1–13.
- David, M. – Sutton, C. D. (2004) *Social research: The basics*. SAGE Publications, London.
- Davies, I. A. – Lee, Z. – Ahonkai, I. (2012) Do consumers care about ethical-luxury? *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 106 (1), 37–51.
- Davis, K. (1960) Can business afford to ignore social responsibilities? *California Management Review*, Vol. 2 (3), 70–76.
- Davis, K. (1973) The case for and against business assumption of social responsibilities. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 16 (2), 312–322.
- Dawkins, J. (2005), Corporate responsibility: The communication challenge. *Journal of Communication Management*, Vol. 9 (2), 108–119.
- De George, R. T. (1987) The status of business ethics: Past and future. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 6 (3), 201–211.
- De Pelsmacker, P. – Driesen, L. – Rayp, G. (2005) Do consumers care about ethics? Willingness to pay for fair-trade coffee. *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*, Vol. 39 (2), 363–385.
- De Pelsmacker, P. – Janssens, W. (2007) A model for fair trade buying behaviour: The role of perceived quantity and quality of information and of product-specific attitudes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 75 (4), 361–380.
- Devinney, T. M. – Auger, P. – Eckhardt, G. – Birtchnell, T. (2006) The other CSR. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*, Vol. 4 (3), 30–37.
- Donaldson, T. – Preston, L. E. (1995) The stakeholder theory of the corporation: Concepts, evidence, and implications. *The Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 20 (1), 65–91.
- Doyle, T. (1998) Sustainable development and agenda 21: The secular bible of global free markets and pluralist democracy. *Third World Quarterly*, Vol. 19 (4), 771–786.

- Downing, P. – Ballantyne, J. (2007). Tipping point or turning point? Ipsos MORI. <http://www.ipsos-mori.com/_assets/reports/turning-point-or-tipping-point.pdf>, retrieved 28 July 2016.
- 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*, Vol. 24 (3), 224–241.
- Du, S – Bhattacharya, C. B. – Sen, S. (2010) Maximizing business returns to corporate social responsibility (CSR): The role of CSR communication. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, Vol. 12 (1), 8–19.
- Dyllick, T. – Muff, K. (2016) Clarifying the meaning of sustainable business: Introducing a typology from business-as-usual to true business sustainability. *Organization & Environment*, Vol. 29 (2), 156–174.
- Eckhardt, G. – Belk, R. W. – Devinney, T. M. (2010). Why don't consumers consume ethically? *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, Vol. 9 (6), 426–436.
- Enderle, G. (2010) Clarifying the terms of business ethics and CSR. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, Vol. 20 (4), 730–732.
- Erdem, T. – Swait, J. (1998) Brand equity as a signaling phenomenon. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 7 (2), 131–157.
- Falkenberg, J. – Brunsæl, P. (2011) Corporate social responsibility: A strategic advantage or a strategic necessity? *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 99 (1), 9–16.
- Fassin, Y. – Van Rossem, A. – Buelens, M. (2011) Small-business owner-managers' perceptions of business ethics and CSR-related concepts. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 98 (3), 425–453.
- Fiedler, L. – Kirchgeorg, M. (2007) The role concept in corporate branding and stakeholder management reconsidered: Are stakeholder groups really different? *Corporate Reputation Review*, Vol. 10 (3), 177–188.
- Finch, D. – Deephouse, D. L.- Varella, P. (2015) Examining an individual's legitimacy judgement using the value-attitude system: The role of environmental and economic values and source credibility. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 127 (2), 265–281.
- Fink, A. (2003) *How to manage, analyze and interpret survey data*. SAGE Publications, Thousand Oaks.
- Fleishman, J. A. (1980) Collective action as helping behavior: Effects of responsibility diffusion on contributions to a public good. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 38 (4), 629–637.
- Freeman, R. E. (1984) *Strategic management: A stakeholder approach*. Pitman, Boston.
- Freestone, O. M. – McGoldrick, P. J. (2008) Motivations of the ethical consumer. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 79 (4), 445–467.

- Friedman, M. (2007) The social responsibility of business is to increase its profits. In: *Corporate ethics and corporate governance*, eds. Zimmerli, W. C. – Holzinger, M. – K. Richter, 173-178, Springer, Berlin.
- Gabriel, Y. – Lang, T. (1995) *The unmanageable consumer*. SAGE Publications, London.
- Garcia de los Salmones, M. – Herrero Crespo, A. – Rodriguez del Bosque, I. (2005) Influence of corporate social responsibility on loyalty and valuation of services. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 61 (4), 369–385.
- Garriga, E. – Melé, D. (2004) Corporate social responsibility theories: Mapping the territory. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 53 (1–2), 51–71.
- Glavas, A. – Kelley, K. (2014) The effects of perceived corporate social responsibility on employee attitudes. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, Vol. 24, (2), 165–202.
- Gleim, M. – Lawson, S. J. (2014) Spanning the gap: An examination of the factors leading to the green gap. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 31 (6–7), 503–514.
- Global companies sign White House pledge on climate change action. Financial Times. <<https://www.ft.com/content/ed2c2682-763a-11e5-933d-efcdc3c11c89>>, retrieved 20 November 2016.
- Goldsmith, E. B. – Goldsmith, R. E. (2011) Social influence and sustainability in households. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, Vol. 35 (), 117–121.
- Google's latest renewable energy investment is its biggest ever. Fortune. <fortune.com/2015/12/03/google-renewable-energy/>, retrieved 20 November 2016.
- Grahn, J. L. – Hannaford, W. J. – Laverty, K. J. (1987) Corporate philanthropy and marketing strategy: A review and directions for research. In: *AMA Educators' Proceedings, Series 53*, eds. Solomon M. R. – S. P. Douglas, 67-69.
- Gray, R. – Kouhy, R. – Lavers, S. (1995) Corporate social and environmental reporting: A review of the literature and a longitudinal study of UK disclosure. *Accounting, Auditing and Accountability Journal*, Vol. 8 (2), 47–77.
- Greening, D. W. – Turban, D. B. (2000) Corporate social performance as a competitive advantage in attracting a quality workforce. *Business and Society*, Vol. 39 (3), 254–280.
- Green paper: Promoting a European framework for corporate social responsibility* (2001) Commission of the European Communities, Brussels.
- Hair, J. F. – Black, W. C. – Babin, B. J. – Anderson, R. E. (2010) *Multivariate data analysis: a global perspective*. Pearson, Upper Saddle River.
- Hair, J. F. – Samouel, P. – Page, M. J. – Celsi, M – Money, A. H. (2016) *Essentials of business research methods*. Routledge, New York.

- Harland, P. – Wilke, H. – Staats, H. (1999) Explaining proenvironmental intention and behavior by personal norms and the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, Vol. 29 (12), 2505–2528.
- Harrison, R. – Newholm, T. – Shaw, D. (2005) In: *The ethical consumer*, eds. Harrison, R. – Newholm, T. – D. Shaw, 1–10, SAGE Publications, London.
- Hillenbrand, C. – Money, K. (2007) Corporate responsibility and corporate reputation: Two separate concepts or two sides of the same coin? *Corporate Reputation Review*, Vol. 10 (4), 261–277.
- Hopwood, B. – Mellor, M. – O’Brien, G. (2002) Sustainable development: Mapping different approaches. *Sustainable Development*, Vol. 13 (1), 38–52.
- Hughner, R. – McDonagh, P. – Prothero, A. – Shultz, C. J. – Staton, J. (2007). Who are organic food consumers? A compilation and review of why people purchase organic food. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, Vol. 6 (2–3), 94–110.
- Hunecke, M. – Blöbaum, A. – Matthies, E. – Höger, R. (2001) Responsibility and environment: Ecological norm orientation and external factors in the domain of travel mode choice behavior. *Environment and Behavior*, Vol. 33 (6), 830–852.
- Ingenbleek, P. T. M. – Meulenbergh, M. T. G. – Van Trijp, H. C. M. (2015) Buyer social responsibility: A general concept and its implications for marketing management. *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 31 (13–14), 1428–1448.
- Ingram, R. – Frazier, K. (1980) Environmental performance and corporate disclosure. *Journal of Accounting Research*, Vol. 18 (2), 614–622.
- Johnson, H. L. (1971) *Business in contemporary society: Framework and issues*. Wadsworth, Belmont.
- Joyner, B. E. – Payne, D. (2002) Evolution and implementation: A study of values, business ethics and corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 41 (4), 297–311.
- Kallgren, C. A. – Reno, R. R. – Cialdini, R. B. (2000) A focus theory of normative conduct: When norms do and do not affect behavior. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, Vol. 26 (8), 1002–1012.
- Koçak, A. – Abimbola, T. – Özer, A. (2007) Consumer brand equity in a cross-cultural replication: An evaluation of a scale. *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 23 (1–2), 157–173.
- Kozinets, R. V. – Handelman, J. M. (2004) Adversaries of consumption: Consumer movements, activism, and ideology. *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 31 (3), 691–704.

- KPMG survey of corporate social responsibility 2013. KPMG International. <<https://www.kpmg.com/Global/en/IssuesAndInsights/ArticlesPublication/corporate-responsibility/Documents/corporate-responsibility-reporting-survey-2013-exec-summary.pdf>>, retrieved 28 July 2016.
- Lichtenstein, D. R. – Drumwright, M. E. – Braig, B. M. (2004) The effect of corporate social responsibility on customer donations to corporate-supported non-profits. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 68 (4), 16–33.
- Lin, C. – Yang, H. – Liou, D. (2009) The impact of corporate social responsibility on financial performance: Evidence from business in Taiwan. *Technology in Society*, Vol. 31 (1), 56–63.
- Lindgreen, A. – Swaen, V. (2010) Corporate social responsibility. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, Vol. 12 (1), 1–7.
- Linton, A. (2005) Partnering for sustainability: Business-NGO alliances in the coffee industry. *Development in Practice*, Vol. 15 (3), 600–614.
- Littrell, M. A. – Dickson, M. A. (1999) *Social responsibility in the global market: Fair trade of cultural products*. SAGE Publications, Thousand Oaks.
- Long, J. S. (1997) *Regression models for categorical and limited dependent variables*. SAGE Publications, Thousand Oaks.
- Luchs, M. – Phipps, M. – Hill, T. (2015) Exploring consumer responsibility for sustainable consumption. *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 31 (13/14), 1449–1471.
- Magnusson, P. – Westjohn, S. A. – Zdravkovic, S. (2011) “What? I thought Samsung was Japanese”: Accurate or not, perceived country of origin matters. *International Marketing Review*, Vol. 28 (5), 454–472.
- Mahoney, L. S. – Thorne, L. (2005) Corporate social responsibility and long-term compensation: Evidence from Canada. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 57 (3), 241–253.
- Mason, T. (2000) The importance of being ethical. *Marketing*, 26 October 2000, 27.
- Matten, D. – Crane, A. (2005) Corporate citizenship: Toward an extended theoretical conceptualization. *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 30 (1), 166–179.
- Maignan, I. – Ferrell, O. C. (2000). Measuring corporate citizenship in two countries: The case of the United States and France. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 23 (3), 283–297.
- McDonagh, P. (1998) Towards a theory of sustainable communication in risk society: Relating issues of sustainability to marketing communications. *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 14 (6), 591–622.
- McGuire, J. W. (1963) *Business and society*. McGraw-Hill, New York.

- McWilliams, A. – Siegel, D. (2001) Corporate social responsibility: A theory of the firm perspective. *The Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 26 (1), 117–127.
- Megicks, P. – Memery, J. – Williams, J. (2008). Influences on ethical and socially responsible shopping: Evidence from the UK grocery sector. *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 24 (5–6), 637–659.
- Miller, M. M. – Riechert, B. P. (2013) Interest group strategies and journalistic norms: News media framing of environmental issues. In: *Environmental risks and the media*, eds. Adam, B. – Allan, S. – C. Carter, 45–54, Routledge, New York.
- Mitchell, A. (1997) The power of ethical branding. *Marketing Week*, Vol. 20 (8), 26–27.
- Mitchell, R. K. – Agle, B. R. – Wood, D. J. (1997). Toward a theory of stakeholder identification and salience: Defining the principle of who and what really counts. *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 22 (4), 853–886.
- Moir, L. (2001) What do we mean by corporate social responsibility? *Corporate Governance: The international journal of business in society*, Vol. 1 (2), 16–22.
- Morsing, M. – Schultz, M. (2006) Corporate social responsibility communication: Stakeholder information, response and involvement strategies. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, Vol. 15 (4), 323–338.
- Moschis, G. P. (2000) *Maturing marketplace: Buying habits of baby boomers and their parents*. Greenwood Publishing Group, Westwood.
- Nelson-Horchler, J. (1984) Fighting a boycott: Image rebuilding, *Industry Week*, Vol. 220 (54), 54–56.
- Niva, M. – Timonen, P. (2001) The role of consumers in product-oriented environmental policy: Can the consumer be the driving force for environmental improvements? *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, Vol. 25 (4), 331–338.
- Nolan, J. M. – Schultz, W. P. – Cialdini, R. B. – Goldstein, R. J. – Giskevicius, V. (2008) Normative social influence is underdetected. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, Vol. 34 (7), 913–923.
- Nordlund, A. – Garvill, J. (2003) Effects of values, problem awareness, and personal norm on willingness to reduce personal car use. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, Vol. 23 (4), 339–347.
- Olson, J. C. (1977) Price as an informational cue: Effects in brand evaluation. In: *Consumer and industrial buying behaviour*, eds. Woodside, A. G. – Sheth, J. N. – P. D. Bennett, 267–286. North Holland Publishing Company, New York.

- Olson, J. G. – McFerran, B. – Morales, A. C. – Dahl, D. W. (2016) Wealth and welfare: Divergent moral reactions to ethical consumer choices. *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 42 (6), 879–896.
- Our common future* (1987) World Commission on Environment and Development. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Padel, S. – Foster, C. (2005) Exploring the gap between attitudes and behaviour: Understanding why consumers buy or do not buy organic food. *British Food Journal*, Vol. 107 (8), 606–625.
- Pampel, F. C. (2000) *Logistic regression: a primer*. SAGE Publications, Thousand Oaks.
- Past. Present. Future. 25th anniversary of cause marketing. Cone Communications. <<http://www.conecomm.com/past-present-future-the-25th-anniversary-of-cause-marketing>>, retrieved 8 February 2016.
- Peattie, K. (2010) Green consumption: Behavior and norms. *Annual Review of Environment and Resources*, Vol. 35 (1), 195–228.
- Peloza, J. (2009) The challenge of measuring financial impacts from investments in corporate social performance. *Journal of Management*, Vol. 35 (6), 1518–1541.
- Perez, A. – Rodriguez del Bosque, I. (2013) Customer personal features as determinants of the formation process of corporate social responsibility perceptions. *Psychology & Marketing*, Vol. 30 (10), 903–917.
- Peter, J. P. – Olson, J. C. (1987) *Consumer behaviour: Marketing strategy perspectives*. Irwin, Homewood.
- Phipps, M. – Ozanne, L. K. – Luchs, M. G. – Subrahmanyam, S. – Kapitan, S. – Catlin, J. R. – Gau, R. – Walker Naylor, R. – Randall, R. L. – Simpson, B. – Weaver, T. (2013) Understanding the inherent complexity of sustainable consumption: A social cognitive framework. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 66 (8), 1227–1234.
- Pinkston, T. – Carroll, A. B. (1996) A retrospective examination of CSR orientations: Have they changed? *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 15 (2), 199–206.
- Pomering, A. – Dolnicar, S. (2009) Assessing the prerequisite of successful CSR implementation: Are consumers aware of CSR initiatives? *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 85 (2), 285–301.
- Prothero, A. – Dobscha, S. – Freund, J. – Kilbourne, W. E. – Luchs, M. G. – Ozanne, L. K. – Thøgersen, J. (2011) Sustainable consumption: Opportunities for consumer research and public policy. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, 30 (1), 31–38.
- Record support for advancing Paris climate agreement entry into force. United Nations. <<http://newsroom.unfccc.int/paris-agreement/closing-paris-agreement-signing-press-release/#related>>, retrieved 28 June 2016.

- Reed, M. (1999) Wide open to the web warriors. *Marketing* 4 February 1999, 18–20.
- Rethinking consumption: Consumers and the future of sustainability. BBMG, GlobeScan & SustainAbility. <www.globescan.com/component/edocman-/?task=document.viewdoc&id=51&Itemid=0>, retrieved 28 July 2016.
- Robinson, S. R. – Irmak, C. – Jayachandran, S. (2012), Choice of cause in cause-related marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 76 (4), 126–139.
- Ruf, B. M. – Muralidhar, K. – Paul, K. (1998) The development of a systematic, aggregate measure of corporate social performance. *Journal of Management*, Vol. 24 (1), 119–133.
- Russo, A. – Perrini, F. (2010) Investigating stakeholder theory and social capital: CSR in large firms and SMEs. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 91 (2), 207–221.
- Sanne, C. (2002) Willing consumers – or locked-in? Policies for a sustainable consumption. *Ecological Economics*, Vol. 42 (1–2), 273–287.
- Scherer, A. G. – Palazzo, G. (2007) Toward a political conception of corporate responsibility: Business and society seen from a Habermasian perspective. *The Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 32 (4), 1096–1120.
- Scherer, A. G. – Palazzo, G. (2011) The new political role of business in a globalized world: A review of a new perspective on CSR and its implications for the firm, governance and democracy. *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 48 (4), 899–931.
- Schiffman, L. G. – Kanuk, L. L. (1997) *Consumer behavior*. Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River.
- Schultz, P. W. (1999) Changing behaviour with normative feedback interventions: A field experiment on curbside recycling. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, Vol. 21 (1), 25–36.
- Schutte, N. – Toppinen, S. – Kalimo, R. – Schaufeli, W. (2000) The factorial validity of the Maslach Burnout Inventory–General Survey (MBI–GS) across occupational groups and nations. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 73 (1), 53–66.
- Schwartz, M. S. – Carroll, A. B. (2003) Corporate social responsibility: A three-domain approach. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, Vol. 13 (4), 503–530.
- Schwartz, M. S. – Carroll, A. B. (2008) Integrating and unifying competing and complementary frameworks: The search for a common core in the business and society field. *Business & Society*, Vol. 47 (2), 148–186.
- Schwartz, S. H. (1973) Normative explanations of helping behavior: A critique, proposal, and empirical test. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, Vol. 9 (4), 349–364.

- Schwartz, S. H. (1977) Normative influences on altruism. In: *Advances in experimental social psychology*. Vol. 10, eds. L. Berkowitz, 221–279, Academic Press, New York.
- Scott, M. B. – Lyman, S. M. (1968) Accounts. *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 33 (1), 46–62.
- Sen, S. – Bhattacharya, C. B. (2001) Does doing good always lead to doing better? Consumer reactions to corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 38 (2), 225–243.
- Sen, S. – Bhattacharya, C. B. – Korschun, D. (2006). The role of corporate social responsibility in strengthening multiple stakeholder relationships. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 34 (2), 158–166.
- Sender, K. (2005) *Business, not politics: The making of the gay market*. Columbia University Press, New York.
- Sense & sustainability study: Perspectives on corporate sustainability among U.S. adults. Gibbs & Soell. <<http://www.gscommunications.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/06/1-1-2014-gibbs-soell-sense-sustainability-study-31.pdf>>, retrieved 28 July 2016.
- Sethi, S. P. (1975) Dimensions of corporate social performance: An analytic framework. *California Management Review*, Vol. 17 (3), 58–64.
- Shamir, R. (2008) The age of responsabilization: On market-embedded morality. *Economy and Society*, Vol. 37 (1), 1–19.
- Shaw, D. – Clarke, I. (1999) Belief formation in ethical consumer groups: an exploratory study. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, Vol. 17 (2), 109–120.
- Shaw, D. – Connolly, J. (2006) Identifying fair trade in consumption choice. *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, Vol. 14 (4), 353–368.
- Shaw D. – Grehan E. – Shiu E. – Hassan L. – Thomson J. (2005) An exploration of values in ethical consumer decision-making. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, Vol. 4 (3), 185 – 200.
- Shaw, D. – Shiu, E. (2002) An assessment of ethical obligation and self-identity in ethical consumer decision-making: A structural equation modelling approach. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, Vol. 26 (4), 286–293.
- Shaw, D. – Shiu, E. – Clarke, I. (2000) The contribution of ethical obligation and self-identity to the theory of planned behaviour: An exploration of ethical consumers. *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 16 (8), 879–894.
- Singh, J. – del Mar Garcia de los Salmones Sanchez, M. – Rodriguez del Bosque, I. (2008). Understanding corporate social responsibility and product perceptions in consumer markets: A cross-cultural evaluation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 80 (3), 597–611.

- Singhapakdi, A. – Vitell, S. J. – Rallapalli, K. C. – Kraft, K. L. (1996) The perceived role of ethics and social responsibility: A scale development. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 15 (11), 1131–1140.
- Skill, K. – Gyberg, P. (2010). Framing devices in the creation of environmental identity: A case study from Sweden. *Sustainability and Consumption*, Vol. 2 (7), 1869–1886.
- Social responsibilities of business corporations* (1971) Committee for Economic Development, New York.
- Soneryd, L. – Ugglå, Y. (2015) Green governmentality and responsabilization: New forms of governance and responses to ‘consumer responsibility’. *Environmental Politics*, Vol. 24 (6), 913–931.
- Steenhaut, S. – van Kenhove, P. (2006) An empirical investigation of the relationships among a consumer’s personal values, ethical ideology and ethical beliefs. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 64 (2), 137–155.
- Sterner, T. – Bartelings, H. (1999) Household waste management in a Swedish municipality: Determinants of waste disposal, recycling and composting. *Environmental and Resource Economics*, Vol. 13 (4), 473–491.
- Stock exchanges and sustainability. UNEP. <http://unepinquiry.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/Stock_Exchanges_and_Sustainability.pdf>, retrieved 28 July 2016.
- Strong, C. (1996) Features contributing to the growth of ethical consumerism - A preliminary investigation. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, Vol. 14 (5), 5–13.
- Szmigin, I. – Carrigan, M. – Loughlin, D. O. (2007) Integrating ethical brands into our consumption lives. *Journal of Brand Management*, Vol. 14 (5), 396–409.
- Szykman, L. R. – Bloom, P. N. – Blazing J. (2004) Does corporate sponsorship of a socially-oriented message make a difference? An investigation of the effects of sponsorship identity on responses to an anti-drinking and driving message. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, Vol. 14 (1–2), 13–20.
- Tabachnick, B. G. – Fidell, L. S. (2007) *Using multivariate statistics*. Pearson, Boston.
- Taylor, S. – Todd, P. (1997) Understanding the determinants of consumer composting behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, Vol. 27 (7), 602–628.
- The sustainability imperative: New insights on consumer expectations. The Nielsen Company. <<http://www.nielsen.com/content/dam/nielsen-global/dk/docs/global-sustainability-report-oct2015.pdf>>, retrieved 28 July 2016.
- “This is what we die for”: Human rights abuses in the Democratic Republic of the Congo power the global trade in cobalt. (2016) Amnesty International, London.

- Thøgersen, J. (2008) Social norms and cooperation in real-life social dilemmas. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, Vol. 29 (4), 458–472.
- Thøgersen, J. (2009) The motivational roots of norms for environmentally responsible behaviour. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, Vol. 31 (4), 348–362.
- Trudel, R. – Cotte, J. (2009) Does it pay to be good? *MIT Sloan Management Review*, Vol. 50 (2), 61–68.
- Tucker, L. R. – Dolich, I. J. – Wilson, D. (1981) Profiling environmentally responsible consumer-citizens. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 9 (4), 454–478.
- Turban, D. B. – Greening, D. W. (1997) Corporate social performance and organizational attractiveness to prospective employees. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 40 (3), 658–672.
- Turker, D. (2009) Measuring corporate social responsibility: A scale development study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 85 (4), 411–427.
- Turrentine, T. S. – Kurani, K. S. (2006) Car buyers and fuel economy. *Energy Policy*, Vol. 35 (2), 1213–1223.
- United Nations Global Compact strategy 2015–2016. United Nations Global Compact. <<https://www.unglobalcompact.org/library/2581>> , retrieved 27 July 2016.
- Uusitalo, O. – Oksanen, R. (2004) Ethical consumerism: a view from Finland. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, Vol. 28 (3), 214–221.
- Valor, C. (2005) Corporate social responsibility and corporate citizenship: Towards corporate accountability. *Business and Society Review*, Vol. 110 (2), 191–212.
- Varadarajan, P. (1986) Horizontal cooperative sales promotion: A framework for classification and additional perspectives. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 50 (2), 61–73.
- Varadarajan, P. – Menon, A. (1988) Cause-related marketing: A coalignment of marketing strategy and corporate philanthropy. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 52 (3), 58–74.
- Velasquez, M. G. (2006) *Business ethics: Concepts and cases*. Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River.
- Vermeir, I. – Verbeke, W. (2008) Sustainable food consumption among young adults in Belgium: Theory of planned behaviour and the role of confidence and values. *Ecological Economics*, Vol. 64 (3), 542–553.
- Volkswagen: Emission impossible. The Economist. <<http://www.economist.com/news/business/21693947-german-carmaker-will-escape-its-emissions-scandal-largely-unscathed-bad-news>> , retrieved 20 November 2016.

- Waddock, S. (2004) Parallel universes: Companies, academics and the progress of corporate citizenship. *Business and Society Review*, Vol. 109 (1), 5–42.
- Waddock, S. A. – Graves, S. B. (1997) The corporate social performance-financial performance link. *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 18 (4), 303–319.
- Wartick, S. L. – Cochran, P. L. (1985) The evolution of the corporate social performance model. *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 10 (4), 758–769.
- Webb, D. J. – Mohr, L. A. – Harris, K. E. (2008). A re-examination of socially responsible consumption and its measurement. *Journal of Business Research*, 61 (2), 91–98.
- Webster F. E. Jr (1975) Determining the characteristics of the socially conscious consumer. *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 2 (3), 188–96.
- Wells, V. K. – Ponting, C. A. – Peattie, K. (2011) Behaviour and climate change: Consumer perceptions of responsibility. *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 27 (7–8), 808–833.
- White, K. – MacDonnell, R. – Ellard, J. H. (2012) Belief in a just world: Consumer intentions and behaviors toward ethical products. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 76 (1), 103–118.
- Wilson, J. (2010) *Essentials of business research: A guide to doing your research project*. SAGE Publications, London.
- Windsor, D. (2001) The future of corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Organizational Analysis*, Vol. 9 (3), 225–256.
- Wood, D. J. (1991) Corporate social performance revisited. *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 16 (4), 691–718.
- Wood, D. J. – Logsdon, J. M. (2001) Theorising business citizenship. In: *Perspectives on corporate citizenship*, eds. Andriof, J. – M. McIntosh, 83–103, Greenleaf Publishing, Sheffield.
- Wray-Lake, L. – Flanagan, C. A. – Osgood, D. W. (2010) Examining trends in adolescent environmental attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors across three decades. *Environmental Behavior*, Vol. 42 (1), 61–85.
- Whiteman, G. – Walker, B. – Perego, P. (2013) Planetary boundaries: Ecological foundations for corporate sustainability. *Journal of Management Studies*, Vol. 50 (2), 307–336.
- Why should you care about climate change? United Nations. <<http://www.un.org/climatechange/summit/2014/06/why-should-you-care-about-climate-change/>>, retrieved 20 November 2016.
- Young, W. – Hwang, K. – McDonald, S. – Oates, C. J. (2010) Sustainable consumption: Green consumer behaviour when purchasing products. *Sustainable Development*, Vol. 18 (1), 20–31.

- Zeithaml, V. A. (1988) Consumer perceptions of price, quality and value: A means-end synthesis of evidence. *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 52 (3), 2–22.
- Öberseder, M. – Schlegelmilch, B. B. – Murphy, P. E. – Gruber, V. (2014) Consumers' perceptions of corporate social responsibility: Scale development and validation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 124 (1), 101–115.

APPENDIX 1 COVER LETTER

Hei,

Teen markkinoinnin gradua kuluttajavastuusta. Tutkimuksen tarkoitus on selvittää, miten vastuullisuuden koettu tärkeys vaikuttaa ostoaikomuksiin.

Toivoisin että käyt täyttämässä lomakkeen, joka löytyy oheisen Webropol-linkin takaa. Kyselyyn vastaaminen vie noin 3 minuuttia. Vastanneiden kesken arvotaan 5 paria Finnkinon leffalippuja. Kaikki vastaukset käsitellään luottamuksellisesti.

Linkki kyselyyn: <https://www.webpolsurveys.com/S/A2052A2667526A18.par>

Vastausaika päättyy 13.4.2016.

Kiitos avustasi!

Joonas Savolainen

Lisätiedot ja kommentit: Joonas Savolainen, jotasa@utu.fi

APPENDIX 2 QUESTIONNAIRE

Vastuullisuuden merkitys kuluttajakäyttäytymisessä

Kyselyn onnistumisen kannalta on tärkeää, että vastaat kaikkiin kysymyksiin mahdollisimman todenmukaisesti.

1. Sukupuoli *

- mies
 nainen

2. Syntymävuosi *

4 merkkiä jäljellä

3. Kuinka tärkeinä pidät seuraavia yritys vastuun osa-alueita? (1=EI lainkaan tärkeää, 5=Erittäin tärkeää) *

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Saasteiden vähentäminen	<input type="radio"/>				
2. Työntekijöiden oikeuksien kunnioittaminen	<input type="radio"/>				
3. Tehokkaat tuotantoprosessit	<input type="radio"/>				
4. Materiaalien käytön minimointi	<input type="radio"/>				
5. Paikallisyhteisön tukeminen	<input type="radio"/>				
6. Tuotteiden käyttöiän pidentäminen	<input type="radio"/>				
7. Materiaalien kierrättäminen	<input type="radio"/>				
8. Mahdollisuus hävittää tuotteet vastuullisesti	<input type="radio"/>				

4. Missä määrin seuraavat väittämät kuvaavat käyttäytymistäsi. *

	täysin eri mieltä	jokseenkin eri mieltä	ei samaa eikä eri mieltä	jokseenkin samaa mieltä	täysin samaa mieltä
1. Koen velvollisuudekseni toimia eettisesti ja vastuullisesti aina kun mahdollista.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Tehdessäni ostoksia valitsen aina edullisimman tuotteen pohtimatta tuotanto-olosuhteita.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

- | | | | | | |
|---|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 3. Vastuullisuuden edistäminen on minulle tärkeää. | <input type="radio"/> |
| 4. Ostan aina korkealaatuisimman tuotteen pohtimatta ympäristövaikutuksia. | <input type="radio"/> |
| 5. En koe tarvetta vaikuttaa muiden vastuullisuuteen. | <input type="radio"/> |
| 6. Tehdessäni ostoksia valitsen aina korkealaatuisimman tuotteen pohtimatta tuotanto-olosuhteita. | <input type="radio"/> |
| 7. Olen vastuussa kulutusvalintojeni eettisyydestä. | <input type="radio"/> |
| 8. Ostan aina edullisimman tuotteen pohtimatta ympäristövaikutuksia. | <input type="radio"/> |
| 9. En pysty valinnoillani vaikuttamaan kestävän kulutuksen ongelmiin. | <input type="radio"/> |

5. Kuinka todennäköisesti seuraavat henkilöt/instituutiot vaikuttavat päätökseesi kuluttaa vastuullisesti? (1=Erittäin epätodennäköistä, 5=Erittäin todennäköistä) *

- | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. ystävät | <input type="radio"/> |
| 2. perhe | <input type="radio"/> |
| 3. media | <input type="radio"/> |
| 4. kansalaisjärjestöt | <input type="radio"/> |
| 5. poliitikot | <input type="radio"/> |
| 6. yritykset | <input type="radio"/> |

6. Kuvittele olevasi ostamassa t-paitaa. Alla olevat paidat ovat ulkoisilta ominaisuuksiltaan identtiset. Tutustu molempien tuotetietoihin ja valitse se paita, jonka ostaisit. *

	
19,90 €	9,90 €
 MATERIAALI 100% LUOMUPUUVILLAA	 MATERIAALI 100% PUUVILLAA
 TUOTE TÄYTTÄÄ REILUN KAUPAN KRITTEERIT	 TUOTANTO-OLosuhteista ei ole tietoa
 TUOTTEEN KÄYTTÖIKÄ SAattaa OLLA TAVALLISTA LYHYEMPI	

7. Jos haluat osallistua leffalippujen arvontaan, jätä sähköpostiosoitteesi alla olevaan kenttään.

Sähköposti