

Is it a Responsibility of Marketing to Encourage Moderation of Consumption?

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ABSTRACT

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There has been a steadily growing concern by governments, NGO's and international agencies regarding the rising rate of consumption in industrialised countries. Despite warnings and evidence showing the relationship between rising consumption and climate change, and the uptake of initiatives and education at business and consumer levels, the trend towards consuming more and more continues unabated. Questions have been raised regarding the relationship between marketing and rising consumption. In line with this, the research investigates the assumed responsibility of marketing to encourage consumers to moderate their consumption behaviour. The research addresses three broad objectives:

- To identify whether marketing professionals feel responsible for encouraging consumers to moderate their consumption
- To identify and explain the reasons why marketers would encourage moderation of consumption
- To understand the construct 'marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption' and explain the influences upon the acceptance of responsibility

The research adopted a mixed-methods design. Qualitative research methods were used to explore perceptions of responsibility and develop a typology of motivations to explain why marketers would encourage moderation. An online, quantitative survey (n=359) was conducted in the USA and UK in January 2011.

The results evidenced an acceptance of responsibility which is suggestive of a changing role for the marketing discipline. The results found support for the typology of motivations which were developed during the qualitative phase of the research, in particular, highlighting the importance of ethical and cost-saving motivations. The level of environmentalism in the workplace, and in the private life of the marketer, was found to influence the acceptance of marketing responsibility to encourage moderation. Finally, the motivation to remain competitive was also associated with the acceptance of marketing responsibility.

The acceptance of responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption highlights a changing role for marketing which could potentially signify far-reaching changes in practical terms, in the way marketing is taught, and in the public policy domain.

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Dedication

For my beautiful sons, Finley and Samuel, and my loving husband, John.

Chapter One

Introduction to the Thesis

1.0 Introduction

Over several decades there has been increasing concern for the natural environment. In line with this, rising consumerism has been pinpointed as a key area which must be addressed in order to halt the degradation of the environment. Responsibility for addressing modern consumer culture raises debates pertinent to the study of marketing. The purpose of this study is to investigate the acceptance of marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption.

This chapter presents the research background of the study and the motivation for the research topic. An overview of the thesis is presented which details the research problem and objectives and the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Research Background

Since the production of the WCED (1987) report 'Our Common Future', following concern from leaders both inside and outside of governments over the speed and irreversibility with which the planet's environmental resources were being squandered, there has been a growing disquiet over the impact of rising consumerism in industrialised countries. The report coined the term "sustainable development" which it defined as "*development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*". Whilst production and consumption patterns in industrialised countries remains largely unsustainable, the lack of adequate consumption for other segments of the world population is of critical concern (United Nations, 2001). These regions need support and assistance to tackle the disparity between rich and poor, and enable basic needs to be met. Despite approximately one billion people in these regions not having enough to survive (i.e. access to clean water, or suffering malnutrition due to lack of food security), the consumption patterns of the industrialised countries are fascinating and become aspirational (FED, 1998). Therefore, changes to consumption patterns in industrialised countries are

important in order to meet the goals of sustainability and provide appropriate, attractive examples of sustainable consumption in order to inspire people in developing countries.

Sustainable consumption and production are terms used to describe the use of services and products which minimize the use of natural resources and toxic materials whilst reducing the emissions of waste and pollutants over the life cycle of the product or service in order to avoid jeopardizing the ability of future generations to meet their needs (United Nations, 2014). However, replacing conventional products and services with more 'eco-friendly' alternatives will not suffice. Everyday consumption patterns and behaviours must also change in order to tackle unsustainable conventions and patterning of social life.

In accordance with the suggestion that consumption needs to change, literature has emerged which questions the morality of consuming and the relationships between consumption and society (e.g. Caruana, 2007). Szmigin and Carrigan (2006) consider whether ethics and consumption can ever 'lie together' and such questions can be uncomfortable for those who refute that consumption is ethical. The acceptance of an ethical dimension to consumption will enable a greater understanding of those who choose to consume so-called 'ethical products' and will, furthermore, enable more effective communication with this type of ethical consumer (Szmigin and Carrigan, 2006). Is the consumption of alternative products i.e. eco-friendly products, enough of a change or does ethical consumption actually refer to consuming less (Balsiger et al., 2014). The debate surrounding ethical consumption and the ethics of consumption suggests further research is needed into the morality and ethicality of consuming. This is a timely debate which contributes to the imperative for the research in the thesis which considers the managerial perspective on consuming less.

The United Nations (2001) highlight the need for cooperation among actors in all phases of the production and consumption process. This implicates a host of organisations, disciplines, and people, including marketing. Marketing professionals and academics alike have not been ignorant of this fact. For instance, Tesco invested £25 million into the set-up of the Sustainable

Consumption Institute at the University of Manchester in 2007 to support research which will enable understanding of how to empower and encourage consumers to buy more sustainable products and services. Fisk's (1973) theory of responsible consumption offered guidance on assessing the costs and benefits associated with marketing planning and decision-making whilst recognising that the environment will ultimately constrain the freedom of marketing managers. Many more examples abound to evidence business and academic interest in addressing consumption concerns. However, consumerism continues to rise at unsustainable rates and business action remains largely voluntary (Williamson et al., 2006).

Despite the notion that CSR activities are voluntary, many businesses are pursuing social and political responsibilities which go beyond legal requirements (Scherer and Palazzo, 2011). This expanding role of business has challenges for the dominant economic theory of the business firm which postulates that the purpose of business is profit maximisation (Jenson, 2002). It also has implications for management research. Likewise, Wilkie and Moore (2012) call for more research into marketing and society. The authors chronicle the development of the field of marketing and suggest that the interaction between marketing and society has not only been side-lined by managerial marketing decision-making and practises but, in accordance with this, academic research investigating marketing and societal issues have been under-represented in mainstream, top-level marketing journals.

An approach called "stakeholder marketing" has been outlined by Smith et al. (2010) which suggests that marketing activities should aim to benefit all stakeholders in society. The authors suggest that a key responsibility of marketing might be to change traditional consumption routines and co-create the "responsible consumer". However, the authors note the imperative for consumers to also assume greater responsibility for their consumption patterns. This leads to a call for more marketing research into the impact of marketing on consumption and, specifically, the responsibility of marketers to change consumption habits (Smith et al., 2014).

It is clear that there are growing questions over the role and responsibility of business and marketing to help shape more sustainable consumption behaviour from customers. There are also questions regarding the role of the government and the role of the customer and how responsibility should be shared. The thesis aims to tackle the questions of responsibility levied at the marketing profession by conducting research with marketers to uncover their perceptions of responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption. The findings will contribute to the debate surrounding the expanding role of marketing, business and other stakeholders.

1.2 Motivation for the thesis

The thesis was inspired by an article by O'Shaugnessy and O'Shaugnessy (2002) which considered the contribution of marketing to modern day consumer culture. The article concludes that marketing does not invent wants, it merely surfaces them. It provides an interesting and admirable defence of marketing which the authors admit is limited only by a lack of empirical results. Combined with continuing concern over unsustainable consumption patterns, the motivation for the thesis was thus ignited. The research proposes to investigate the perspective of the marketing professional regarding the responsibility of the discipline to encourage consumers to moderate consumption.

There is a paucity of research conducted with marketers regarding their opinions and motivations from a professional standpoint. How marketers view their role and ability to change consumer behaviour is crucial to understanding whether the domain of marketing is changing. Furthermore, this insight will enable theoretical and practical contributions with respect to the development of the discipline of marketing.

1.3 Overview of the Thesis

In this section, the research problem and objectives are presented, followed by an overview of the structure of the thesis.

1.3.1 The Research Problem and Research Objectives

The above discussion has evidenced the growing disquiet with current consumption behaviour. Governments, NGO's and international agencies are partaking in initiatives and education to encourage businesses to alter their production processes, and consumers to alter their consumption patterns. Whilst there has been uptake by both businesses and consumers, the activities undertaken to curb unsustainable production and consumption practises have not been as effective as hoped.

Marketing has witnessed a changing role over the last 40 years. The expansion of marketing into areas beyond commercial exchange has meant the discipline has continued to change and re-focus. As sustainable production and consumption continues to pre-occupy the sustainable development agenda, it will be interesting to see how the marketing discipline will react and whether tensions between societal and business goals can be reconciled. The broad research problem is thus:

To develop greater understanding about the responsibility and motivations of the marketing discipline in assisting the advancement of more moderate consumption behaviour.

Having established the research problem, the corresponding research objectives are next presented. These objectives are a culmination of the literature review and the exploratory qualitative research undertaken with marketing, retail and consumer insight professionals (see section 4.2).

The research objectives underpin the research questions and hypotheses, which are outlined in Chapter 5.

RO1: To identify whether marketing professionals feel responsible for encouraging consumers to moderate their consumption.

This objective intends to address whether marketing is responsible for encouraging consumers to moderate their consumption in relation to other actors and understand what affects the acceptance of responsibility.

RO2: To identify and explain the reasons why marketers would encourage moderation of consumption.

This objective firstly sets out to uncover the reasons why marketers would encourage consumers to moderate their consumption and confirm which of these reasons is most agreed with. The research objective is also concerned with testing hypotheses regarding the influences on these motivations.

RO3: To understand the construct 'marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption' and explain the influences upon the acceptance of responsibility.

This objective aims to explain the acceptance of marketing responsibility to encourage moderation in order to understand the construct and infer practical and theoretical implications.

1.3.2 Thesis Structure

The following section presents the structure of the thesis and outlines the chapter contents.

Chapter 2: Sustainability: The Actors and their Roles. This chapter presents literature on the pertinent actors (for the study) to sustainability; business, consumers and government. This includes models of corporate sustainability, and the motivations for business to engage with environmental concerns. A selection of literature regarding consumer pro-environmental behaviour, sustainable consumption and the barriers to engaging with climate change is offered. Finally, the role of the government and policy is presented. The chapter concludes that there is a role and responsibility for all three actors.

Chapter 3: The Evolving Nature of Marketing. Following the consideration of literature with respect to other actors, chapter 3 presents literature demonstrating the changes that have occurred within the marketing discipline and its expansion into social, green and sustainable domains. Literature pertaining to corporate social responsibility (CSR) is also presented with respect to how closely aligned marketing, corporate sustainability and CSR are. Finally, the relationship between marketing and consumption is explored.

Chapter 4: Research Methods: Qualitative Research. This chapter presents the qualitative research process and findings which were necessarily preliminary work into marketers' perceptions of responsibility and the motivations for encouraging moderation. The qualitative research comprised two managerial focus groups, four depth interviews, and a quasi-qualitative online survey which was conducted in the UK (n=62) and the USA (n=60). The findings evidenced responsibility for consumer, business and governmental roles. From the findings, a typology of motivations was produced which demonstrated the potential reasons for marketers to encourage moderation.

Chapter 5: Research Questions and Hypotheses. The research questions and hypotheses are presented in this chapter in accordance with the research objectives outlined in section 1.3.1. The qualitative findings, along with relevant theory from corporate sustainability, CSR and consumer domains, are used to conceptualise three groups of research questions and hypotheses. The first group is concerned with establishing who is responsible for encouraging moderation. The second group investigates the typology of motivations that was produced from the qualitative research and exploring influences upon these motivations. The final group is concerned with explaining marketers' motivation to encourage moderation.

Chapter 6: Research Methods: Quantitative Research. This chapter describes the epistemological standpoint of the researcher, the chosen quantitative methodology and the research procedure. The quantitative research comprised an online survey conducted in the UK and the US (n=359) in January 2011.

Chapter 7: Results. This chapter begins with a consideration of common method bias, and outlines the remedies used to limit this type of measurement error on the findings. Each group of research questions and hypotheses are tested using a variety of univariate and multivariate data analysis techniques.

Chapter 8: Discussion and Implications. The findings of the research are discussed with respect to pertinent literature. The discussion builds upon previous literature and uses both the qualitative and the quantitative findings to discuss the three groups of research questions and hypotheses and the extent of their confirmation. The limitations of the research are also presented along with suggestions of extension and possible future work.

1.4 Chapter Summary

Altering unsustainable consumption patterns is a growing consideration for governments and policymakers worldwide. Encouraging sustainable consumption and production is crucial goal in the fight to tackle the destruction of the environment. The responsibility of the marketer to assist this goal is implicated but the acceptance of this responsibility is unclear.

The thesis aims to address the subject of marketing responsibility by conducting objective academic research with marketing professionals. This exploratory research will focus on the research objectives provided above and it is anticipated that the findings will make a contribution to marketing theory, practise and policy.

Chapter Two

Sustainability: The Actors and Their Roles

2.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the three main actors involved in the sustainability debate; companies, individuals and government. The concept of corporate sustainability is not new and extant research is explored to examine similarities and contradictions in the levels and types of responsibility that companies have assumed. Individuals within society have been acting in a pro-environmental manner for many decades. The research pertaining to individuals and the influences on acting sustainably are reviewed. Government plays a crucial role in providing the infrastructure and market conditions for sustainability. Internationally, governments have committed to very difficult-to-reach targets for cutting carbon emission and how they will enact policy to meet these targets is explored.

Consideration of the three main actors comes at a time when more multi-agent research has been called for. Specifically, Caruana and Chatzidakis (2013, p. 588) present the need for a move away from consumers being considered the “ultimate agent of social and environmental change”. The integration of key actors and their potential influences is necessary to stem the increasing responsibility being placed on consumers for everyday consumption. Using a multi-level, multi-agent approach to social responsibility will enable a deeper understanding of the relationships between the actors involved in everyday consumption practices (Aquilera et al., 2007). Therefore, examining the roles and responsibility for encouraging moderation of consumption, a narrower subset of social responsibility, is timely within the sustainability research agenda.

Beyond consumers, business and government are other actors who play a fundamental role in facilitating the advancement of sustainability in society such as consumer groups and NGO's. However, the literature review will concentrate

upon consumer, business and government roles, contributions and tensions in order to underpin the research problem and objectives.

The main research problem was outlined in the previous chapter (see section 1.3.1) and is reiterated here:

To develop greater understanding about the responsibility and motivations of the marketing discipline in assisting the advancement of more moderate consumption behaviour.

The literature pertaining to sustainable business practices is important background to understanding the adoption of environmental and societal roles by businesses and the motivations for doing so. Marketing professionals will be affected by these expanding business agenda's and this literature therefore informs the current study. Likewise, an understanding of consumer pro-environmental behaviour, the motivations for adopting such behaviour and the barriers to adoption will also impact on consumer expectations of business and, therefore, marketing. Finally, the role of government in the facilitation of sustainable consumption provides background to understanding the political and economic imperative for encouraging sustainable consumption and the pressures which may be applied to businesses in order to assist with encouraging better consumption practices by consumers.

The chapter firstly considers corporate sustainability and the business role in the sustainability debate. Secondly, consumer responsibility is presented (section 2.2), followed by a review of literature pertaining to governmental role (section 2.3).

2.1 Corporate Sustainability

Corporate sustainability has been an emerging concept over the last four decades. Various names, concepts and constructs have emerged in order to describe the integration of sustainability into the organisational context. The term sustainability is subject to multiple meanings and interpretations (Dobson, 1996)

which has, as with most new concepts, meant that the resolution of its definition will take time. With new concepts, definitions are emergent and changing and there is still debate around how to define corporate sustainability. Table 2.1 demonstrates the variety of terms being used to describe the widening of corporate responsibility to include factors beyond economic considerations. The mitigation of varying social and environmental problems caused by corporate activities is firmly recognised as necessary in order to achieve sustainable development (Hahn and Scheermesser, 2006). Whilst these terms are not strictly interchangeable, they all focus on the idea of voluntary action by an organisation to consider the wider implications of its business activities.

Table 2.1: Organisational Responsibility Terms

Term	Definition	Source
Sustainable Development	Development which meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs	WCED, 1987
Corporate Sustainability	Meeting the needs of a firm's direct and indirect stakeholders without compromising its ability to meet the needs of future stakeholders as well	Dyllick and Hockerts, 2002)
Sustainable Entrepreneurship	An organisation that has sustainability at the centre of its structure, operations and management	Young and Tilley, 2006
Corporate Social Responsibility	CSR involves the conduct of the business so that it is economically profitable, law abiding, ethical and socially supportive	Carroll, 1983, p.604
Corporate Environmentalism	The recognition and integration of environmental concerns into a firm's decision-making process	Banerjee, 2002, p.177
Corporate Responsibility	The commitment of business to contribute to sustainable economic development, working with employees, their families, the local community and society at large to improve their quality of life	Holliday et al., 2002

Sustainable development is a term popularized by the publication of *Our Common Future*, a report by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED, 1987). The report was commissioned in response to concern from inside and outside governments regarding the speed and irreversibility of the depletion of global resources. The need for governments, individuals and industries to embrace sustainable development was emphasized and a definition was accordingly provided (see Table 2.1). Current definitions of sustainability (and thus, corporate sustainability) now rely on this widely cited definition of sustainable development (Schaefer and Crane, 2005).

2.1.1 Sustainability as a Meta-discipline

Sustainability is a meta-discipline (Milhelcic et al., 2003) in which knowledge from many fields needs to be brought together in order to understand and describe sustainability. There are several related disciplines but three fields have emerged that are firmly accepted as being important for implementing sustainability. This is primarily because these three fields have an underlying focus on the relationship between human and natural systems, understanding that human growth is constrained by the limits of natural systems. In contrast to the dominant view of the industrial revolution, in which natural systems are considered practically boundless, the fields of ecological economics, industrial ecology and ecosystem health all hypothesize that human growth which impinges on the limits of natural systems will lead to catastrophe (Seager, 2008).

2.1.1.1 Ecological Economics

Ecological economics is a relatively new discipline. In 1988, the International Society of Ecological Economics was formed, and, in the following year, the journal *Ecological Economics* was first published. What followed has been closer collaboration between economists and ecologists to find solutions to the problems facing human beings and the ecosystems upon which we depend (Costanza, 1996).

Costanza (1996, p. 980) summarizes these problems as:

1. *Assessing and ensuring that the scale of human activities within the biosphere is ecologically sustainable;*

2. *Distributing resources and property rights fairly, both within the current generations of humans and between this and future generations, and also between humans and other species; and*
3. *Efficiently allocating resources as constrained and defined by (1) and (2) above, and including both marketed and non-marketed resources, especially ecosystems*

Ultimately, ecological economics is concerned with the relationship between ecological and economic systems. The focus is not economic growth but development, in which the quality of life increases whilst levels of production, material and energy usage remain constant or decline and without depletion of natural capital (Daly, 1996). A combination of “*increased eco-efficiency, environmentally benign energy sources and changing consumption patterns*” can, in theory, achieve this “development” (Seager, 2008: p. 448).

2.1.1.2 Industrial Ecology

The study of industrial ecology is concerned with finding more sustainable patterns of resource-use in an effort to reduce resource depletion. Those involved with industrial ecology are committed to designing industrial systems which involve cyclical resource-use patterns and avoidance of waste products analogous to mature biological ecosystems (Connelly and Koshland, 2001). Life-cycle assessment, system analysis and analysis of materials and energy flow are the foundations of industrial ecology. Understanding a system holistically leads to the design of more sustainable alternatives than the piecemeal consideration of specific parts of that system (Seager, 2008). Ehrenfeld (2000) believes that industrial ecology is a promising science which can improve the efficiency of the way humans use the ecosystem.

2.1.1.3 Ecosystem health

The health of global and regional ecosystems is under threat due to pressures exerted upon them by humans and the pursuit of economic growth. The field of ecosystem health is primarily concerned with the performance of the whole ecosystem and how the health of that system (both human and nonhuman animal health, and the health of the natural environment) is linked (Schaeffer et al.,

1988). The health of animals is recognised as important due to the role animals play in the ecosystem, and because of the link between animal disease and human disease (Rapport et al., 1998). This makes knowledge of veterinary medicine incredibly important in the study of ecosystem health (Seager, 2008). The health of human beings is inextricably reliant on the health of natural systems, which makes ecosystem health a crucially important science for the sustainability of life on earth.

2.1.1.4 Other influences

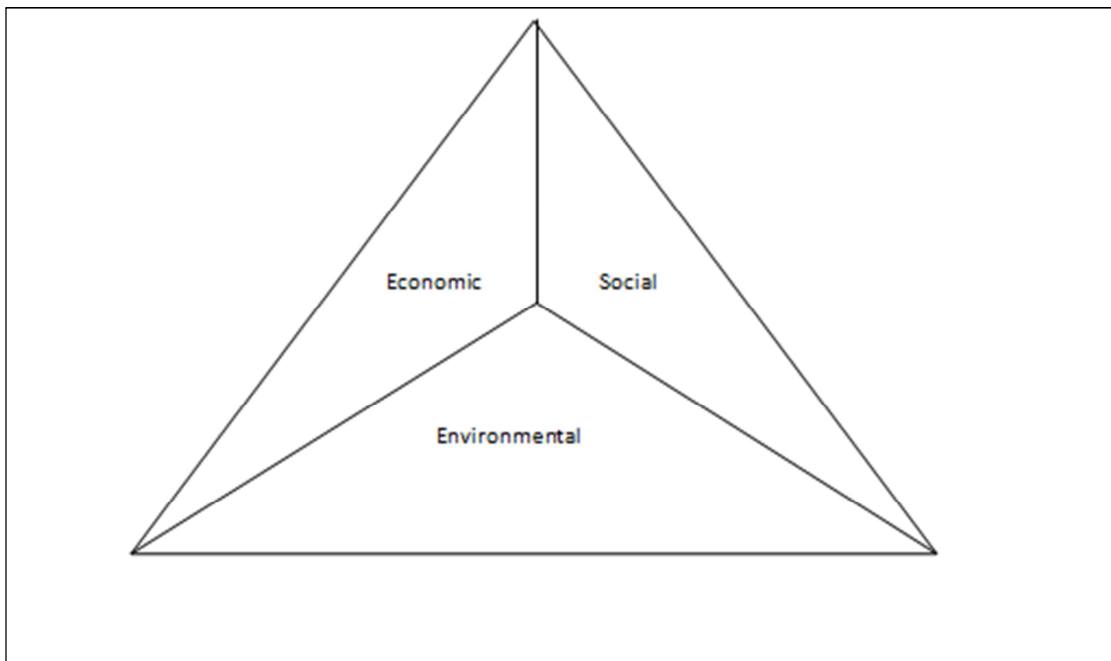
The above fields of study are largely scientific in the traditional sense. They are fundamental to finding solutions to the degradation of natural resources and managing the impact of humans. However, fields of study which focuses on the human domain are equally important, particularly areas such as sustainable policy.

The next section explores corporate sustainability models and focuses on the integration of environmental considerations into the business organisation.

2.1.2 Corporate Sustainability Models

In an attempt to describe the various aspects of incorporating sustainability into business, several authors have modelled the different considerations in corporate sustainability. One of the most influential models to emerge relates to the “triple-bottom-line” approach advocated by Elkington (1997), which asserts that organisations must seek to balance the environmental and social impacts of doing business with economic considerations. Corporate sustainability, therefore, comprises three elements which must all be satisfied in order for an organisation to become truly sustainable. These elements are economic sustainability, environmental sustainability and social sustainability (Elkington, 1997). The model brings the often neglected concept of social sustainability to light by affording it the same consideration as economic and environmental sustainability

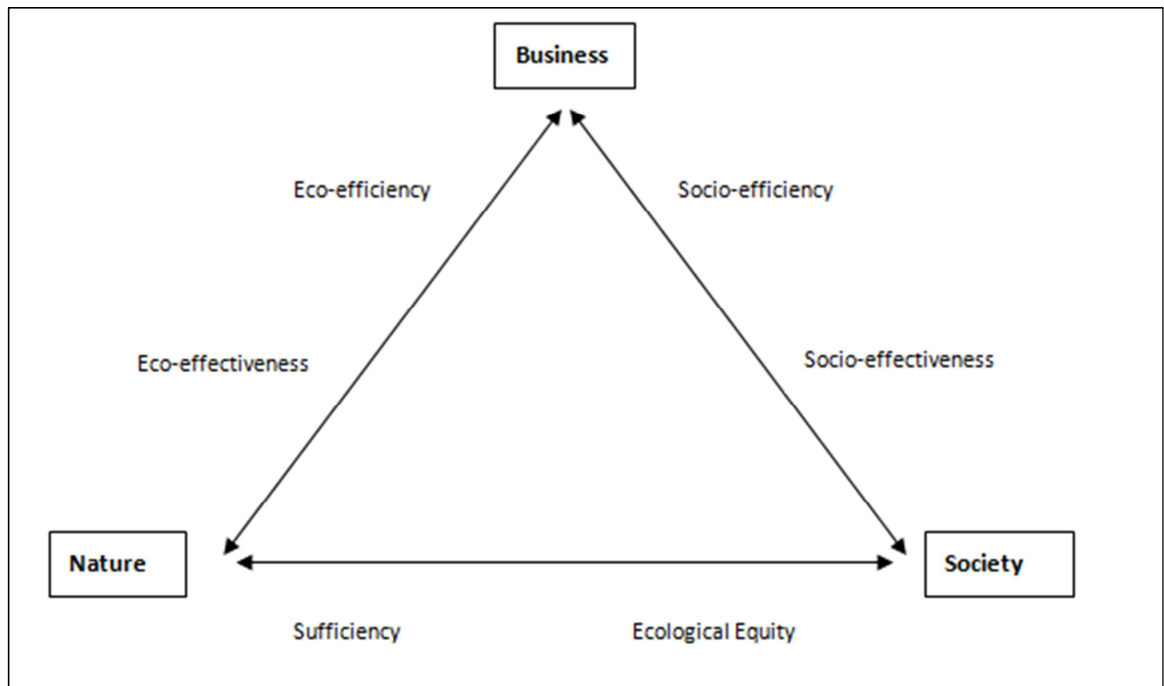
Figure 2.1: The Three Components of Sustainability



Source: Adapted from Elkinson (1997), and Crane and Matten (2004)

Dyllic and Hockerts (2002) expanded the triple bottom line model in order to demonstrate how six different criteria need to be satisfied if a business is to become sustainable: eco-efficiency, socio-efficiency, eco-effectiveness, socio-effectiveness, sufficiency and ecological equity. These six elements are important for an organisation to move beyond a focus on economic sustainability and therefore ensure that nature and society are equally considered in corporate decision-making.

Figure 2.2: The Six Criteria of Corporate Sustainability



Source: Dyllick and Hockerts (2002)

Eco-efficiency relates to the efficiency of a business in its use of natural capital. Using water and energy more efficiently, for instance, can enable businesses to support economic sustainability whilst reducing negative environmental impacts. However, eco-efficiency is fundamentally a flawed concept (McDonough and Braungart, 1998). Making a destructive system more efficient does not solve the environmental problems but merely slows down the rate of destruction. The end result is the same, but it may take longer to get there (Young and Tilley, 2006). Nonetheless, eco-efficiency is often the first step towards sustainability for many organisations as it is easily justifiable to shareholders to produce ‘more with less’ (Cote et al., 2006).

Similar to eco-efficiency, *socio-efficiency* relates to the efficiency of a business in maximising social benefits and reducing negative social impacts in order to contribute to economic sustainability. In contrast to eco-efficiency however, socio-efficiency has been largely neglected (Schmidt et al, 2004). Young and Tilley (2006) make the comparison between Corporate Social Responsibility and socio-efficiency. Both evidence a commitment to behaving ethically and improving social benefits within the workforce, the community and society at large whilst supporting

economic goals. Socio-efficiency concerns the maximising of positive social impacts e.g. corporate giving, or the reduction of negative impacts e.g. accidents at work, (or both) in relation to economic value added (Dyllick and Hockerts, 2002). Socio-efficiency can also be criticised in the same way as eco-efficiency in that it may slow down harmful social impacts (or increase positive impacts) but it does not attempt to improve wider social problems.

Eco-effectiveness is an important element of the model as it represents the need to improve the effectiveness, rather than the efficiency, of the use of natural capital. Using resources more effectively can prolong their status as “resources” and even upgrade the resource quality through many cycles of use. This contrasts to eco-efficiency in which the focus is fixed on using less resources and the reduction of waste (Braungart et al., 2007). Eco-effectiveness is ultimately concerned with finding new ways of doing business which “*result in regenerative, not depletive, practices*” (Young and Tilley, 2006: p.404).

Socio-effectiveness is concerned with the absolute positive impact on society a business can reasonably achieve. It concerns awareness by business of their wider impact on social and human capital (Stead and Stead, 2008).

Sufficiency is primarily a consumer issue and, therefore, beyond an organisations’ responsibility. It concerns individuals making responsible choices in their consumer behaviour. Going further, it also encompasses collective consumer action such as boycotting brands that are considered to be environmentally damaging (Young and Tilley, 2006). Despite sufficiency being a consumer issue, it is crucial for businesses to consider sufficiency in their corporate sustainability decision-making in order to avoid negative publicity and consumer boycott. Understanding the adequate amount of products or services that customers are happy to consume (and that which the environment can support) will enable organisations to operate sustainably and responsibly.

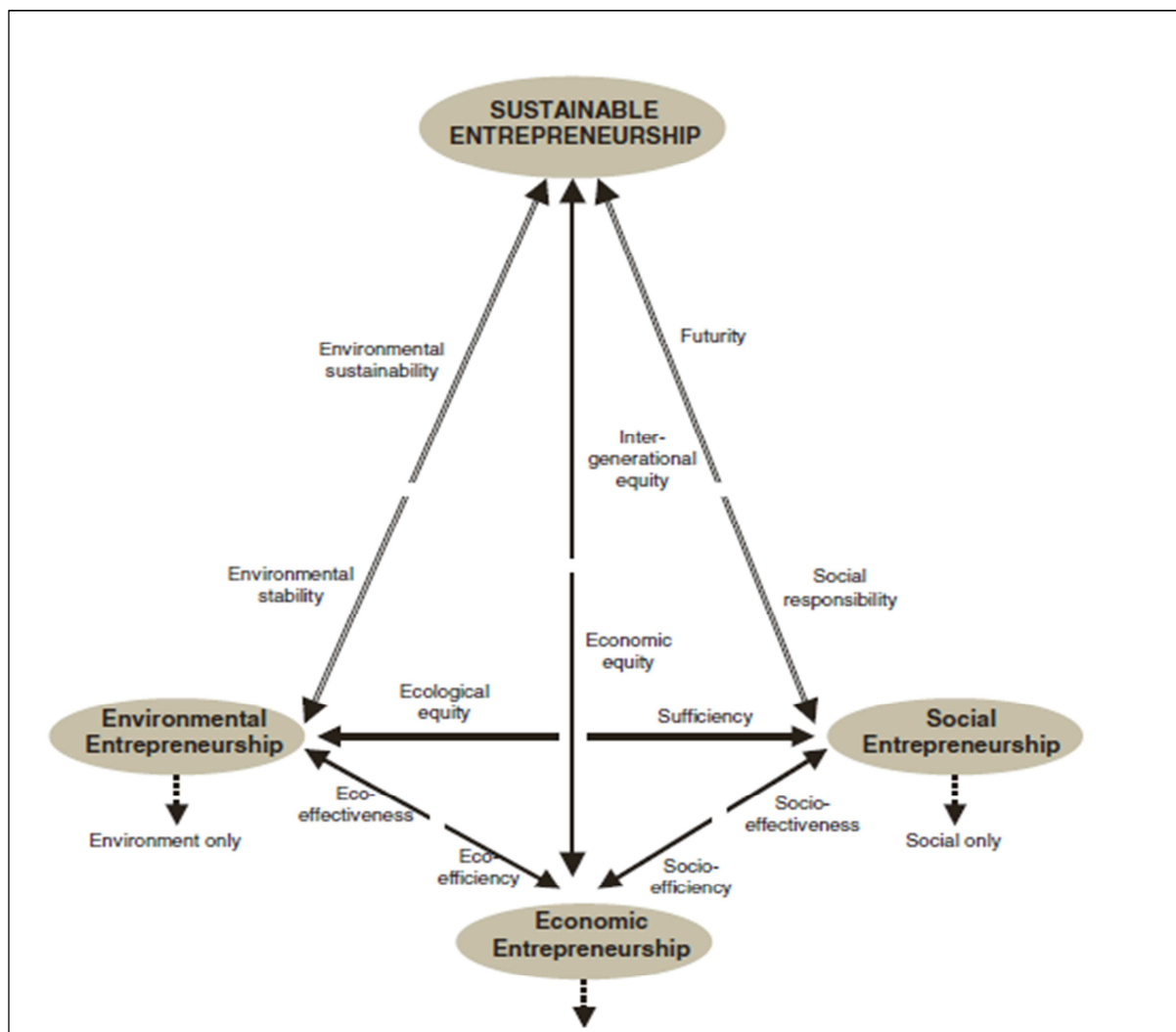
Finally, *ecological equity* is concerned with the intergenerational distribution of environmental resources. If current generations consume too much of the earth’s natural resources, future generations will have to bear the cost and the damage

this will cause (Dyllick and Hockerts 2002). However, as those authors point out, there is a lack of business indicators to assist businesses with this aspect of sustainability. Furthermore, how the distinction between current and future generations should be made still remains unclear (Hubacek and Mauerhofer, 2008).

Whilst the Dyllicks and Hockerts (2002) model affords equal positioning to all six criteria, Mauerhofer (2008) prioritises them in the following order: Sufficiency, Eco-effectiveness, Ecological Equity, Socio-effectiveness, Eco-efficiency, Socio-efficiency. The priorities are set according to the absolute carrying capacity of the environment, which should be the most important consideration in corporate decision-making.

Whilst this revised model of corporate sustainability is more encompassing, it has been criticised by other academics who suggest alternative models. Young and Tilley (2006) present a model for understanding sustainable entrepreneurship which they define as *“an organisation that has sustainability at the centre of its structure, operations and management: in essence, an organisation that is moving beyond the requirement to demonstrate efficiency in its drive to be sustainable”* (p. 402). This model builds upon Dyllicks and Hockerts (2002) model.

Figure 2.3: The Sustainable Entrepreneurship Model



Source: Young and Tilley (2006)

The sustainable entrepreneurship model incorporates a further six considerations in addition to the six considered by Dyllicks and Hockerts (2002). These are *environmental sustainability*, *environmental stability*, *futurity*, *social responsibility*, *economic equity* and *intergenerational equity* (see table for descriptions of constructs). The inclusion of these extra variables extends the model into a 3D shaped triangle and demonstrates how social, environmental and economic efforts can move towards sustainable entrepreneurship.

Table 2.2: Sustainable Entrepreneurship Constructs

Construct	Description
Economic Equity	The distribution of economic wealth fairly between existing generations as well as future generations
Inter-generational Equity	Economic welfare of future generations being taken into account in company decisions and operations
Environmental Stability	The positive forces being exerted on the environment to stabilize and where necessary restore ecosystem functions e.g. Climate change
Environmental Sustainability	The long-term sustainability of the environment being taken into account in company decisions and operations
Social Responsibility	Companies and individuals take responsibility and are accountable for direct and indirect, negative and positive impacts on existing generations
Futurity	The social well-being of future generations being taken

Source: Adapted from Young and Tilley (2006), Dyllick and Hockerts (2002)

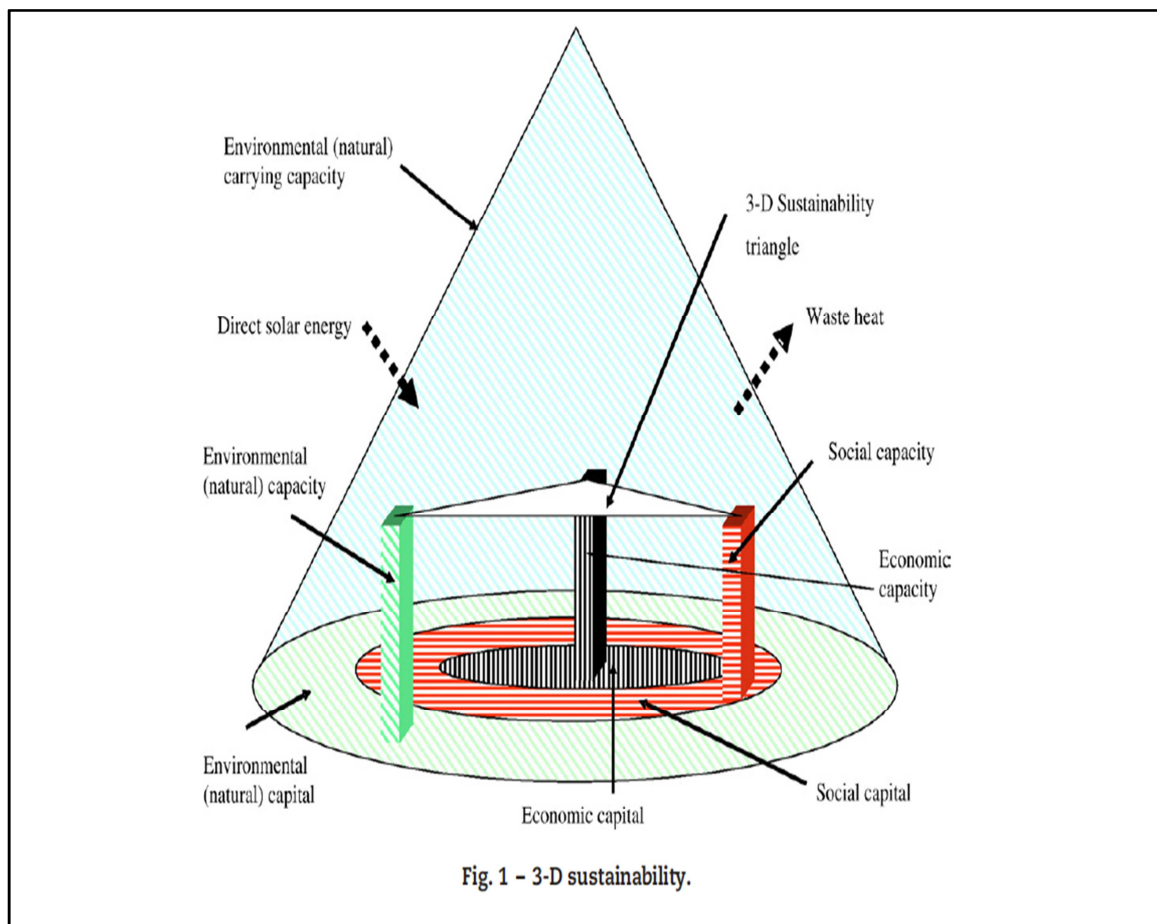
The authors of the model demonstrate how it works in practice using a company case study. However, the case study only proves to highlight how difficult it is to make such a model work in practice. Essentially, this model and the Dyllicks and Hockerts (2002) model are entrenched in rhetoric and don't deliver practical decision-making support for organisations, individuals, policy-makers or other actors associated with the implementation of sustainability. There are no criteria provided for each of the constructs therefore, it remains fundamentally limited by its abstract nature. Beyond demonstrating the need to balance economic, environmental and social considerations, the models are of limited practical significance.

There has been further criticism of models using a triangle to explain the relationship between the three elements of sustainability (Mauerhofer, 2008), due to the failure of this figural concept to demonstrate the embedded relationship between the three elements (Lawn, 2006). Whilst it is difficult to produce a model which represents a far more complex reality, the limitations of the environmental system are not demonstrated by either Dyllicks and Hockerts (2002) or Young and Tilley (2006) in their models. Finally, these models lack any decision support, providing advice on how to manage the conflicting interests between the three elements of sustainability (Mauerhofer, 2008). In order to overcome these deficits,

Mauerhofer (2008) proposed the “3-D Sustainability” model which also incorporates the Dyllicks and Hockerts (2002) model.

The model has three elements: the cone and the base, the triangle and the columns. The base comprises three circles representing environmental, social and economic capital and is similar to a diagram used by the European Environment Agency (1999). This circular diagram represents how the economy is embedded within society which is, likewise, embedded within nature – environmental capacity is a precondition for the existence and durability of social capital and the economy. The cone shape represents the limitations of natural capital; the “*sources, sinks, services and space of the environment*” (EEA, 1999, p.49) that are physically limited over a period of consistent use (Mauerhofer , 2008).

Figure 2.4: 3D Sustainability Model



Source: Mauerhofer (2008, p.498)

Whilst this model offers more support for decision-making, its authors accept that it is nonetheless a simplification. However, it addresses some of the weaknesses which previous models have garnered criticism for and presents its applicability to numerous situations.

A number of sustainability models have been presented and considered, evidencing an academic interest in the visualisation of the complexities of corporate sustainability.

2.1.2 Motivations for Corporate Sustainability

In addition to understanding how a business can become sustainable, it is also necessary to understand why a business would want to embrace sustainability measures. These reasons or motivations are not always associated with making more money. It is important to understand the motivations for an organisation to go beyond its legal requirements and, seemingly, to forfeit profit potential, as green business practices climb higher up consumer (Freestone and McGoldrick, 2008; Shaw and Newholm, 2002), government (DEFRA, 2005) and business agendas.

2.1.2.1 Competitive Motivations

A rational economic motivation for a company to embrace new processes and practices is to make more money. A variety of studies have shown how the adoption of sustainability practices such as pollution abatement, enables an organisation to increase its bottom line (e.g. Porter and van der Linde, 1995; Savitz and Webber, 2007;).

Competitiveness was one of three dominant motivations found in Bansal and Roth's (2000) qualitative study into the reasons why organisations adopt ecological practices. It was defined as "*the potential for ecological responsiveness to improve long-term profitability*" (p. 724) and represents one of the strongest motivations for an organisation to become environmentally proactive. Believing that environmentally-proactive behaviour can deliver business opportunities which support the long-term sustainability of the business, managers are thus motivated to alter business process and systems in order to find the so-called "sustainability

sweet spots” (Savitz and Weber, 2007). Paulraj (2009) conducted empirical research which supported competitiveness as a motivation for the adoption of corporate environmental strategy and green practices. Those respondents displaying competitive motivations were specifically interested in building long-term profit potential by developing resources and capabilities that were ecologically-related.

Gonzalez-Benito and Gonzalez-Benito (2005) expanded the competitiveness motivation identified by Bansal and Roth (2002) into two distinct categories: operational motivation and commercial motivation. According to their categorisation, operational motivation refers to the belief that an increase in productivity and a corresponding reduction in cost are possible through the environmental transformation of the operations system; in particular through better product and process design. Commercial motivation occurs when differentiation of products, leading to a corresponding increase in sales, are the drivers for adopting sustainable business practices. Managers experiencing operational motivation implemented different environmental transformations within their companies than those experiencing commercial motivation.

Interestingly, the link between the implementation of environmental practices and greater economic performance is variously supported and unsupported by academic research (for a systematic review see Miles and Covin, 2000). More recently, Bryson and Lombardi (2009) found sustainability added competitive advantage, whilst Luo and Bhattachaya (2006) found that returns can be both positive and negative depending upon a firms’ corporate ability. It seems there are no definite conclusions (Schaltegger and Synnestvedt, 2002).

2.1.2.2 Ethical Motivations

Many businesses embrace sustainability practices because it is “the right thing to do” (Agle et al., 1999; Banerjee, 2001; Wood, 1991). Such ethically motivated businesses even pursue these practices to the detriment of the bottom line, at least in the short-medium term, because company values emphasize a sense of responsibility (Buchholz, 1991). Beyond company values, managers’ own personal values also influence or change organisational projects in accordance

with their own moral interests (Hemingway and MacLagan, 2004). Likewise, Banerjee (2001) found evidence of an “internally focused” environmental orientation, meaning managers’ personal concern for the environment is manifested through their organisations’ mission statements and other external communications.

Bansal and Roth (2000) found evidence that suggests ethical motivations do drive ecological responsiveness. In particular, concern for the social good was a salient feature of this type of motivation. This supports previous studies (e.g., Buchholz, 1991; Wood, 1991; Banerjee, 2001) which noted how companies act out of a sense of responsibility rather than self-interest. However, Gonzalez-Benito and Gonzalez-Benito (2005) found that ethical motivations lead to environmental transformations which are highly perceivable from outside the company, for instance, sponsoring of environmental events, collaboration with ecological organisations and regular voluntary environmental reporting to stakeholders. Such activities do not improve environmental performance, unless accompanied by changes in the operational system. This is assumed to indicate how managers with ethical motivations feel the need to justify their actions and assuage their feelings of guilt, which would imply a form of self-interest on behalf of the management. Fineman (1996) investigated the emotional subtexts in the greening of UK supermarkets and found that claims of ethically- motivated “greenness” were actually motivated by self-interest and *“few green managers exhibit moral conscience....when considering environmental protection”* (p. 492). Decisions were ultimately attuned to the organisation’s profit interests.

These contrasting results imply that further research into the existence of an “ethical” motivation for corporate environmentalism is necessary.

2.1.2.3 Legitimization Motivation

A further motivational driver for businesses to engage in sustainability measures is the desire to be perceived as legitimate by stakeholders of the organisation. Meeting legal standards is, of course, mandatory but also crucial if an organisation wishes to remain credible and avoid bad publicity associated with their environmental impact (Bansal and Roth, 2000). Meeting legal standards is

also crucial for an organisation to avoid fines and penalties associated with non-compliance. The importance of present and future regulation is a key driver for companies to develop a strategy on climate change. Indeed, nearly 100% of the UK FTSE 100 companies that report on their carbon management programme openly admit on their website to the importance of regulation as a driver for such strategies (Okereke, 2007).

Legitimation is the motivation to abide by expectations held by stakeholders of the business such as government, shareholders, employees, customers and the general public, environmental and industry regulators, environmental pressure groups and the media. Activities associated with this type of motivation includes, conducting environmental audits and aligning the firm with environmental advocates. In Harvey and Schaefer's (2001) study, government, and those stakeholders with an institutional power base, were found to be the most influential stakeholders and consequently received much attention from business management. Shareholders and owners, whilst powerful, were not found to be drivers of environmental management except in a constraining sense. It seems the motivation for legitimacy is therefore dependent upon management's perception of the importance of satisfying different stakeholders' expectations.

Hooghiemstra (2002) demonstrates how acting legitimately can be viewed from a corporate communications perspective and improve image and reputation amongst stakeholders. Interestingly, Deephouse and Carter (2005) noted the similarity between the constructs organisational legitimacy and organisational reputation. This lends weight to Hooghiemstra's findings and supports the idea that managers may be motivated by improvements in reputation in addition to the motivation of being seen to be legitimate.

2.2 The Individual and Society

Individuals in industrialised countries are consuming far beyond their basic human needs (Shaw et al., 2006). However, some consumers are taking actions to limit their environmental impact and these consumers have interested scholars for several decades. This section reviews the literature regarding the pro-

environmental behaviour, responsibility and barriers to engaging with environmentalism.

2.2.1 Pro-environmental Behaviour

Stern (2000) defines environmentally significant behaviours in two ways; by impact and by intention. Environmental behaviour can be defined by impact, that is the extent to which materials and energy availability is changed or the way the ecosystem is altered. Impact usually relates to behaviour which damages or irreversibly changes the environment and is often a consequence of human desires and consumption. According to Stern (2000) it is only relatively recently that human decision-making has taken into account environmental protection. This important development has seen the emergence of the second intent-orientated definition. This is behaviour that is carried out intentionally to benefit the environment. Unlike impact, which is a consequence or by-product of human lifestyles, intent is an independent cause of behaviour.

It is this intent-orientated definition of environmental behaviour that has received much academic research, and is commonly termed pro-environmental behaviour. Pro-environmental behaviour is defined as “*behaviour that harms the environment as little as possible, or even benefits the environment*” (Steg and Vlek, 2009: p. 309). It is a voluntary action which provides a “public good” (Clarke et al., 2003). It is thought that by understanding the influences on pro-environmental behaviour, policymakers, social marketers and educators will be better able to tailor intervention strategies to encourage pro-environmental behaviour.

2.2.2 Influences on Pro-environmental Behaviour

Researchers have, for several decades, been interested in the determinants of pro-environmental behaviour. As such, this area of research is well developed. The most commonly researched determinant is environmental concern but contextual and habitual factors also play a role in influencing behaviour.

2.2.2.1 Environmental Concern

Environmental concern can be defined as either a specific attitude that directly determines environmentally significant behaviour, or as a more encompassing

value orientation or general attitude (Fransson and Garling, 1999). Stern and Dietz (1994) argue that environmental concern is based on a person's general set of values. By combining two existing theories – the normal activation model (NAM) (Schwartz, 1977) and the New Environmental Paradigm (Dunlap and Van Liere, 1978), Stern (1993) identified three different value orientations; egoistic, social-altruistic, and biospheric. The egoistic value orientation refers to concern for self and people with this value orientation act out of self-interest. The social-altruistic value orientation refers to concern about the welfare of other human beings. The biospheric value orientation refers to concern for nonhuman species or the biosphere itself. These three value orientations were later confirmed by Schultz (2001).

Regardless of the theoretical framework adopted, a number of studies have shown a relationship between greater environmental concern and acting in a pro-environment way. Nonetheless, this relationship is not particularly strong (e.g., Poortinga et al., 2004; Schultz and Zelezny, 1998; Vining and Ebreo, 1992). Knowledge about environmental issues and appropriate behaviour strategies has been found to moderate the relationship between environmental concern and behaviour (Hines et al., 1987). It can be inferred therefore, that informational strategies aimed at increasing environmental knowledge and corresponding behaviour strategies, may increase the strength of this relationship and result in higher levels of pro-environmental behaviour.

Whilst an array of research has been conducted into environmental concern and its effect on pro-environmental behaviour, the construct is only one factor influencing environmentally-responsible behaviour and contextual and habitual factors must also be considered.

2.2.2.2 Contextual Factors

Several scholars have considered how contextual factors can ease or constrain individual environmental behaviour (Olander and Thorgeresen, 1995; Stern, 1993; Thorgeresen, 2005). For instance, the availability of recycling facilities or public transport will likely affect the uptake of recycling or the reduction of car usage respectively. However, in their review, Steg and Vlek (2009) note how contextual

factors have not been systematically examined in environmental psychology, despite the maturity of the research field.

Contextual factors play an important role in understanding pro-environmental behaviour. The table below summarises the different ways contextual factors may operate:

Table 2.3: The Effect of Contextual Factors on Pro-Environmental Behaviour

	How Contextual Factor can influence behaviour	Example	Reference
1	CF may directly affect behaviour	Public transport must be available for people to use it, while free public transport may increase usage	Bamberg and Schmidt, 1999; Fujii and Kitamura, 2004
2	The relationship between CF and behaviour may be mediated by motivational factors (i.e. attitudes, personal norms, or affect)	Introduction of recycling facilities may produce a more positive attitude towards recycling, positive attitudes may in turn produce higher uptake of recycling	Steg and Vlek, 2009
3	CF may moderate the relationship between motivational factors and behaviour	Environmental concern may only result in reductions in car use when feasible alternatives are available	Geller, 1995
4	CF may determine which type of motivations most strongly affects behaviour	Normative motivations may be strongly related to frequency of recycling when facilities are available	Guagnano et al., 1995

Source: Adapted from Steg and Vlek (2009)

Given the importance of contextual factors, and their influence on pro-environmental behaviour, more research is necessary to understand the interaction between contextual factors, motivational factors and behaviour (Steg and Vlek, 2009). This may advance existing theoretical models, leading to a greater understanding of pro-environmental behaviour and facilitate more effective intervention strategies.

2.2.2.3 Habitual Factors

A further consideration when considering pro-environmental behaviour is whether this is driven by reasoned choices or whether it is merely a function of habit. Habits occur when people frequently act in the same way in a certain situation.

Provided a satisfactory outcome occurs, then that situation becomes associated with the particular type of behaviour which brought about the satisfactory outcome. As the frequency of the situation increases, the stronger the association becomes, and the more likely it is that an individual will act this way in the future (Aarts et al., 1998). Habits are therefore a cognitive process wherein previously learnt behaviour is retrieved from memory in a particular situation (Steg and Vlek, 2009).

Aarts and Dijksterhuis (2000) developed a frequency-response measure of general habit strength, which has been used successfully in a number of studies on environmental behaviour (e.g., Arts and Dijksterhuis, 2000; Aarts et al., 1998; Klockner et al., 2003) confirming the importance of habitual behaviour in the study of pro-environmental behaviour. A deeper understanding of habits is needed however, in particular how to modify habitual behaviour, in order for intervention strategies to be as effective as possible.

Several authors have considered ways in which routinized behaviours and habits can be changed. Warde's (2005) article presents 'theories of practice' and discusses how they relate to consumption. In the course of engaging in particular social practises consumption will occur. Additionally, being a good practitioner requires the appropriation of the correct items and tools in order to conduct the practice well. As such, consumption occurs within, and for the sake of, practice (Warde, 2005). Theories of practice offer a different lens to view the patterning and conventions of social life. Southerton (2013) asserts that reducing habits down to generic descriptions of behaviour will not enable deeper understandings of the reproduction of everyday practices, and the relationships between the practices themselves must be examined in order to tackle unsustainable consumption. Rettie et al. (2014) believes that by positioning green behaviours as normal, these behaviours will become accepted through a process of 'social normalisation'. Green marketing initiatives which attempt to target a niche type of consumer inhibits social normalisation as these behaviours are not considered normal by the larger population. New behaviours, when positioned as normal, will gradually become accepted and, correspondingly, existing behaviours will

become less accepted. This research places marketing at the heart of changing habits and suggests a larger role for the profession.

2.2.3 Conventional and Moral Responsibility

From the individual perspective, there has been research undertaken into how responsible people feel for the environment and correspondingly, how this affects their intentions and actions (e.g., Kaisa and Shimoda, 1999; Kaisa et al., 1999).

Kaisa and Shimoda (1999) demonstrate how responsibility can be viewed from both a conventional and moral perspective. Conventional responsibility stems from knowledge of what others expect one to do and a readiness to accept these social expectations. Moral responsibility stems from a sense of personal obligation to act in the benefit of others. This form of responsibility requires that the person experiencing it is aware of the consequences of their actions or behaviours and therefore ascribes personal responsibility to act in a way that benefits others (Vining and Ebreo, 1992). Kaisa and Shimoda (1999) found that people experience moral rather than conventional responsibility towards behaving ecologically. However, since the authors couldn't establish a measure for social expectation, a crucial aspect of measuring conventional responsibility, this assumption has limited impact.

2.2.4 Sustainable Consumption

Beyond "pro-environmental behaviour", there has been a movement by groups of concerned individuals towards sustainable consumption. This is defined as "*patterns of consumption that satisfy basic needs, offer humans the freedom to develop their potential, and are replicable across the whole globe without compromising the Earth's carrying capacity*" (Hertwich, 2005, p: 4673). The focus on consuming less or consuming better has for many become the mantra for sustainable consumption. However, Jackson (2008) has doubts whether consuming "better" – which refers to efficiency – is as effective as consuming less (sufficiency). Voluntary simplicity is a type of consumer behaviour in which consumers choose to simplify their lifestyles and consume less. This is driven by motivations that are not associated with coercion or financial pressure, it is a voluntary choice made by the consumer. Etzoni (1998) identifies three types of voluntary simplifiers; downshifters, strong simplifiers and holistic simplifiers.

Downshifters are the most modest type of voluntary simplifiers, choosing to forgo some luxury products they could otherwise afford. Shaw and Newholm (2002) point out that the driver of their behaviour is mostly a self-centred response to contemporary lifestyles and the dissatisfaction of living within a hurried pace of life. The associated downshifting behaviour may have little to do with any wider social concerns, i.e., concern for the environment. Strong simplifiers are more radical and are those consumers who give up high-paying jobs to live more simply on a lower income. This curtailment of income leads to a stronger simplification of lifestyle than selective downshifting of certain items. Holistic simplifiers are similar to strong simplifiers but are more radical still, adjusting their entire lifestyle in line with their consumption ethics (Ballantine and Creery, 2010). This may include moving house to less affluent or urbanised areas in order to fulfil the goal of a simpler life. Etzioni (1998) also notes the rise of a loosely connected group sometimes called the “simple living” movement. Popular and sometimes award-winning blogs on the internet now give guidance on ways to embrace simple living and move away from mass consumerism (e.g., <http://down---to---earth.blogspot.com>). That such internet sites are so popular reflects a growing movement of people looking for satisfaction through a more simplified way of life and consequently, turning their backs on the traditional consumerist society.

A more simplified lifestyle has also been forced upon many people by the 2008 global recession. Such adaptations to lifestyle and consumption patterns are not voluntary and therefore do not earn the title voluntary simplicity. Nonetheless, the recession has provided further incentive for consumers to take action to curtail spending and look for new ways to derive satisfaction. The recession has also impacted on the advancement of ‘thrifty’ consumer behaviour. Such behaviour may be explained by the construct ‘*smart-shopper self-perception*’ (Schindler, 1989) which describes how the consumer searches out price-savings and the consequent feeling of winning brings about a positive evaluation of one’s competence (Weinerner, 1986)

It is becoming increasingly important for businesses (and their marketing departments) to meet the demands of the consumer in terms of helping them to

consume less or better. For example, food retailers provide advice on their websites regarding how to plan a weekly shopping trip in order to minimise waste and provide recipe ideas (and associated shopping lists) which can feed the family within a certain budget. White goods retailers are offering more energy efficient options which save consumers money in the long term.

However, it is repeatedly stated that consumption patterns need to radically change in order to stop short the on-going environmental degradation associated with ever increasing consumption. In order to assist these changes in consumption patterns and ensure long term business sustainability, businesses and their marketing teams will need to strategically rethink their entire business model; from the products they offer and where they are sourced and manufactured, to the ways in which they communicate with customers and win over the most hardened “simple living” enthusiast.

2.2.5 Barriers to Engaging with Climate Change

Several scholars have investigated the barriers to pro-environmental behaviour (e.g., Lorenzoni et al., 2007; Kollmus and Agyman, 2002). There are a range of factors that can prevent the uptake of environmental behaviour even if the individual is aware and motivated. Lorenzoni et al. (2007) identified factors at an individual and societal level. Individual barriers include lack of knowledge, scepticism, distrust of information, externalising responsibility, climate change threat feels too distant, reluctance to change lifestyles, helplessness, and fatalism. Social barriers include lack of political action, lack of action by business, social norms and expectations, free-rider effect, and lack of enabling initiatives. These barriers will be explored in more detail.

2.2.5.1 Individual Barriers

It is unsurprising to note that lack of knowledge is an individual barrier to pro-environmental behaviour. Hinds et al., (1987) discovered the moderating effect of knowledge on the relationship between environmental concern and behaviour. However, in Lorenzoni et al.’s (2007) qualitative study, it is possible to gain more insight. Lack of knowledge refers to more than just non-possession of information. It includes misinformation, difficulty understanding scientific information,

information over-load, conflicting information and even lack of desire to find information. Kollmus and Agyman (2002) conclude that environmental knowledge explains only a small fraction of environmental behaviour, however, it remains an important barrier which requires consideration from people designing intervention strategies. If economic incentives are offered to encourage pro-environmental behaviour, then when these incentives are removed or changed, unsustainable patterns of behaviour may return because the environmental behaviour was not accompanied by knowledge of why it is important to behave or act in a certain way.

Another barrier identified is scepticism about the reality of climate change, and the importance of preventative actions (Lorenzoni et al., 2007). One probable driver of scepticism is the UK media. With regards to climate change, the Institute of Public Policy Research (IPPR) conducted a study into discourse in the UK media and found that even on the subject of climate change itself, the media offered contradictory information.

“For every argument or perspective, whether on the scale of the problem, its nature, seriousness, causation or reversibility, there is a voice declaring its opposite. The conclusion must be that the battle is not won: climate change is not yet an issue that is taken for granted” (Ereaut and Segnit, 2006: p.7).

Whilst there is almost near-unanimous agreement amongst climate scientists that the earth is warming, the public still perceive that there isn't agreement amongst scientists. This misconception influences the general public into believing that global warming isn't occurring therefore that action to reduce global warming is not a priority (Lorenzoni et al., 2007). This misconception is partly driven by organised climate change sceptics but it does highlight the need to create better means of disseminating research, so that the public are kept up to date with the advances in the scientific community. Furthermore, scandals like the one seen at East Anglia University in 2010 where it was suggested had been manipulated (BBC, 2010) can only further exacerbate scepticism amongst the general public.

Distrust in information sources was identified by Lorenzoni et al. (2007) as another barrier to acting environmentally. Such distrust in sources is linked to scepticism. Because the media report conflicting and contradictory views, information or opinions, the public have become inherently distrustful of media sources. Tabloid newspapers are the least trusted source of scientific facts, whilst scientists working for universities are considered to be the most trusted source (MORI, 2005). This trust was undermined by the University of East Anglia by the “Climate-gate” scandal. Better dissemination of research amongst the public is likely to improve the belief that environmental behaviour is both timely and necessary.

Individuals have been found to externalise the responsibility for environmental problems, attributing its causes and related required actions to others. Government, business and even other nations can all be considered more responsible by an individual trying to shift the blame. Equally, the idea that “technology will save us” is another form of excuse for the uptake of environmental behaviour (Lorenzoni et al., 2007). Delegation, or the refusal to accept personal responsibility, was also noted as a barrier to pro-environmental behaviour by Kollmus and Agyman (2002) and is considered to be a means of removing feelings of guilt.

For many people, it seems that despite understanding the threat of environmental issues like global warming, the futurity of the consequences means individuals find it difficult to visualise these consequences or perceive the immediacy of the situation (Lorenzoni et al., 2007). Also, unless consequences are immediate or personally relevant, there is an evolutionary tendency for people not to notice (Moser and Dilling, 2004). Therefore, better communication of consequences, with strategies to make these consequences become more immediate and personally relevant, are essential in order to remove this barrier.

Perhaps the biggest barrier for individuals is the need to radically alter their lifestyles. (Lorenzoni et al., 2007). Individuals appear to be tolerant to slight lifestyle changes, e.g. recycling, however, major lifestyle changes such as giving up foreign holidays or reducing car usage, are not acceptable (Dembkowski and

Hanmer-Lloyd, 1994). Furthermore, lifestyle changes are difficult to implement when combined with scepticism, distrust in information sources, and the feeling that any action taken now is “too-little-too-late”. This “smallness” problem, in which individual or community-based action is considered too small to make a difference (Dobson, 2010), can act as a barrier to pro-environmental behaviour.

2.2.5.2 Social Barriers

Lorenzoni et al. (2007) identified a number of social barriers to engaging with pro-environmental behaviour. Individuals who perceive both governments and businesses lacking in environmental action are themselves unlikely to engage in environmental behaviours. This implies that some individuals require leadership in this area. Government are the obvious choice, but it has been shown that governments have not acted strongly enough or enacted enough change (Robbins, 1999). Equally businesses have been criticised for not doing more, and an increasing number of industries have come “under fire” from environmentalists over the last four decades (Elkington, 1994). This lack of action from government and industry also exacerbates the “free-rider” problem, in which individuals feel aggrieved by others benefiting from their efforts without contributing themselves to the solution (Georg, 1999). The free-rider problem is a difficult one to surmount but it is recommended that greater community-based action can overcome this barrier (Dobson, 2010).

Social norms and expectations produce another barrier to acting environmentally. The importance that society attaches to status symbols, such as cars, foreign holidays and electronic goods, create feelings of “need” rather than “want” as people feel they are expected to purchase such things (Steg and Sievers, 2000). This desire to “keep up with the Jones’s” makes it difficult for consumers to escape from the cycle of continuous consumption.

Finally, a lack of enabling initiatives means some consumers are unable to engage in pro-environmental behaviour, even when they are motivated and keen to do so. Sanne (2002) investigated to what extent individuals are “willing consumers” or merely locked in to unsustainable lifestyles by the conditions of urban living, the effects of pervasive marketing and working life conditions, which

favour a work-and-spend lifestyle. Sanne (2002) found that some consumers are locked in to unsustainable consumption patterns by circumstances that are deliberately created by producer and business interests. Furthermore, political systems need to move beyond the *“dogma of economic growth or redefine it in terms of political welfare of a less material-dominated kind”* (p.286).

The barriers identified at a social and individual level are complex and require co-ordinated strategies (and policies) to overcome. As such, campaigns aimed at improving environmentalism need to address these barriers carefully with the support of individuals, government, business and other stakeholder groups, if they are to manage effectively the transition to more sustainable lifestyles.

2.3 The Role of Government

The role of the government is next explored with respect to sustainability. The role can be wide and has far-reaching ramifications for society. The importance of sustainable policy is also considered.

2.3.1 Government Roles

Bell (2002) identifies a number of roles for government; vision/goal setter, leader by example, facilitator, green fiscal authority and innovator/catalyst.

It is important for a government to create a vision for their nation and provide goals which enable the achievement of that vision to be monitored. A vision which puts sustainability at the core will invariably involve some shift in values. It is one of a government's roles to steer society towards these goals and assist the shift in values. One innovative route forwards would be that suggested by Lovins et al. (2007) called Natural Capitalism. Here, eco-system services are valued on company balance sheets and capitalism thus begins to include the biggest category of capital – natural capital. Whilst Lovins et al. (2007) believe such a shift would involve major changes in business practices, but it must also be accompanied by an equally visionary government to support and assist the transition.

Governments are also expected to lead by example. For example, Bowen et al. (2009) recommends that governments demonstrate their commitment to sustainability through “green procurement”. Such a commitment can “kick-start” innovative and sustainable markets and demonstrates a more responsible and thoughtful use of public funds. Furthermore, United Nations expect its members to embrace sustainable consumption practices and demonstrate commitment to changing consumption from a top-down approach (United Nations, 2001). Often government party leaders are accused of being out-of-touch with the general public due to higher than average salaries and (more recently) scandals over expense claims (http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/uk_news/politics/8301443.stm). This dilutes public confidence and trust. A strong “lead by example” position is needed at both a governmental and individual level, in order to encourage both business and the general public to embrace new values.

Creating the right market conditions and providing the correct infrastructure is a further part of governments’ role, according to Bell (2002). This facilitator role is essential for businesses, consumers and society groups to be able to embrace sustainability measures into their lives. Hobson (2004) believes that indicators beyond those for economic growth better suit the aims of sustainability. These include quality-of-life and well-being indicators. The previous Labour government were keen to keep an “economy-first” discourse as the pivotal part of their approach (Gibbs, 2000), however their arm’s length policies did not reflect a change in ideology from what had previously been seen. Likewise, the current Conservative government have adopted an approach known as ‘nudge’, in which behaviour science is used to understand how people act in the real world and then use this knowledge as a basis for changing behaviour. However, the Sustainable Development Commission (SDC, 2011) noted that it remains unclear how the Coalition government will use the nudge approach in practice. Furthermore, the SDC noted how it is crucial for the government to facilitate greater changes in consumer behaviour:

“..it is vital for Government to ensure that investment is made in altering the choice architecture – i.e. the structural context in which we live our lives –

without which it will be impossible to deliver the scale of transformation necessary” (SDC, 2011).

Bell (2002) notes the importance of a tax system in building a sustainable economy. In order for society to value environmental assets and eco-system services, it is necessary to price them accordingly. Nonetheless, Bowen et al. (2009) believe a long-term policy framework for tackling climate change entails more than just green taxes, namely

- i. Stimulating the development of low-carbon technologies
- ii. Pricing greenhouse gas emissions so that the costs that they impose are reflected
- iii. Encouraging people to regard emissions as a “bad”
- iv. Promoting adaptation

The Bowen et al. (2009) policy briefing paper specifically looked at green fiscal measures in light of the global recession. Despite calls from numerous governments to concentrate on growth rather than cutting emissions during this turbulent time, the authors recognise the dangers in adopting such an approach. Investing in infrastructure which locks in high greenhouse gas emissions will make it more difficult to cut emissions in the future and also reduce the incentive for innovative solutions from business. In 2008, the United Kingdom enshrined in law the objective of cutting emissions by 80% by 2050. Meeting targets like this will be difficult without appropriate fiscal reforms such as public spending, rewarding innovations, pricing emissions and taxing main offenders, and encouraging adaptation at both a regional and national level.

The final role identified by Bell (2002) is that of innovator/catalyst. It is the government’s role to encourage innovation from businesses in finding low-carbon production processes, closed loop systems and encouraging research and development into new technologies and new materials. New ways of thinking are required to move all members of society towards sustainability, sustainable consumption and low carbon lifestyles. These new ways of thinking need to be nurtured and encouraged by the government in order to send the correct messages to society which can begin to effect change.

2.3.2 Sustainable Consumption Policy

During the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, governments committed to encouraging sustainable consumption, because of increasing recognition that unsustainable consumption levels in industrialised countries are a major contributor to environmental degradation (United Nations, 1997). Consequently, governments have implemented policies in response to the need to manage consumption. These policy decisions are crucially important in providing the infrastructure, incentive and change in values that are necessary to change the way people consume.

Moving towards sustainable consumption requires two approaches (Spangenberg and Lorek, 2002). Firstly there must be an improvement in the eco-efficiency of consumption. This means, a reduction in resource consumption per unit of consumption (Fuchs and Lorek, 2005). This efficiency is mainly achievable through technological improvements, such as improved production processes or an efficiency-friendly design. Such products are becoming more common place in the market, with products available made entirely from recycled materials or made with “cradle-to-grave” technologies. However, consumption efficiency alone is not enough to create sustainable consumption. Fuchs and Lorek (2005) refer to this as a weak version of sustainable consumption. A strong version would be seen by the second approach in which consumption patterns are changed and levels of consumption are reduced. Berg (2011) refers to this as sufficiency and, notes how sufficiency is less emphasized in government programs than efficiency. Likewise, Fuchs and Lorek (2005) note how sufficiency or “strong sustainable consumption” is virtually absent from political debate. This is likely because of the government need in many industrialised countries to demonstrate economic growth. Whilst economic growth remains the preoccupation of governments, policy to tackle rising consumption levels will not be implemented.

2.4 Chapter Summary

The chapter has reviewed a range of literature across a number of disciplines with respect to business, consumer and governmental roles and responsibilities. The

literature reveals a range of motivations for business and consumers to engage in sustainability but there are discrepancies about the benefits such an approach can bring. With respect to government, the increasing focus on sustainable development has been brought about by international concern. There are a number of roles government can adopt in order to foster sustainable consumption from their citizens.

The next chapter moves on to consider the marketing discipline in terms of its expanding role and the possible contribution it can make to sustainable consumption. This extends the literature presented in this chapter by focusing more narrowly on the marketing profession rather than the larger business role. It is fundamental to assess the expanding role of the profession in order to understand how the field of marketing has advanced, the challenges and criticisms it faces, and how the profession has changed so much that questions of responsibility can even be levied at it.

Chapter Three

The Evolving Nature of Marketing

3.0 Introduction

The previous chapter reviewed the literature pertaining to business, consumer and government responsibility with respect to sustainability. This chapter progresses from the previous by looking specifically at the changing role of marketing. In order to question the responsibility of marketing to encourage moderation of consumption, it is necessary to understand current trends within the marketing profession with respect to environmental and social issues.

The discipline of marketing has been expanding and evolving since its applicability to areas outside the business domain was identified. Literature concerning social and green marketing is reviewed, before the discipline of CSR, and its connectedness to sustainability, is discussed. The chapter concludes with a consideration of the relationship between marketing and consumption which underpins the thesis objectives.

3.1 Social Marketing

The emergence of social marketing in the early 1960's enabled a crucial expansion of the marketing concept into areas beyond commercial exchange. This important work by foresighted scholars has since allowed marketing to be applied in other areas and as such an overview of this expansion is presented. More recently, social marketing research pertaining to sustainability and promotion of sustainable consumption has been conducted and this is also presented.

3.1.1 Social Marketing Definitions

As early as 1969, marketing's applicability to areas beyond commercial exchange has been questioned. Kotler and Levy (1969) presented the idea that marketing is a "pervasive societal activity that goes considerably beyond the selling of toothpaste, soap and steel" (p.10). They provide examples of occasions where

marketing is utilized within the not-for-profit sector, such as the notion that fundraising implies that “causes” are marketed.

During the early 1970s much was written to assert marketing’s changing societal role (e.g. Feldman, 1971; Kotler and Zaltman, 1971). Feldman (1971) discussed the tension between businesses’ need for profit (and individual’s limitless needs) and the depletion of available resources that are occurring due to these business and individual pursuits. He considered that a combination of boundless individual needs and limited material and environmental resources would set the stage for a struggle between individual and societal objectives. Consequently, it is Feldman’s assertion that marketing must play a role in reducing this tension or conflict between individual and societal goals. He suggests that future alternatives for marketing could include emphasizing nonmaterial consumption, stressing societal criteria and even a participation in social planning.

Kotler and Zaltman (1971) also viewed social marketing as a promising framework for planning and implementing social change. At the time, however, the authors believed that social marketing was poorly understood. Accordingly, Kotler and Zaltman (1971) provided a clear definition of social marketing:

“Social marketing is the design, implementation, and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product, pricing communication, distribution and marketing research” (p.5).

However, some questioned this definition on the basis that they found it confusing (Luck, 1974). Bartels (1974) provided a further definition which defined social marketing as “the application of marketing techniques to nonmarketing fields”. But Bagozzi (1975) rejected this stating that the definition should not be limited to the tools of the discipline; that “a science or discipline is something more than its technologies” (p. 37). Instead Bagozzi believes that it is exchange theory which defines marketing and consequently social marketing.

Yet even in 1994, Andreasen felt that there is still disagreement surrounding the definition of social marketing and how it is set apart from other fields. Accordingly, Andreasen provides criteria for defining a social marketing program;

- It must apply commercial marketing technology
- Its primary objective must be to influence voluntary behaviour
- It must primarily seek to benefit individuals or society rather than the marketing organisation itself.

The inclusion of the first criteria ultimately underlines social marketing; the application of marketing technology. The use of the full complement of the marketing mix, not just the fourth P – promotion, distinguishes social advertising from social marketing.

Nonetheless, the expansion of marketing towards wider social issues has gained strong academic support. In 1985, Martin noted that the discipline had continued to grow and comprise an increasing number of “issues, phenomena and applications” (p.6).

3.1.2 Social Marketing and Sustainability

Social marketing is now a commonly used tool by governments, NGOs and not-for-profit organisations to bring about change in society. For instance, campaigns designed to raise awareness of smoking cessation, pollution abatement and sensible drinking have all been implemented in the last few decades. Social marketing is often carried out in order to alter public health behaviours (Glenane-Antoniadis et al., 2003). As concerns over rising consumption levels continue to grow (e.g. WCED, 1987), social marketing is becoming an important tool towards informing and changing consumer behaviour patterns. Social marketing is increasingly being considered and evaluated in terms of promoting sustainability and sustainable consumption (e.g. McKenzie-Mohr, 2000; Dinan and Sargeant, 2000). Peattie and Peattie (2009) highlight how social marketing techniques can be useful in promoting the “anti-consumption” message to consumers and making them acceptable. However, this message also needs to be considered in the

context of business in order to enable businesses to encourage more responsible buying practices from its customers without long-term damage to shareholder value. Frame and Newton (2007) also however, advise caution in the use of social marketing to encourage sustainable consumption. They assert that it is necessary to clarify the effectiveness of sustainability social marketing campaigns before large amounts of public spending is allocated.

3.1.3 Summary

Early marketing scholars interested in social marketing have paved the way for marketing tools to be applied outside the business environment and enabled the expansion of the marketing concept. This has permitted some crucial advances within the world of marketing. The focus of this research would not have been possible (or even considered) if marketing had not been explored by these early researchers and applied beyond the business realm.

3.2. Marketing and the Environment

Marketing scholars have been interested with environmental factors and the interplay these have with the profession since the 1960's. The inclusion of environmental variables into marketing strategy and decision-making illuminated both the growing importance of green considerations for consumers, and the potential for organisations to benefit from the "green marketplace". Nonetheless there have been criticisms made of the way green marketing has developed as an academic subject area. This section will consider green marketing, its development and the criticisms levied at it. Despite the criticism, green marketing remains an important area on the research agenda and lays the foundation for more recent marketing research trends such as sustainable consumption and transformational marketing.

3.2.1 Green marketing

Green, environmental or sustainable marketing has been the interest of marketing scholars for several decades. As early as 1973, Fisk outlined criteria for a theory of responsible consumption which considered the costs and benefits associated with marketing planning and decision-making.

Green marketing can be considered from a micro-marketing or macro-marketing perspective. In terms of micro-marketing, green marketing concerns the application of environmental factors into commercial decisions and policies. Examples include environmental product attributes (Sriram and Forman, 1993), green labelling (de Boer, 2003), green pricing (Laroche et al., 2001), and green communication (Polonsky et al., 1998). In terms of macro-marketing, green marketing considers the environmental impact of marketing activities and current marketing systems (Chamorro et al., 2009). Scholars in this genre have investigated policy implications of green marketing (Neuner, 2000) and the failings of the dominant social paradigm and how it has hindered the development of green marketing (Kilbourne, 1998).

3.2.1.1 Development of Green Marketing

Marketing has developed its relationship with environmental issues since the 1960's. Peattie (2001) terms the early initiatives undertaken during the 1960's and 1970's as "ecological marketing" where marketing focused quite narrowly on reducing consumers' dependence on products found to cause particular harm, and these initiatives were mainly driven by legislation. The addition of catalytic converters to automotive vehicles was directly driven solely by legislation. During the 1980's, growing green consumer demand brought about "environmental marketing" which saw companies seeking competitive advantage from green marketing strategies. Peattie (2001) believes marketing is entering into its "third age" in which marketing needs to focus on sustainability and take account of the full costs of production and consumption in order to create a sustainable economy.

Prior to Peattie's (2001) article, Van Dam and Apeldoorn (1996) defined "sustainable marketing" as "*marketing within, and supportive of, sustainable economic development*" (p. 46). The authors assert that marketing is driving toward un-sustainability because it uses micromarketing strategies to achieve macromarketing goals. The authors believe that sustainable marketing requires regulatory frameworks in order to govern the role of marketing and instead of

concentrating efforts on how to avoid legislation, marketers should learn how to operate within “*necessary limitations*” (p. 54).

Whilst the terms ecological marketing, green marketing and sustainable marketing have been distinguished conceptually by various authors, these terms are commonly used synonymously to describe how the environmental variable can be incorporated into corporate marketing strategies and decision-making (Chamorro et al, 2009).

3.2.1.2 Criticism of Green Marketing

Peattie (1999) noted how there have been numerous changes to products, production systems, consumer behaviour and the legal environment. Despite this, the pattern of economic activity does not seem dramatically different to that identified as unsustainable in the Brundtland Report (WCED, 1987). Peattie (1999) resolves that some of the responsibility for the future must be borne by the companies whose actions shape it.

Other criticisms have also emerged about what has been achieved to date in relation to green marketing. Kilbourne and Beckman (1998) reviewed the literature pertaining to marketing and the environment and concluded

“...it should be pointed out that the majority of the research, even since 1995, remains managerialist in perspective and very similar to what preceded it for twenty-five years. It might be argued that as a result that marketing scholarship has made scant progress in more than two decades of research if we are still examining the same questions with the same methods” (p. 521).

Prothero and Fitchett (2000) note how marketing practices all too often exploit environmental themes without making any kind of long term contribution to addressing green issues. More recently, Peattie and Crane (2005) highlight how “green marketing” has significantly underachieved against early expectations. Green marketing strategies are often implemented in response to consumer demand. However, low levels of environmental literacy amongst consumers make the authors question whether it is unrealistic and irresponsible of marketers to

devolve responsibility entirely to consumers. Peattie and Crane (2005) conclude that for sustainable marketing to become a reality, marketers need to take some responsibility for guiding their consumers towards more sustainable behaviour.

It is important to note that much of the research on green marketing was carried out during the 1990's. Even more recent reviews on the subject (e.g. Chamarro et al., 2009) only investigated up to 2003. Since then, research on green marketing has been declining as researchers focus on issues such as marketing and sustainable consumption and transformation marketing. These current marketing research trends will be considered in section 2.4.

3.3 Corporate Social Responsibility

Corporate social responsibility is a discipline which incorporates social issues into the business domain. Sustainability has become, in recent years, a subset of these social issues and it is therefore pertinent to review the literature regarding the connectedness of sustainability and CSR.

3.3.1 CSR Definitions

Corporate social responsibility has attracted academic attention since its early conception by Bowen in 1953 (Carroll, 1999). There are a number of definitions and meanings given to corporate social responsibility. This is primarily because it is a broad concept (Mohr et al, 2001). Corporate social responsibility can be defined in similar terms to societal marketing. Societal marketing concerns business activities that are conducted in order to maintain or improve the well-being of both the customer and society (Kotler, 1991). Corporate social responsibility can also be defined in a multidimensional way. Carroll (1991) suggests that CSR comprises four dimensions; economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic. Each of these dimensions are considered in relation to an organisation's various stakeholders. This multidimensional approach offers a different and more detailed way of understanding corporate social responsibility. However, both definitions recognise that a company must have considerations beyond short-term profits in order to be considered socially responsible. Wood

(1991, p. 695) states “the basic idea of corporate social responsibility is that business and society are interwoven rather than distinct entities.”

Despite the existence of the academic concept of CSR for many decades, there still remains debate around its meaning. Gond and Moon (2011) identify that the meaning of CSR is overlapping, dynamic and contextual. By overlapping, Gond and Moon (2011) are referring to the range of labels and concepts which have been used synonymously or in conjunction with CSR. Examples include Corporate Social Responsiveness, Corporate Citizenship, Business Responsibility and Corporate Social Performance. However, despite such an overlap, Corporate Social Responsibility remains an important, encompassing “umbrella construct” at the interface between business and society (Garriga and Mele, 2004; Gond and Matten, 2007). In terms of being dynamic, Gond and Moon (2011) note how the construct has evolved since its introduction in the fifties with many changing definitions occurring during the development of the construct (see Gond and Moon (2011), for a table of conceptualisations and definitions of CSR; or Carroll (1999), for a history of the development of the term). Corporate responsibility is also contextual; up-to-date events or findings drive interest in CSR which creates a response and adaptation by organisations until a new set of events or findings re-ignite this cycle (Moon, 2007). CSR is thus a construct which continues to evolve and change. This evolutionary process is commonplace when a new concept emerges, nonetheless, the overlapping, dynamic and contextual nature suggests that CSR be classed as an essentially contested construct. The idea of essentially contested concepts was created by Gallie (1956) when he set out a theory to prove that there were concepts in existence that engender on-going disputes and changing explanations. Such contested constructs are still useful and despite a lack of universal agreement on meaning, there are still parameters which make contested constructs academically useful and important. A number of authors have noted the contested nature of CSR (e.g. Moon, 2007; Okoye, 2009). Nonetheless, the construct, whilst dynamic and contextual, is instrumental in our understanding of the expanding role of business and the responsibilities that businesses are willing to take on and address.

3.3.2 CSR and Corporate Sustainability

Corporate social responsibility and corporate sustainability are distinct constructs despite some suggestions that the terms are in effect converging (Montiel, 2008). Corporate sustainability is a relatively new academic term which developed from the WCED definition of sustainable development. This states that for development to be sustainable it must meet the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their needs (WCED, 1987). Corporate sustainability, therefore, concerns meeting the needs of an organisations' direct and indirect stakeholders without compromising its ability to meet the needs of future stakeholders (Dyllick and Hockerts, 2002) (for a detailed review of corporate sustainability see section 2.1).

There are some points of overlap between the two terms. Firstly, both CSR and CS are undertaken voluntarily by an organisation in order to address considerations beyond economic gains. Furthermore, the two terms are conceptualised in similar ways. According to Montiel (2008) a firm must address social equity, environmental integrity and economic prosperity in order to lay claim to being socially responsible. Similarly, the triple bottom line conceptualisation of CS comprises environmental, social and economic dimensions. Nonetheless, there are distinct points of difference.

CS utilises the triple bottom line approach (see section 2.1.2). However, unlike CSR where the dimensions are treated separately, CS views the different elements as linked: essentially a nested system (Mauerhofer, 2008). The economy is embedded within nature which is likewise embedded within nature. Whilst early CSR scholars did not integrate environmental issues into their conceptualisations of CSR (e.g. Adizes and Weston, 1973; Alexander and Buchholz, 1978), more recent authors have considered that environmental issues are a subset of social issues (e.g. Agle et al., 1999; Graves and Waddock, 1994). Whilst this inclusion brings CSR closer to CS, it does not demonstrate a connectedness which is essential to the CS conceptualisation.

Montiel (2008) further notices paradigmatic differences between CSR and CS. CS is typically grounded in the ecocentric paradigm which acknowledges that there are limits to growth and carrying capacity and also questions the ability of

technology to solve environmental problems (Gladwin et al., 1995). Conversely, CSR is rooted within the anthropocentric paradigm in which environmental issues are viewed in terms of the benefit to people. Despite the differences, Montiel (2008) suggests that there are integrative ways of working with both constructs in order to develop new theoretical constructs, and enhanced measurement scales of social and environmental performance.

Loew et al. (2004) noted the contribution CSR can make to sustainability. Interesting, it was noted how the EU's sustainability strategy (2001) identifies CSR as an important business tool which can enable organisations to work towards a sustainable economy. The contribution that CSR can make towards achieving a sustainable economy underlies the political drive to promote CSR.

3.3.3 CSR and Marketing

CSR has been an important business function for many decades, but it is important to understand how closely aligned it is to marketing. Both marketing and CSR have responsibility for external communications. But how integrated are these two functions and is there evidence of convergence?

In 1987, Robin and Reidenbach called for closer integration of marketing and social responsibility. The authors highlight how marketing decisions already entail multiple dimensions, including social responsibility. To separate this decision making from strategic marketing decision making, and allow another department to produce an *ex poste facto* review of decisions relating to social responsibility, is counter-productive.

There is empirical evidence that CSR and marketing are integrating. Jones et al. (2007) analysed the top ten British retailers and noted the use of CSR messages in marketing materials and in-store messages. However, the authors were unable to assert how strategic the integration was and if it was the result of an integrated strategic plan between the two functions. Conversely, Simmons (2009) found, at the branding level at least, that there was strategic thought throughout internal and external branding to evidence social responsibility.

Blomqvist and Posner (2004) describe three strategies for integrating marketing and CSR. The integrative approach relies on synchrony between the brand decisions and the CSR department. Whilst the authors describe this as the fully integrative, this seems to fall somewhat short. Marketing concerns more than brand management and for an organisation to fully integrate CSR and marketing, all marketing decisions, not just branding decision, need to work in synchrony with CSR. The selective approach requires a more cautious and considered approach to combining CSR and marketing. The use of sub-brands or partnerships is suggested in order to shield the parent company from any associated backlash which might occur. The third strategy is known as the invisible approach. This strategy is used by companies who believe in and partake in CSR activities but who don't use their CSR credentials in their brand marketing. This approach is practised by organisations who don't feel that CSR is a point of difference for their target market, or perhaps may hurt their core propositions (e.g. when an organisation is competing on value yet also practices philanthropy, the target audience may view charitable contributions as savings which should be passed on to the consumer).

None of these strategies look beyond brand decisions and how to integrate CSR and, as a consequence, can't be considered as fully integrative. Waddock and Bodwell (2004) proposed a different system which they termed responsibility management. This approach learns lessons from Total Quality Management in terms of linking the overall vision of the company to implementation of that vision through specific standards. Nonetheless, the authors assert that it will take mandated rather than voluntary actions in order to move some organisations to systematically consider responsibility management (for instance using an ISO schema).

What is clear from the research on the integration of marketing and CSR, is the paucity of research on aspects beyond branding and communications decisions. Marketing decisions extend dramatically beyond these areas and considerations in supply chain, logistics, pricing etc. are increasingly important as customers and other stakeholders take an active interest in company CSR.

3.3.4 CSR and Implementation

Organisations are investing heavily in CSR (Luo and Bhattacharya, 2006). In the 1990's over 1000 of the world's largest companies signed up to the International Chamber of Commerce's Charter for Sustainable Development. However, as Banerjee et al (2003) found, an organisations relationship with the environment is influenced by top management commitment. That commitment is a necessary prerequisite for an organisation to go beyond its legal requirements.

Despite the existence of CSR as an important business practice for several decades, CEO's are still finding the application of societal ethical standards challenging (Morimoto et al, 2005). Finding the balance between business and ethics is a real problem for some organisations. However, as more consumers are interested in the CSR strategies of the companies they purchase from, there remains an imperative for businesses to continue to grapple with this problem. Pava (2008) asserts that CSR is a valuable yet fragile social asset; fragile in the sense that it is difficult to achieve and manage. Yet some companies are successfully managing to achieve a balance. The Co-operative Group, for example, is concerned with more than just profits; they are concerned with how those profits are made.

The ESRC's Global Environmental Change Programme (2000), a ten-year research programme, found that pressures on businesses from regulation, competitors, consumers and environmental organisations grew during the 1990's. In response, many companies developed new environmental capabilities.

3.4 Marketing and Consumption

As consumption levels continue to rise, there has been questions raised surrounding marketing's role in modern consumption patterns and behaviours. This section presents literature relating to the tension between marketing and consumption. The emerging research field of transformational marketing is also considered as macro-marketing research suggests a new worldview for the marketing profession.

3.4.1 Marketing and Consumption

In much of the developed world, people consume far more than they need to serve their basic human needs (Shaw et al, 2006). As consumption levels increase, the effect on the environment from this “over-consumption” becomes a pressing concern on both business and academic agendas (Rivera-Camino, 2007). There has been a rise in the number of consumers who are concerned with their own consumption levels and look to either reduce or modify their consumption behaviour accordingly. These consumers are known as ethical consumers. Shaw and Newholm (2002) point out that despite ethical consumers being concerned with consumption levels, “*radical anticonsumerism may not be an option for them in a society than requires or demands some level of consuming*” (p. 168). Indeed, Hill (2002) and Holt (1998) are aware that individuals cannot escape the market, even those who want to live a simpler life. Yet, currently emerging are modified consumer behavioural patterns which see consumers simplifying their consumption behaviour or reducing it (see section 2.2.4 for a review of the literature regarding simplified consumer behaviour).

Whilst whole movements of consumers are exhibiting simplified consumer lifestyles, the majority of society still continues to consume too far beyond their essential needs. As population growth continues to rise steadily and developing countries create more economic wealth and, consequently, more consumer product demand, many environmentalists are becoming alarmed at the rate of rising consumption (BBC, 2011). What role does marketing play in fuelling the desire to consume? O’Shaughnessy and O’Shaughnessy (2002) tackle the subject of whether marketing is responsible for consumer society and hedonistic lifestyles, concluding that “*materialism became part of the human condition long before the first advertising executive*” (p. 545). Abela (2006) critically assesses O’Shaughnessy and O’Shaughnessy (2002) defences of marketing practice and finds associations between the rise of modern marketing and the historical development of consumerism. Despite the existence of a causal relationship remaining unclear, Abela (2006) asserts that marketing scholars should be apprehensive about their likely contribution to materialism.

Some scholars are more convinced that business, and marketing, are, at least in part, responsible for the rise in consumer culture. Assadourian (2010) points out that advertising, product placement, word-of-mouth marketing and more recently, marketing through social networks has assisted the cultivation of consumerism. Whilst these strategies aren't always effective for a particular product or service, this combined marketing effort by organisations each year develops wants and stimulates pressure on consumers contributing to the overall culture of consumerism. Furthermore, much of today's media output reinforces consumer aspirations and as a consequence strengthens consumerist norms (Cashmore, 2006)

Sheth and Sisodia (2005) assert that marketing needs a broader perspective which centres on improving the quality of life for customers and focuses on long-term issues about which customers really care. Increased efforts at consumer education may be able to correct the excessive materialism of the consumer society and lead to changes in behaviour in those consumers unaware that such behaviours do not lead to greater levels of satisfaction (Abela, 2006). Going beyond that, Sheth and Sisodia (2005) believe that marketing has the power to align corporate interests with societal causes which can help reduce the occurrence of materialism without decreasing the contribution of modern marketing to prosperity.

The complexities of the relationship between marketing and consumption are great. It is clear that marketing academics acknowledge a tension and suggestions on how this can be approached are emergent. The focus of this research intends to further assist knowledge by understanding the perceptions of marketing practitioners in terms of how much responsibility people within profession are currently assuming.

3.4.2 Transformational Marketing

Transformational marketing is an emerging research field, specifically interested in the power of marketing to alter consumer behaviour. Mitchell et al. (2010) call for the reformulation of the traditional marketing orientation. The authors suggest that by the inclusion of other factors such as macromarketing, corporate social

responsibility and sustainability management, a sustainable marketing orientation can be developed and implemented within organisations. Such a focus would move organisations away from a short-termist, unsustainable approach which has created adverse social, ecological and economic impacts. Similarly, Crittenden et al. (2011) highlight the ability of a sustainable market orientation to enhance firm performance through the development of resource advantages. Furthermore, Varman and Costa (2008) equally consider, from a macromarketing perspective, the importance of extending corporate strategies to include wider social and environmental concerns.

Welfare marketing is another focus in the transformational marketing agenda. Here, it is suggested that the dominant micro-managerial marketing system, with its focus on the identification and satisfaction of consumer wants and need, is in need of radical reform (Kadirov, 2011; Varey, 2010). A welfare marketing system is a macro-marketing approach to changing the current values, beliefs and economic systems which underlie marketing in its current guise. The micro-managerial marketing system supports the “trade-off conjecture” in which an increase in environmental degradation returns significant gains in societal welfare (Reidenbach and Olivia, 1983). The environmental damage is justified due to economic gain and a corresponding increase in consumer happiness. However, the trade-off conjecture is challenged due to research findings which imply that societal well-being is positively associated with environmental quality (e.g. Ferrer-i-Garbonell and Gowdy, 2007; Gowdy, 2005; Welsch 2006). Kadirov (2011) finds that when societal welfare is conceptualised as sustainability rather than economic welfare, then environmental degradation is negatively associated with societal welfare and consequently, marketing (as a macro system) is indirectly responsible for this. Marketing must therefore be driven to nurture broader natural and social environments as a fundamental part of the marketing offer. Whether the current form of managerial marketing can ever truly contribute to sustainability has been questioned in the past (e.g. Saren, 2007). Likewise, Varey (2010) recognises that marketing now requires a new set of alternative “values” where a contribution to society is the primary focus, and environmental costs and consequences are avoided.

3.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed literature from the disciplines of social marketing, green marketing, transformational marketing and CSR. It can be concluded that the field of marketing is still evolving in order to meet the changing demands of the competitive market place, stakeholders and consumers. Against the backdrop of this “flux” is the rise of consumerism and the quiet questioning of the marketers influence on consumer behaviour.

The next chapter explores the questions of responsibility with marketers using exploratory qualitative research methods in order to begin understanding the perceptions of marketing professionals.

Chapter Four

Research Methods: Qualitative Research

4.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the qualitative research that was carried out in order to begin to understand the perceptions of responsibility amongst marketing practitioners. This was necessary preliminary work in order to begin conceptualising the hypotheses for this exploratory research. The chapter is structured in the following way: the aims of the qualitative research are presented along with the framework and methodologies employed. The different phases of the qualitative research are discussed followed by presentation of the findings with respect to responsibility to encourage moderation and motivations to encourage moderation of consumption.

4.1 Epistemological Standpoint

Epistemology refers to the theory of knowledge; how it is legitimately produced and the scope of that knowledge (Walliman, 2006). There are two main approaches to producing knowledge in the social sciences; empiricism and rationalism. Empiricists believe that the source of all our knowledge is through sense experience. Rationalists believe that the source of all our knowledge is deductive reasoning (Markie, 2013). The choice of research methodology should follow the epistemological stance of the research (Holden and Lynch, 2004).

Both positivism and interpretivism were formed from empiricism, however, these two orientations are fundamentally contradictory to one another. Essentially, the main belief of positivism is that research should be as scientific as possible; it should emulate the natural sciences in its approach to research and knowledge production. As generally within the natural sciences, positivists believe there is a “truth” to discover, “a set of discoverable general laws governing human behaviour” (Cohen et al., 2000, p.17). Positivists, therefore, attempt to establish laws and causal explanations about the social and natural world (Malhotra and Birks, 2003) and this is achieved by simplifying phenomena and developing and

testing hypotheses (Gray, 2009). Central to positivism is the objectivity of the researcher, which not only enables the production of casual laws, but allows the researcher to make generalisations about social and human behaviour (Holden and Lynch, 2004).

Interpretivism posits that there is no “truth” to be discovered; the mind of each individual creates the view of the world and from these subjective view points, reality is socially constructed. Interpretivists believe that the aim of social research is to try to understand what is happening, and give meaning to a particular phenomenon (Holden and Lynch, 2004). As such, research is generally undertaken with very few respondents but in an in-depth fashion in order to understand the view of those respondents in detail. The aim of the research is not to be able to generalise the findings to a wider population (Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

This study adopts a positivist approach to knowledge production. It is a widely used approach in social sciences research (Neuman, 2010). However, whilst it may seem that positivism and interpretivism are mutually-exclusive propositions, they actually represent two extremes on a continuum (Holden and Lynch, 2004). This research adopts a positivist approach but does embrace interpretivist methods during the early part of the study in which a period of “understanding” was required. Since the research has a shallow theoretical base due to the newness of the topic, it makes sense to begin inductively in order to develop a theoretical framework and generate hypotheses. Qualitative techniques are sensitive enough to capture attitudes, motives and behaviour (Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

Following on from the qualitative research, the hypotheses will be tested following a scientific approach using a quantitative survey, with the aim of uncovering a causal relationship between the main variables in the study. In addition to explaining the relationship between responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption and marketing professionals, it is anticipated that the findings will be generalizable and enable a prediction of recurrence of the relationship in other contexts (Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

August Comte was the French philosopher who pioneered classical positivism. A central role for theory was of clear importance to Comte's vision and to the modern approach to positivism; any empirical work conducted in the absence of theory would have been classed as unscientific by Comte (Hjorland, 2005). Whilst the researcher fundamentally believes in a positivist epistemology, the research essentially adopts a pragmatic approach and combines procedures from both qualitative and quantitative research in order to produce research which meets the goals of uncovering and developing a true theory, and to test that theory in a scientific manner. Pluralism is becoming common amongst researchers who are content to set aside the either/or debate and use a "needs-based approach" in order to determine the particular research method that is appropriate for the research (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

4.2 Mixed Methods Research

Mixed method research is defined as research which "*combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g. use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purpose of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration*" (Johnson et al., 2007, p.123). A mixed methods approach does not need to be seen as incompatible with a particular epistemological lens. Mixed methods research enables the researcher to draw from the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative techniques (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Mixed methods research has grown in popularity amongst marketing scholars. Harrison and Reilly (2011) identify four mixed method research designs from their review of mixed methods research published in nine prominent marketing journals between 2003 and 2009. These are exploratory, explanatory, embedded and concurrent designs. Of interest to this study is the exploratory research design in which the researcher firstly collects qualitative data, analyses it and then uses the analysed data to prepare a quantitative follow-up. In line with this research design, the present study will be conducted sequentially, with the qualitative

research being conducted first and the quantitative research second. The qualitative research will enable the understanding of marketers' perceptions about moderation and their responsibility to encourage moderation and, furthermore, will inform the development of the quantitative survey instrument. Similar to a design used by Commuri and Gentry 2005), this study will present the findings from both phases of the research separately, and will draw from both sets of findings in the discussion (see Chapter 8). It has been suggested that there is a need to see more integration of data sets by mixed methods researchers in order to benefit from the learning offered by both research traditions (Tashakkori and Creswell, 2007)

The qualitative stage will take advantage of several different data collection phases (see section 4.4.1). Using one qualitative method, such as direct interviewing, purely to generate scale items for a larger scale quantitative study denies the researcher the opportunity to engage in the multi-layered analytic approach used in qualitative methodologies which allows the researcher to uncover a much deeper understanding of a phenomenon (Harrison and Reilly, 2011). The proposed research is exploratory in nature and it is therefore important to understand the perceptions of marketers but also to use appropriate language during the quantitative phase of the study. Using a multi-layered approach to the qualitative data collection early on in the study will enable a deeper understanding of the perceptions and should lead to more focused and specific questions during the quantitative follow-up.

4.3 Aim of Qualitative Research

The qualitative research aims to understand the perceptions of marketing professionals with respect to two key areas: *responsibility to moderate consumption* and *motivations to moderate consumption*. These areas are considered important background to the main thesis theme of responsibility. Furthermore, given that research into responsibility and encouraging moderation of consumption is seemingly under-researched (see chapter 2 and 3), it is important to conduct qualitative research into this area given the lack of a

theoretical base for the quantitative research to follow. Frequently in social science research, qualitative research is used to formulise hypotheses that are to be tested quantitatively (Bryman, 1988).

4.4 Qualitative Research Framework and Methodologies

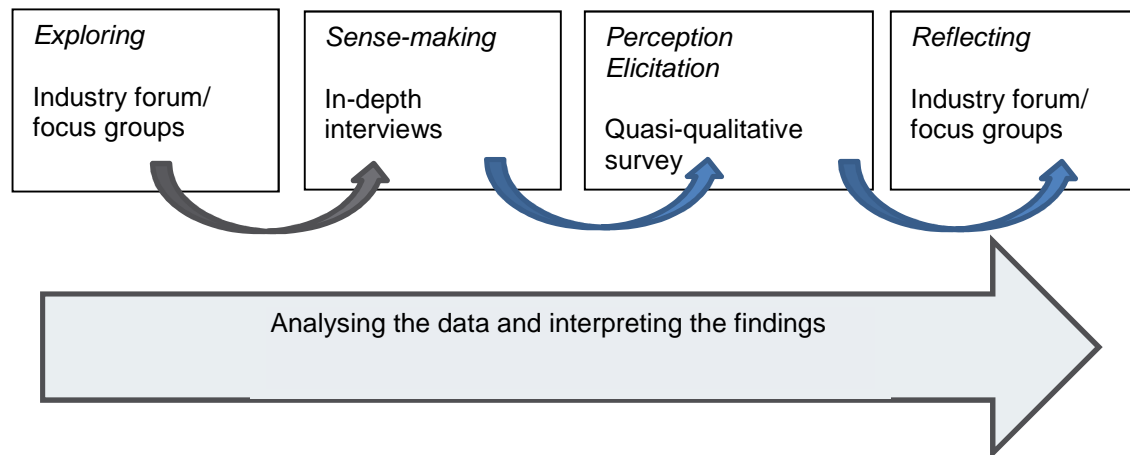
The qualitative research was conducted in a number of phases and utilised multiple research methodologies. The decision to use different methodologies was based on the need to understand perceptions of responsibility in an in-depth manner whilst also accessing as many opinions as possible. In early discussions with other researchers, faculty members and marketing practitioners the topic proved rather controversial and generated both positive and negative reactions. Accordingly, it was decided that during the qualitative phase it would be necessary to conduct research with as many respondents as possible in order to build up a reliable overview of opinions of the topic area. However, whilst it would seemingly make sense to utilise a quantitative technique since a larger number of opinions are sought, it was also more important to *explore and understand* the subject area of responsibility to encourage moderation. As such, qualitative research methods were thus the starting point for the task of exploration.

4.4.1 Qualitative Research Framework

The qualitative research was conducted in four phases which focused on collecting data on the two key areas and then validating and understanding the data collected. Figure 4.1 presents the research framework. Primarily, managerial focus groups were held at a private business forum to discuss the main thesis theme and to generate discussion regarding the importance of encouraging moderation and the motivations which drive these views. Following the focus groups, several in-depth interviews were conducted in order to generate a deeper understanding of the tensions faced by marketing professionals when the concept of moderation is introduced. Analysis of the focus groups and interviews enabled the development of an open-ended survey which was administered to 62 UK respondents and 60 US respondents. Whilst the survey was conducted online, the respondents had to write a minimum of 50 words in response to each of 3 questions. This innovative format enabled an in-depth understanding of the three

key areas whilst accessing a larger sample of respondents. After the data was analysed from the survey, follow up focus groups were utilised to access further understanding of the professional perceptions of the analysed data. The next section discusses each of the qualitative phases in more detail.

Figure 4.1: The Qualitative Research Framework



4.4.2 Qualitative Method

Qualitative research methods are considered most appropriate in situations where detail surrounding a phenomena is required or when answering “how” and “why” questions. Likewise, when trying to access perceptions, qualitative research techniques like in-depth interviews, are particularly fitting (Silverman, 2010). As the purpose of the initial research was to explore perceptions of responsibility, and the possible motivations for encouraging moderation, it was deemed appropriate to adopt a qualitative approach to this phase of the research.

Qualitative methods have been used previously in studies surrounding the topic of sustainability (e.g. Bansal and Roth, 2000). This is partly due to the “newness” of the subject area and the exploratory nature of many of the studies. Due to the shallow theoretical base with respect to marketing, motivations and responsibility to moderate consumption (refer to chapters 2 and 3), qualitative methods are the most fitting tools to enable perceptions and opinions to be explored. Furthermore, qualitative methods are useful for preliminary research in order to generate hypotheses for larger scale quantitative studies (Morgan and Spanish, 1984).

4.4.3 Phase 1: Focus Group/Retail Forum Discussion Groups

During the early stages of this research, the opportunity presented itself to access a group of senior level managers from leading retail organisations in the UK. The Retail Research Forum meets twice annually in order to discuss research prevalent to the retail industry. Following the invitation to meet with the business forum, it was decided that a focus group session would be the most proactive method of engaging the managers with the topic, enabling interaction about the responsibility of marketing to encourage moderation. Such interaction was considered essential in order to explore and make sense of the different opinions of the participants. This research was conducted very early in the research process and the “sense-making” nature of the focus group format was the main reason for this choice of research method and represents one of its main strengths. The strengths and limitations shall be considered more fully in the next section.

4.4.3.1 Strengths and Limitations

Focus groups possess a number of strengths which make it a useful tool for the researcher when looking for a qualitative research method. The opportunity to observe interaction between participants on a topic is the main strength of this research method. The focus group allows the researcher to collect evidence regarding the similarities and differences in the participants’ feelings, attitudes and experiences (Morgan, 1997). This opportunity was important because the companies, to which the participants were attached, were at different stages of “sustainability”. Understanding opinions regarding moderating consumption, and how existing sustainability efforts affected these opinions was significant preliminary research in order to make sense of moderation and motivations to moderate. Furthermore, watching the interaction between the participants as they made sense of the different opinions and experiences within the group was also important. This collective sense-making provided further evidence in relation to the research topic. The focus group method enabled an understanding on how marketing and business professionals “organised” their talk with regards to moderation of consumption. Focus groups enable the researcher to witness different forms of communication that people use in day-to-day interactions such

as anecdotes, jokes, and arguing. Accessing a variety of communication is important; participants' knowledge and experiences are not always articulated in reasoned responses obtained in direct interviews (Kitzinger, 1995). Observing how the participants spoke about moderation, motivations and consumption was especially important in order to be able to present the topic in a clear way through a survey instrument later in the research process. This preliminary research was therefore critical to enable the organisation and presentation of a difficult and sometimes uncomfortable proposition to the marketing community.

Whilst the focus group method provides a number of strengths to the researcher, these strengths stem from a compromise between the strengths of other qualitative methods. Participant observation is favoured for the ability to observe naturally occurring interaction. Information is volunteered in a natural setting. In contrast, interviews are favoured for the ability to collect detail which is directed by the researcher in isolation. Focus groups fall some way between these two methods; information is produced in groups but is directed by the researcher (Morgan and Spanish, 1984). As such, focus groups provide a tool by which the researcher can achieve the strengths of participant observation and direct interviewing.

Focus groups also possess a number of limitations. Firstly, the evidence collected from the focus group setting is limited to verbal data and self-reported behaviour (Morgan, 1997). Self-reporting has been linked to social desirability bias, which is "the pervasive tendency of individuals to present themselves in a more favourable manner relative to prevailing social norms" (King and Bruner, 1999: p.80). In research settings where anonymity is low, such as focus groups and interviews, social desirability can prevail more strongly (Fisher, 1993). Furthermore, the topic of sustainability is likely to evoke social desirability (i.e. no one likes to admit to NOT recycling). Whilst social desirability bias is more prevalent in questionnaire research, it remains a limitation of focus groups as the researcher relies on the respondent to be truthful in their discussions surrounding the research topic. However, social desirability is more common in consumer studies when respondents are asked about their personal lives. In this study, the research focuses on organisational responsibility and respondents are answering on behalf

of the organisation rather than with respect to their own personal actions. Ascriptions of responsibility within an organisational context are often complicated (Card, 2005). As such, the personal emphasis which drives social desirability bias is removed and it is therefore expected that it will not influence the respondents during the focus group sessions.

Another limitation of focus groups is the reduced control over group interactions. In interviews, more control over the discussion, and the direction and depth of that discussion, can be assumed due to closer communication between the interviewer and the participant. Furthermore, in a focus group each participant has less time to share their opinions and perceptions as they are sharing time with others in a group setting. As such, the focus group moderator requires greater attention to overcome these two limitations and derive the best possible data from the group (Morgan, 1997).

Despite the limitations, focus groups are a valuable tool for the researcher in terms of exploration and sense-making of new topics. As a consequence of these strengths, the focus group methodology formed the starting point for the research.

4.4.3.2 The Format and Questions

The focus groups were conducted with senior level management from leading retail and service organisations in the UK. Many of the companies represented operate globally. The focus group participants were members of a private retail forum called the Retail Research Forum. The members meet twice a year to discuss new research which is of interest to the retail industry and to discuss research ideas that they would like to see researched further. The participants were therefore already comfortable in each other's company, and were accustomed to debating research ideas, results and challenging topics. The participants had a number of shared characteristics including job role and industry.

The focus groups were run during one of the bi-annual forum meet-ups. This meant little inconvenience for the forum members with regards to travel and time

out of their working day. Prior to the focus group the research topic was introduced and basic information was given about the research. At the end of the presentation, participants were shown four questions that they would be asked to consider during the focus group session. The session took place around 2 hours later, allowing the participants to think about the research and the questions before the focus group took place.

The forum was asked to discuss four questions at length in two groups of ten. Each group had a moderator. The questions were:

1. *What motivations, if any, do companies have to encourage moderation in consumption by present and potential customers?*
2. *In what ways can a company balance moderation in consumption with the need to maintain a profitable business?*
3. *Is it/could it be a responsibility of marketing to encourage moderation in consumption?*
4. *In what specific ways can marketing contribute to moderation in consumption, while helping maintain business profitability?*

The two groups had an hour to discuss the issues surrounding the questions. The moderators took notes during the focus group sessions. Afterwards, each group provided a synopsis to the research forum of their thoughts on the topic of moderation. This synopsis was recorded and transcribed.

4.4.4 Phase 2: Qualitative Interviews

The focus groups sessions, described above, provided a critical “first glance” at senior management opinions and experiences of encouraging moderation. The two focus groups were fundamental for exploring the topic in a broad manner. Following the focus groups, four interviews were arranged with senior managers from retail organisations and a consumer food manufacturer. These interviews were intended to generate more detail on the topic of moderation and help to make sense of the opinions gathered during the focus groups. The interviews were conducted with senior managers who were not participants in the retail forum and who had not taken part in the focus group sessions. Once again the

sample was opportunistic; the interviewees were colleagues or professional contacts of some of the focus group participants. However, the interviewees were senior-level management of a marketing-related function and were therefore selected based on their knowledge of their organisations' marketing approach. In total, four interviews were conducted and each lasted between one and two hours. Each interview was recorded and subsequently transcribed.

4.4.4.1 Strengths and Limitations

There are a number of strengths associated with direct interviews. As a research method, they afford the researcher greater control over the collection of data as the direct interview enables closer communication. Thus, the researcher can ensure the interviewee remains on-topic and doesn't deviate into unrelated areas (Morgan, 1997). This is essential when discussing new or unique subject areas as it is often more comfortable for the informant to, unwittingly, bring the discussion back to more familiar (related) topics. This close communication also enables the researcher to explain complex questions which may not be possible in other research methods (Phellas et al., 2012). This is crucial for the research topic which can be answered from a sustainability mindset. Explaining responsibility to moderate, a much narrower view of sustainability, is crucial to generating reliable, honest opinions from the informants. Organisations have been embracing sustainability initiatives for some time to varying degrees, but these sustainability initiatives were not relevant to the research unless they specifically involved encouraging moderation from consumers.

There are a number of limitations with using interviews. Firstly, they are time consuming for the researcher (Phellas et al., 2012). In addition to the time spent actually conducting the interview, there may also be travelling time to take into account. Furthermore, qualitative research, particularly interview-based research, can fall victim to researcher bias. Researcher bias can occur in several ways; from selective observation, selectively recording information and events, and allowing personal views to affect the analysis and interpretation of the data (Johnson, 1997). Being reflexive and self-aware throughout the research process will help overcome researcher bias.

4.4.4.2 The Format and Questions

It was decided that the interviews should take a semi-structured format. When using this format, the researcher usually prepares an interview guide or list of topics to cover during the interview. The precise questions that are asked are decided upon during the interview along with the amount of time dedicated to each topic (Jarratt, 1996). An interview guide was created in advance of the interviews and was used to guide the interviews and act as a prompt for the interviewer (see Appendix A).

4.4.5 Phase 3: Quasi-Qualitative Surveys

This phase of the research was concerned with generating more substantial narratives and eliciting perceptions from a larger number of marketing professionals. Whilst the research was still very much exploratory at this stage, it was felt that more opinions were needed in order to inform the writing and conceptualising of the quantitative survey (see chapter 5 for conceptualisation and chapter 6 the presentation of the quantitative research).

A qualitative study was conducted comprising an open-ended free response questionnaire completed by 122 marketing managers and directors within the United Kingdom (n=62) and the United States (n=60) based on a specialist international survey panel. A pilot survey of 29 cases first established the viability of this survey method for this topic and level of practitioners, which also enabled the open questions to be refined. In the UK survey, respondents were presented with three of six open questions and invited to respond in between 50-150 words. Prior testing had shown various higher word minima to deter some respondents and not necessarily enhance insights. The respondents were not required (nor constrained) to stay below the 150 word guidance. The word guidance was included to signal expectations of thoughtful replies, and some respondents went beyond 150 words. In the USA survey, the questions were refined to the four most critical questions and administered to the whole of the sample, with the request altered to 30-100 words per question, but many wrote more than 100 words.

In order to double check that the respondent met appropriate sector and minimum marketing experience requirements, a series of filters at the start of the survey closed the survey if all relevant criteria were not met. The researchers also developed and pre-tested an introduction to explain to potential respondents that there were no pre-set answer options and that they were expected to consider the questions carefully, then write in their replies. A series of relevant prompts were developed as a polite way to encourage more thought, if the respondent offered less than 30 words in response, replicating a typical approach in direct interview procedures. Appendix B shows the USA version of the open questionnaire. Respondents were also required to complete a series of classification questions about themselves and their role.

4.4.5.1 Advantages of Quasi-Qualitative Survey

Although not replicating the full interactivity of direct interviews, this online “quasi-qualitative” technique has major advantages. These include avoidance of potential bias from varying prompts or signals by different interviewers, complete anonymity for respondents, helping to minimize socially desirable responding (Bowling, 2005), a common source of response bias. The impression management component of SDR (Paulus, 1984) is a particular hazard in studies of ethical and environmental issues (Randall and Fernandes, 1991). The Internet administration also enables wide geographical coverage, thus emergence of issues relevant to a larger and more representative sample of respondents than is typical in qualitative studies (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003).

4.4.6 Ethical Considerations

When conducting research, there are several basic principles to follow including, protection from harm, maintenance of privacy, informed consent, confidentiality, debriefing, and sharing benefits (Salkind, 2003). The planned qualitative research posed no risk of physical or psychological harm to the respondents. In terms of maintaining privacy, the anonymity and confidentiality of respondents was assured. The names of both the respondents and the organization they worked for appeared only on the audio file of the recording (direct interviews) and the

transcripts (direct interviews and focus groups). These files are stored on a password encrypted personal computer and also in a back-up storage file on a hard-drive. These two sets of files are only accessible to the researcher and no one else has access to the files. Throughout the analysis and discussion, the identity of the respondents and the organization/s they work for will not be revealed. The quasi-qualitative respondents were sourced through a third-party market research agency and, therefore, their personal details are not revealed by the agency.

Informed consent is an essential part of conducting research. Participants should be made aware of the following: the purpose of the research, who the researcher is, what they are doing, how long the participant will be involved, potential benefits to the individual and society, an assurance that the results will be kept in the strictest of confidence, how the researcher can be reached should anyone have any questions, that they can withdraw at any time (Salkind, 2003). The focus groups/private forum discussion groups were introduced to the research, the researcher and the benefits of the study via an introductory presentation which took place several hours before the focus groups commenced. The participants were made aware that the discussions would be treated with the strictest of confidence and that their identities would remain anonymous. The participants were made aware that the discussions would not be recorded but that the synopsis provided by one member of each group after the focus groups concluded would be recorded and transcribed. Due to a previous engagement with the retail forum, the members were familiar with the researcher and knew how to get in touch if any concerns or questions arose. With respect to the direct interviews, each respondent was briefed in advance about the research topic and their permission was requested by email to record and transcribe the interview. At the beginning of the interview, the participant was introduced to the research topic and they were assured about the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses. The quasi-qualitative survey respondents were introduced to the topic via an introduction at the beginning of the survey. This introduction can be found in Appendix B. The introduction outlines the research briefly and assures the respondents of the confidentiality of their responses.

The research is not considered sensitive enough to entail a debriefing at the end of the focus groups or direct interviews. However, the participants are able to contact the researcher should they wish to discuss further any of the issues surrounding the topic of encouraging moderation. The results of the whole study will be shared with the forum and direct interview participants and they will, therefore, benefit from this knowledge-sharing.

In line with University of Manchester protocol, an ethical approval form was submitted to the university ethics committee and approved.

4.4.7 Analysis Method

The direct interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim for in-depth analysis. At the end of the focus group sessions, each group provided a 'synopsis' of their group discussion and these synopses were recorded and transcribed verbatim into one document. Added to this document were the notes taken during the discussion groups. Consequently, one file was created which contained all the notes and synopses from the focus group sessions. The quasi-qualitative responses were delivered in a spreadsheet file from the marketing research agency. A word document was created for each of the 122 respondents (UK = 62, US = 60) and their identifying number and the responses to the questions were copied into this file. For each respondent file, a "case" was created within a data analysis software package, QSR NVivo 9.0, and the information from each word document was copied into the corresponding case in NVivo. A case was created for each direct interview participant and one case was created for the focus group data. Each case was then analysed within the analysis program. QSR Nvivo is a relatively easy and intuitive software package to learn, especially if the user is already familiar with Windows-based programs (Walsh, 2003). QSR Nvivo offers a range of flexible tools which allow the user to link relevant concepts and topics which can then be searched and analysed.

Content analysis was used to identify themes within the data (Kolbe and Burnett, 1991). The focus groups and direct interviews were analysed freely, looking for themes, ideas and perceptions. Nodes were created within NVivo to categorise these early themes (i.e. "engaged", "tentative", "speculative" in terms of their

consideration of responsibility). However, following the quasi-qualitative research, the framework used in the questionnaire was applied to all the cases, focus groups and direct interviews. For instance, question one in the quasi-qualitative survey asked the respondents a direct question about who is responsible for encouraging consumers to purchase more moderately (see Appendix B for quasi-qualitative survey). Accordingly, an over-arching “tree node” was created in Nvivo entitled “Responsibility”. Branch nodes were then created entitled “Government”, “Consumer”, “Business” and “All”. Words were not just counted, the context surrounding each response was considered before a particular phrase or sentence was coded to a particular branch node.

Likewise, the data was next analysed according to the responses to the question of what would motivate businesses to encourage moderation of consumption. An early round of analysis took place and this analysis was presented to the Retail Research Forum. Feedback from this session prompted a second round of analysis using a fresh view point. The theme and category identification is discussed in detail in section 4.5.2 before the findings (and subsequent typology of motivations) are presented.

The content analysis produced interesting lists of issues of relevance to the investigation and assisted in framing the new scale items during their development for the quantitative study (see section 6.3). The next section presents the research findings from the qualitative research.

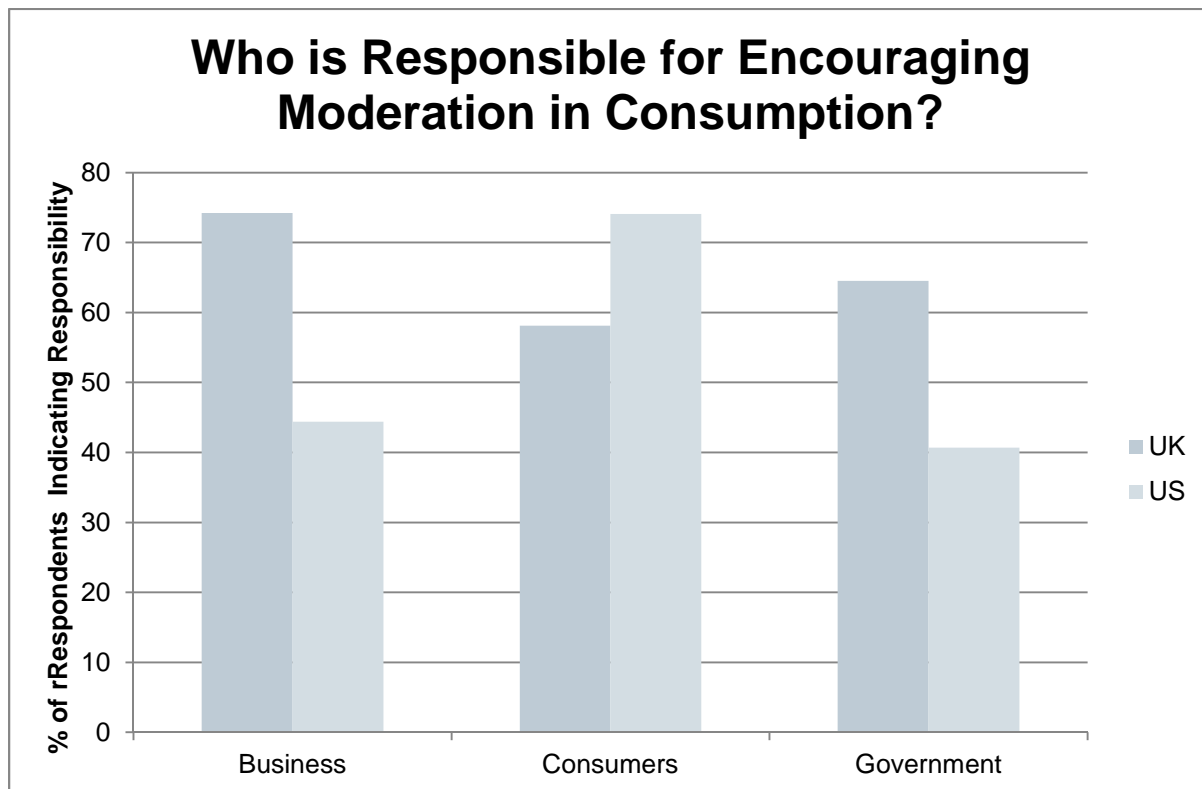
4.5 Qualitative Research Findings

The focus groups and interviews conducted during this part of the study were tape-recorded and transcribed to enable in-depth analysis. Qualitative analysis software, Nvivo 9, was used to facilitate the coding of the transcripts. Content analysis was used to analyse the collected data. The objective for this part of the study is to uncover opinions regarding who is responsible to encourage moderation of consumption and what the motivations are for business to take the role of encouraging moderation of consumption.

4.5.1 Responsibility

The interview respondents and quasi-qualitative survey respondents were each asked who is responsible for encouraging moderation of consumption. The focus groups, whilst not asked directly about responsibility, did mention responsibility for encouraging moderation of consumption during the sessions because it was related to the business responsibility they were asked about. Figure 4.2 gives an overview of the quasi-qualitative survey results for the question of responsibility. There are marked differences between the USA and the UK.

Figure 4.2: Breakdown of Responsibility for Encouraging Moderation by Country



It is clear that the UK respondents envisage a larger role for business and government for encouraging consumers to moderate their consumption. Conversely, the US respondents indicated that consumers were overwhelmingly responsible for their own moderation efforts, and business and government had much smaller roles to play.

The different responses by the participants from the US and the UK support literature which suggests the country context of CSR and regulation is important. In particular, Doh and Guay (2006) note how an understanding of the institutional difference between the US and the UK helps shed light on the perceptions of CSR. Likewise, the way business ethics is practised in Europe is fundamentally different to the way it is practised in the US (Crane and Matten, 2004). In the US, a strong culture of individualism pertains to individuals being responsible for their own ethical decision making. However, in Europe, it is not the individual or company level where ethical dilemmas are resolved. Instead, institutions, usually the state, are responsible. Therefore, it is customary to find a more constraining institutional environment in terms of regulation (in relation to, for instance, workers' rights, environmental issues and social care) than in the US. These findings are not limited to business ethics. Matten and Moon (2008) noted how the US is more explicit in its practise of CSR since the lack of constraints creates an environment of opportunity and incentive to take explicit responsibility. In comparison, the UK and Europe have adopted a more implied style of CSR primarily due to the regulatory nature of the institutional environment which dictates the standards that the state have outlined and mandated (see section 5.1.1.1 for further discussion of country differences).. Whilst the research is more narrowly defined than blanket CSR or business ethics, these cultural differences are nonetheless important to the research topic.

The quasi-qualitative survey highlighted country differences with respect to the roles for business, government and consumers and it is apparent from the qualitative analysis that all three actors have a role to play in encouraging moderation.

4.5.1.1 Business Responsibility

The UK respondents of the quasi-qualitative survey mentioned business responsibility more frequently than consumer or government. Equally, interviewees and focus group participants discussed the responsibility of business for encouraging responsible consumption and the ways in which this can be affected. US respondents reported business responsibility less frequently than UK

respondents, however, it is clear that responsibility was perceived by a number of respondents.

Respondents noted that businesses have formal dealings with their customers and this relationship could be leveraged in order to encourage moderation, or educate consumer about moderation.

“The business should take the bulk of the responsibility as there is more formal customer dealing....to do this effectively requires personal dedication to helping people attain a better life”

“...the company has the knowledge of its customer base and its knowledge of its product range and holds a certain expertise in the field it works in”

Furthermore, businesses have a history of changing behaviours successfully, for instance, reducing carrier bag usage. This experience with enacting a change in shopping behaviours evidences businesses ability to assume further responsibility for moderating consumption patterns.

“Businesses such as supermarkets took the lead on plastic bags and should do the same with the products they buy from suppliers”

Respondents also remarked how businesses are ethically obliged to encourage moderation since it is business that benefits from consumer purchasing. This ethical obligation included being transparent and honest with consumers. Businesses claiming to be responsible actually have a responsibility to ensure they are doing so and communicate this with consumers.

“We’ve got a responsibility, if we say we are a responsible business we’ve actually got a responsibility to them [consumers] to demonstrate that we are doing what we say we are doing. It’s like reporting to our shareholders in that sense”

Respondents also noted how businesses have a responsibility because their consumers expected them to be proactive in this area. This consumer-driven role

is not new; consumers have been demanding more ethical and responsible behaviour from business for a long time.

“They [consumers] believe that they can play a part but they also believe that companies have a responsibility to contribute and do something....I don’t think that’s going to go away, I think that’s just going to increase and increase”

Interestingly, respondents noted how businesses are responsible for encouraging consumers to moderate so that government needn’t legislate further and increase the “*nanny state*”.

“...we have a belief that if we don’t act and we don’t try and get consumers operating through willingness desire excitement...governments will inevitably do it in ways that are less efficient, less motivating, less productive and will lead to diminution in living standards and un-economic society”.

“When government steps in I think people feel like they are being forced to do something and don’t take it well...I think the bulk of it lies with businesses to show consumers how to spend more efficiently, buy greener and be more responsible with their purchases”

Respondents provided interesting reasons to support their assertions that business has (at least, in part) responsibility for encouraging moderation of consumption from their consumers. Consumer expectations, ethical obligation, existing formal customer relationships and previous history of enacting change to shopping behaviours summarize the main areas of reasoning surrounding respondents’ assertion of responsibility. Table 4.1 provides further evidence from the interviews and quasi-qualitative survey of businesses responsibility to encourage moderation.

4.5.1.2 Consumer Responsibility

A larger percentage of USA quasi-qualitative survey respondents attributed responsibility to moderate consumption to consumers than their UK counterparts. Nonetheless, UK respondents from all three qualitative phases of the research evidenced consumer responsibility and provided insightful reasons as to why this responsibility should be borne by consumers.

Respondents felt that consumers are responsible for their own actions; whether they choose to moderate their consumption or not is ultimately up to the individual consumer. Consumers have a choice and are, therefore, accountable for their own actions.

“Consumers are possibly the most responsible as ultimately they have a choice of products to buy”

Respondents felt consumers need to start becoming more proactive. Investing time into researching products, and understanding how and why it would contribute to a more moderate lifestyle, thus enabling a more informed decision to be made.

“And of course consumers should be alert and smart, read and read well about companies, ask questions when you are not sure before you part with your cash. We are all responsible”

Nonetheless, whilst respondents noted that consumer knowledge surrounding responsible consumption is growing, knowledge about how to actually make a difference (or indeed the belief that they can make a difference at all) is a factor affecting the acceptance of responsibility amongst consumers.

“I think whilst the interest and understanding is growing on issues such as climate change, it’s been really hard for general people to get their heads around it in terms of “ what does that mean for me?” and “what do I need to do differently?”

“I think sustainability is something that people think about but don’t think that they personally can actually make that difference so what does it matter if they splurge? They don’t think in terms of the collective good”

A number of respondents remarked that government or business should not dictate how much or how often consumers should buy as this will interfere with consumer freedom. Purchasing decisions were thus considered the responsibility of the consumer.

“...ultimately consumers need to take responsibility for themselves because you do not want to be disrupting freedom of choice”

“The consumer is the deciding factor in purchase responsibility. In a free market economy, businesses and government cannot control what the consumer wants”

The survey, interview and focus group respondents articulated reasons for consumers to bear the responsibility of moderating their own consumption. According to respondents, consumers ultimately have choice, and should therefore be proactive at moderating their consumption. If government or business assumes responsibility for encouraging moderation, consumers may feel inhibited or fear their sense of freedom is being restricted. Table 4.1 provides further evidence from the interviews and quasi-qualitative surveys of consumer responsibility to moderate consumption.

Whilst the respondents clearly envisaged a role for consumers, it remains pertinent to ask whether it is conceivable even for consumers to adopt such a role. In terms of consumers being able to “escape” the market, Sanne (2002) has questioned whether that is possible and posits that many consumers are locked-in to unnecessary consumption patterns by the economic growth model. Other authors have described how consumers are relatively powerless in a world dominated by corporate giants (Lang and Gabriel, 2005).

The balance of power within the marketplace is very often weighted towards marketing organisations, which are in turn supported by governments. The marketplace can be a confusing place for the consumer, and it has been asserted that asymmetries of information make it difficult for consumers to understand the impact their purchases are making (Moraes et al., 2011). Consumer activism describes a movement in which groups of consumers attempt to rectify these asymmetries of information. Lang and Gabriel (2005) recognise four “waves” of consumer activism which include the co-operative consumer, value-for-money consumer, Naderism, and alterative consumer. These different waves recognise the different ways in which the consumer, in their role as an activist, can recover some of the control that has been lost to marketing organisations, be it through closer relationships with producers, more (and better) access to information or actually confronting the market and challenging the power of the corporate giants.

Consumption can also be seen as a “vote” by the consumer for something they want, need or believe in. Through their purchases, consumers can “*find a voice, a means to promote their version of a better society*” (Vrontis and Thrassou, 2007, p. 797). Consumers use their purchases to signal which companies meet their approval. It is also an attempt to redress the individual powerlessness that consumers may feel in society (Dickinson and Carsky, 2005).

Whilst consumer sovereignty suggests that consumers have the choice of what to buy, and the ability to redirect the market and its offerings, questions have been raised about whether consumers are able to make the appropriate market choices (due to lack of time, information etc.) (Titus and Bradford, 1996). As such, the role of government and business is still important in order to assist and protect the consumer. Taking that role further, to include encouraging moderation, was identified by the respondents in section 4.3.1.1 in terms of business responsibility. The next section details the respondents’ perceptions of the role of government.

4.5.1.3 Government Responsibility

Respondents from both the UK and US qualitative data collection phases recognised a responsibility for government in terms of encouraging consumers to moderate consumption.

Respondents noted how governments already have regular intervention in the lives of consumers (and business). Responsibility was ascribed to governments on this basis; consumers and business are used to this intervention and this makes government ideally placed to encourage moderation of consumption.

“...as we have seen more government intervention in our daily lives, I suspect government should be the driving force behind such an effort”

Furthermore, government are responsible for the economy and, therefore, should be responsible for encouraging and overseeing moderation efforts as this will impact on the economy.

“Government has the responsibility because they are the main driver of the economy”

Respondents noted how government needed to take responsibility for moderation because business and consumers were not going to do this willingly. This implies responsibility should be assumed by business and consumers but because business has a profit-driven focus and consumers are essentially unregulated, this responsibility falls to the government.

“Government. Business is focused on making as much money as possible and consumers spend as they please. I think that the government needs to take on that responsibility”

Respondents felt that government had specific responsibilities; tax incentives for business and consumers to encourage responsible consumption, education programmes in schools to educate future generation of the importance of responsible consumption, create legislation and enforce targets for business in areas such as packaging, waste and responsible promotions, and carry out social marketing campaigns to increase awareness of environmental issues and change consumption patterns. Several respondents also felt that government should work

more collaboratively with businesses in order to promote the message of responsible consumption and provide clearer information to consumers.

This catalogue of responsibilities and duties highlights the perceived need by many respondents of a higher authority taking control of the promotion of responsible consumption. Table 4.1 provides further evidence of government responsibility to moderate consumption.

4.5.1.4 Collaborative Responsibility

A number of respondents noted how all three actors should work together in order to effect positive changes in shopping behaviour. It was emphasized that consumers need to be supported by government and business, and consumers also need to support business and government by working collaboratively with them. Through this collaboration, more effective behavior change can emerge and responsibility is shared between the three parties.

“I think the government should encourage businesses to be more responsible and businesses in turn should encourage their customers to be more responsible. I think it needs to be a combined effort to have a good impact and for the message to be put across clearly. Maybe businesses could be rewarded somehow for being more responsible and they could then perhaps pass on some of their benefits to consumers who are responsible”

4.5.1.5 Summary of Responsibility Findings

Respondents ascribed responsibility for encouraging moderation of consumption to all three parties: business, consumers and government. Table 4.1 provides further evidence of the attributed responsibility. A variety of reasons were provided by respondents regarding why the individual actors were responsible for encouraging moderation (e.g. formal dealings with consumers, freedom of choice). The next section will look more specifically at the motivations business have for actively taking on the role of encouraging moderation of consumption from their customers.

Table 4.1: Business, Consumer and Government Responsibility Examples

Actor Responsible	Interviewee	Example
Business	Interview	<i>"we see ourselves as having a responsibility"</i>
	UK Quasi-Qualitative	<i>"I think businesses should inform customers more about what exactly they are buying and how it could influence their health and life style"</i>
	US Quasi-Qualitative	<i>"I think the bulk of it lies with businesses to show consumers how to spend more efficiently, buy greener and be more responsible with their purchases"</i>
Consumer	Interview	<i>"The average punter on the street doesn't understand a lot about it but they do know that it's important. They believe that they can play a part"</i>
	UK Quasi-Qualitative	<i>"From my point of view as a marketing person - consumers themselves should be aware of that"</i>
	US Quasi-Qualitative	<i>"If we consumers do not do it for ourselves, we have only ourselves to blame"</i>
Government	Interview	<i>"there is a role for government in terms of making sure the message is simple and clear"</i>
	UK Quasi-Qualitative	<i>"I do feel that some kind of legislation should be implemented to ensure that companies manufacture and promote their products more responsibly"</i>
	US Quasi-Qualitative	<i>Government should encourage consumers to purchase more responsibly because that is a part of what they are paid taxes to do. Help make good decisions. The business will only act in their interest, and the consumers will be uneducated possibly"</i>
Collaborative Approach	Interview	<i>"there's lots of action that's required from different parties whether it be government and businesses but also customers and the general public has a huge role to play in terms of engaging in that [moderating consumption] and changing their behaviour"</i>
	UK Quasi-Qualitative	<i>"Government and business should both advise and encourage customers to purchase more responsibly"</i>
	US Quasi-Qualitative	<i>"I think government, business, and consumers all share in that responsibility. Everyone has to play their part in order to reduce consumption. Governments should encourage businesses to educate consumers and consumers should become more responsible in their purchase decision"</i>

4.5.2 Business Motivations to Encourage Moderation of Consumption

The qualitative data collection in both the UK and the US uncovered a variety of motivations for business to encourage a moderation of consumption. In the quasi-qualitative surveys, the respondents were asked directly to discuss the possible motivations businesses have to encourage moderation from customers. Early

analysis of the responses from the UK quasi-qualitative survey uncovered four motivations to moderate:

- Competitive: moderation enables cost-savings and provides competitive advantage
- Ethical: focusing on customer needs and not overselling is the right thing to do
- Green Policy: the business already has a green policy and encouraging moderation of consumption is in line with this policy
- Customer-led: if consumers want/demand to be moderated, then this would become a motivation for business to encourage a change in purchasing habits

These early motivations were presented to the Retail Research Forum (focus group participants) and the ensuing discussion helped to shape the direction of the development of a typology of motivations to encourage moderation. Participants noted that encouraging moderation needed to go hand-in-hand with cost-savings. This developed into a discussion regarding three inter-connected concepts: cost-saving, waste and environmental concern. Through a reduction of waste, the effect on the environment can be reduced and the business can save money. These “*harmonious strategies*” are not new, however but were an important starting point in the development of a typology of motivations. A further comment during the discussion of motivations provided a different view point. Participants discussed the health benefits of moderating unhealthy food products from consumers’ diets and also the role of business/marketers to educate consumers about their impact on the environment. These discussions prompted one participant to suggest a “*healthy, wealthy and wise*” trilogy of motivations. The participants in the focus group sessions enabled a more coherent understanding of business motivations, leading to a new approach to the qualitative data and another round of analysis.

During this second analysis phase, there remained several obvious motivations which prevailed from the early analysis. The *competitive* motivation, which

included cost-savings and competitive advantage, was broken down further into the two individual units. Thus the first two motivations to encourage moderation became *cost-saving* and *competitive* motivations. Cost-saving was seen as too important in terms of the number of times it was mentioned in the quasi-qualitative survey, the importance attributed to it at the focus group sessions, and the reinforcement of the eco-efficiency aspect of corporate sustainability (see section 2.1.2) Therefore, it is recognised as a motivation in its own right, rather than forming part of competitive motivation. Competitive motivation, which concerns the belief that encouraging moderation will enhance competitive advantage, is the next motivation to be added to the typology.

Ethical motivations were reviewed during the literature review in section 2.1.2.2. The qualitative results suggest that ethics may be a plausible motivation for encouraging moderation of consumption. As such, ethical motivation is added to the typology of motivations.

Following the discussion at the Retail Research Forum, health seemed a prevalent and timely issue. There was evidence of a health motivation in the qualitative research and the retail forum confirmed its importance as a possible motivation to moderate consumption.

The issue of reducing waste and packaging was the most popular motivation mentioned throughout the quasi-qualitative survey. However, resource preservation goes deeper than using less packaging. There is debate amongst the economic and ecological fields regarding the conditions upon which it will be necessary to permanently preserve the natural environments which form inputs into the production of goods and services. Economists take the view that the substitutability of natural resources mean that preserving resources could be unnecessary. Alternatively, ecologists argue that the degradation of natural ecosystems is irreplaceable regardless of capital accumulation or advances in technology (Toman, 1994). It is pertinent to explore further marketers' opinions with respect to resource preservation as a potential motivation for encouraging moderation.

The Retail Research Forum raised the issue of fairness with respect to resource use and despite this area not being raised during the qualitative research, it is considered important given the focus of sustainable development which is defined as meeting present and future needs (see section 2.1). Questions of fairness and justice thus provide reason to include a social equity motivation in the typology in order to test whether it is important as a motivator for encouraging moderation. The motivations to encourage moderation are, therefore, competitive, cost-saving, environmental, resource preservation, health and social equity. Table 4.2 provides the definitions for these motivations for the purposes of this research study, and evidence of these motivations from the qualitative research.

Table 4.2: Typology of Business Motivations to Encourage Moderation of Consumption

Identified Motivation	Beliefs: Potential Reason to Encourage Moderation	Evidence from Qualitative Research
Competitive	To gain competitive advantage: environmental leadership/image	<i>"The company that successfully cultivates an image as a responsible/eco-friendly business and are favourably perceived as looking out for the consumers best interests will win a customer's trust, loyalty and in turn, repeat business"</i>
Cost-Saving	Organisational and/or consumer moderation can save the firm money	<i>"The main motivation would be because in the long run it reduces our overall costs"</i>
Ethical	It is the right thing to do	<i>"Our ethical trading policy often leads us to focus on what a customer NEEDS rather than striving to make the biggest possible sale"</i>
Health	Moderation can often contribute to health improvement	<i>"I would only answer the reasons for moderating is to monitor health issues for consuming the wrong or non-healthy food"</i>
Resource Preservation	It will avoid or minimize depletion of world resources	<i>"The motivation is simple. Don't waste if can be reused"</i>
Social Equity	To facilitate greater fairness and justice in the use of global resources	

4.6 Summary

Qualitative research enables the researcher to delve deep into perceptions, opinions and narratives. This qualitative research conducted and presented in this chapter facilitated a greater understanding of businesses acceptance of responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption and the reasons why a business would engage in the promotion of moderation. The results have been insightful and the findings will inform both the formulation of the main research questions and hypotheses in chapter five, and the development and wording of new scales for the quantitative research in chapter six.

Chapter Five

Research Questions and Hypotheses

5.0 Introduction

The research in this study focuses on the perceived responsibility for encouraging a moderation of consumption and the beliefs and motivations which may drive such perceptions of responsibility amongst marketing professionals.

The research questions and hypotheses are presented in this chapter. The aims of the hypotheses are to examine the responsibility of marketing practitioners to encourage consumers to moderate their own consumption levels as discussed and investigated during the preliminary qualitative phase (see Chapter 4). The typology of motivations that was uncovered during the qualitative research, and the effect of other variables, will be examined quantitatively.

5.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

In accordance with the adoption of a pragmatic, exploratory, mixed methods research methodology (see section 4.1, 4.2, and 6.1), the focus now turns to the quantitative phase of the study. As such, research questions and hypotheses will be developed to test marketers' perceived responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption, the typology of motivations, and other influences upon the acceptance of responsibility. Research questions are refined statements of the components of the problem (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). Research questions are appropriate when a researcher may offer a conjecture about the possibility of a significant relationship between variables, but a formal hypothesis cannot be formulated due to lack of existing theory or a lack of confidence about the direction of the relationship between those variables (Malhotra and Birks, 2003). A hypothesis is an unproven statement or proposition about relationships between two or more variables (Malhotra and Birks, 2003) and presents a specific extension of the research question (Salkind, 2003).

There are three groups of research questions and hypotheses developed to investigate responsibility for encouraging moderation of consumption, and to examine the effect of a number of variables including the typology of motivations that was developed during the qualitative phase of the research. Group one focuses specifically on who is responsible for the role of encouraging moderation. Group one also investigates the influence of other variables on the acceptance of responsibility amongst marketing practitioners. Group two investigates the typology of motivations in terms of which motivations are most strongly agreed with, and how other variables influence these motivations. Group three investigates whether any of the investigated variables enable marketing responsibility to be predicted.

5.1.1 Group One: Responsibility

Analysis of the qualitative research is inconclusive regarding who should bear responsibility for moderating consumption. In fact, it was clear that there were activities that all three actors (and others) could engage in. Throughout the literature review in chapter 3, research was presented that had been carried out with consumers, organizations and government in order to establish what they are doing regarding pro-environmental behavior and why they were doing it. However, to the authors' knowledge, none of this literature concerned where responsibility lies and which actor should bear the majority of the responsibility.

With respect to the literature presented regarding corporate sustainability, it was interesting to note how the concept of moderation was beginning to emerge. Several sustainability models included the concept of sufficiency (Dyllicks and Hockerts, 2002; Tilley and Young, 2006; Mauerhofer, 2008). Sufficiency refers to both the actions of individual consumers making responsible choices and the collective action of consumers in the form of boycotting brands they believe to be harming the environment. However, in these models, sufficiency is fundamentally a consumer concern rather than that of the individual firm. It is diagrammed as part of the natural or ecological effort in Dyllicks and Hockerts (2002) model of corporate sustainability. However, the fact this model incorporates a consumer concept into a model for corporate sustainability, does suggest that this concept is

of importance to organizations that seek to embrace sustainability. Whether this importance stretches beyond organizations being aware of potential boycotts of their products, and/or possible limitations to the volume of product the consumer will buy is not clear. There is scope to research further whether the concept of sufficiency is included in CS models because it is important for organizations that are serious about sustainability, to assist consumers to understand sufficiency in relation to the product or services they offer.

However, a diffusion of responsibility may have a negative effect in terms of locus of responsibility. Attribution theory (Kelley, 1973) suggests that if a cause of a given affect can be attributed to someone or something else, then the cause is discounted. In sustainability, and more specifically, excessive consumption, the cause can be attributed amongst many different parties. As such, it is easy to discount the role of each individual actor and place the blame with another. Therefore, attributing responsibility becomes difficult. If future models of sustainability are to work effectively, it is pertinent to understand the perceptions of responsibility of the marketing profession and who “they” attribute responsibility to.

There is evidence of businesses encouraging a reduction in demand (Macomber, 2013). Is this demonstrative of business, and their marketing teams, accepting responsibility for a previously unthinkable task? Does this exhibit an acceptance of responsibility or a commercial decision in order to win/retain customers or avoid future legislative penalties?

Going beyond sustainability and examining responsibility to moderate consumption, the qualitative research found that marketing practitioners perceive responsibilities for all three actors. This research study is interested in where marketing practitioners perceive responsibility to lie. Furthermore, whilst business responsibility was uncovered in the qualitative phase of the research, the quantitative phase will investigate whether there is a marketing responsibility. Understanding current perceptions within the profession of marketing is vastly important in order to understand how (and who) should be involved in behavior change strategies, promotion and awareness campaigns and (beyond social

marketing) whether private business have a role to play. Thus, the first research question considers:

RQ1: Is marketing responsible for encouraging a moderation of consumption?

The remainder of group one will concern the influence of demographic variables on the acceptance of business or marketing responsibility. It is proposed that country, gender, education and rank will influence the acceptance of marketing or business responsibility for moderating consumption.

5.1.1.1 Country

Aquilera et al. (2006) highlighted that there is a striking difference between UK and US companies and institutional investors in terms of attention being paid to long-term social and environmental issues. Solomon et al (2004) found that there had been a general increase in concerns about ethics in the UK along with growing media attention being paid to CSR. Furthermore, there was an increasing awareness of risk management issues. Aquilera et al (2006) emphasize that whilst more frequent discussion of CSR issues have appeared in the UK media compared with equivalent US media, it is impossible to tell whether this actually translates into serious changes in businesses actions. Conversely, Matten and Moon (2008) discuss how CSR has only recently entered the *“business debate and practice outside the United States”* (p.405) therefore contradicting Aquilera et al (2006). Matten and Moon (2008) observed how US companies have been historically more explicit with respect to CSR whereas European companies have been much more implicit. This difference is institutional; responsibility in the US is socially embedded in corporations whereas Europeans have a more state-oriented and cross-sectoral approach leading to more implicit CSR. More recently, European multinational companies have begun to evidence explicit CSR which is due to changes in the national business system.

Looking specifically at sustainability, there are marked differences between the UK and the US. The US government refused to ratify the Kyoto agreement in 2001 and at the 2009 Climate Change summit in Copenhagen, still did not agree to a legal treaty or firm targets for limiting global temperature rise. This failure to legally commit towards safeguarding against climate change makes responsibility

for carbon emissions discretionary for US corporations (Matten and Moon, 2008). In a study by Chen and Bouvain (2009), it was noted that US companies mentioned environmental issues relatively less than the UK, Germany and Australia. In terms of the take-up of environmental management systems (EMS), in particular ISO14001, the UK has been much more proactive than the US. Kollman and Prakash (2002) attribute this discrepancy to a lack of information in the US and a lack of promotion by a third party business association such as the British Standards Institute (BSI) in the UK.

Despite CSR emerging in the US, it seems commitment to sustainability is taken less seriously than other aspects such as corporate giving. Therefore, it will be investigated whether country has an effect on marketers accepting responsibility for moderation of consumption.

5.1.1.2 Gender

Previous studies have found that females evidence greater environmental concern and greater participation in pro-environmental behavior (Clark et al, 2003). Zelezny et al (2000) also found that gender differences exist from a young age (primary and secondary level) and across countries (n=14). The gender differences in environmentalism are attributed to the socialization process whereby females are socialized to value the needs of others (Zelezny et al, 2000). Females have also been found to be more altruistic when the “price” of giving is high (Andreoni and Vesterlund, 2001; Clark et al, 2003). These studies indicate that females will be more likely to accept responsibility for encouraging moderation because they hold stronger beliefs about environmentalism (Stern et al, 1993).

In a study of gender differences on corporate responsibility, it was found that gender diversity on corporate boards was positively linked with sustainability. Moreover, the presence of women on corporate boards was positively linked to social responsiveness (Galbreath, 2011). In a separate study focused on managers’ social orientation, gender was again found to be influential with females expressing a higher social orientation than men (Marz et al, 2003).

Therefore, the influence of gender on the acceptance of marketing responsibility will be investigated.

5.1.1.3 Education

It is suggested that a persons' level of formal education influences their environmental attitude (Kollmuss and Agyeman, 2002) and their ethical decision-making (Crane and Matten, 2004). However, earlier studies have found conflicting results with some suggesting that less educated people were more environmentally conscious consumers (Sandahl and Robertson, 1989) and exhibit high levels of ethical concern (Muncy and Vitell, 1992) whereas other studies have found that those with higher levels of education are more likely to act ecologically (Berkowitz and Lutterman, 1969; Henion, 1972) or exhibit higher environmental concern (Van Liere and Dunlap (1980). Whilst these studies are conflicting, Laroche et al. (2001) suggest it is still important to understand demographic variables and their influence. Whilst demographic information like education may no longer be beneficial to the marketer for segmentation purposes, for the purposes of this study it is necessary to understand the impact of education on perception of responsibility for moderating consumption. Primarily, this necessity stems from the novelty of the phenomenon under investigation in this study and the implications for better understanding marketing practitioners and their acceptance of responsibility.

5.1.1.4 Seniority

Past literature in the field of ethics has suggested that the rank of a marketing professional can be instrumental to enhance the ethical behavior of others (Akaah and Riordan, 1989; Chonko and Hunt, 1985; Hunt et al., 1984). Specifically, upper ranking marketing professionals have the ability to influence subordinates to behave ethically. This premise is based on research by Ferrell and Gresham (1985) which identified upper organizational members as "significant others" thus enabling them to influence subordinates behavior. However, later research found no statistically significant difference between the ethical judgments of higher and lower ranked marketing professionals (Akaah, 1996) casting doubt on the assertion that more highly ranked employees can enhance the ethical behavior of lower ranked employees. Unless upper organizational members actually possess

higher ethical standards or behaviours than the employees they supervise, they cannot lay claim to being able to enhance their behavior. This debate is of interest to the current research and therefore the influence of rank on the acceptance of marketing responsibility to encourage a moderation of consumption shall be investigated.

Following the consideration of demographic variables upon corporate sustainability, the question is posed as to whether demographic variables will influence the acceptance of marketing responsibility:

RQ2: Do demographic variables affect the acceptance of marketing responsibility?

5.1.2 Group Two: Marketers' Business Motivations towards Encouraging Moderation of Consumption

This group of research questions and hypotheses are concerned with finding out more about the typology of motivations that were uncovered during the qualitative phase of the research.

The qualitative research phase discovered the existence of six motivations that businesses may have regarding the reasons why they would encourage consumers to moderate their consumption (see section 4.3.2). Table 5.1 presents the typology of motivations.

Table 5.1: Typology of Business Motivations to Encourage Moderation of Consumption

Identified Motivation	Beliefs: Potential Reason to Encourage Moderation
Competitive	To gain competitive advantage: environmental leadership/image
Cost-Saving	Organisational and/or consumer moderation can save the firm money
Ethical	It is the right thing to do
Health	Moderation can often contribute to health improvement

Resource Preservation	It will avoid or minimize depletion of world resources
Social Equity	To facilitate greater fairness and justice in the use of global resources

It is necessary to quantifiably examine whether these motivations are accurate for the marketing profession itself and which ones are most strongly agreed with.

Corporate sustainability, greening of business, or environmentalism has gained popularity with businesses over the last three decades (see section 2.1.). More and more businesses are adopting environmental initiatives into their daily activities. An array of research has been conducted into the motivations and drivers of such an approach. What has consistently been evidenced is that the main driver for corporate sustainability is a competitive one (e.g., Porter and van der Linde, 1995; Bansal and Roth, 2000; Savitz and Webber, 2007; Paulraj, 2009). Companies seemingly adopt sustainability practices in order to make more money or gain market share over competitors. However, when looking specifically at encouraging consumers to moderate consumption it is questionable whether a profit motive would be the most popular reason to adopt such an approach. As such, the research will investigate which of the six motives identified in the qualitative research are most strongly agreed with.

RQ3: Which of the marketers' six business motivations are most strongly agreed with?

It is important to note here that these motivations are being considered from a marketing perspective. They are the marketers' assessment of the businesses motivations to engage in encouraging moderation. The research is specifically concerned with responsibility and motivations of the marketing profession and as such, the questions used in the quantitative phase of the research will be phrased using this view point.

The motivations for organizations to partake in a variety of different activities have been considered in academic literature. Corporate motives for social initiatives (Bronn and Vidaver-Cohen, 2009), corporate social responsibility (Graafland and

van de Ven, 2006), ecological responsiveness (Bansal and Roth, 2000), environmental transformations (Gonzales-Benito and Gonzales-Benito, 2005), environmental strategies and practices (Paulraj, 2009), corporate compliance (Gunningham et al., 2005), and environmental change (Studer et al., 2006) have all been investigated using company managers of varying levels as the spokesperson for their firms. These managers thereby present the organizational motivations for the area of interest and give their perceptions about the motivations for that particular activity. This is an accepted practice and it makes sense to ask management to detail their understanding of an organizational activity or interest and what drives that interest. Managers are often synonymous with their organization. Therefore, researching marketing managers and directors in terms of their opinions on their organizations and why they partake in certain activities, or on the role of their profession itself is justifiable.

5.1.2.1 Corporate Environmentalism

Moderating consumption is a strategy at the extreme end of the sustainability spectrum. Highly motivated businesses may adopt this strategy. Some businesses are beginning to adopt this strategy (e.g. Patagonia, a sports brand helping customers understand if they NEED to purchase whilst also addressing questions about growth and the economy (Patagonia, 2013)). It is hypothesized that if a business is already motivated about engaging with environmentalism then this will influence whether business is motivated to encourage moderation. Corporate environmentalism is “the organizational-wide recognition of the legitimacy and importance of the biophysical environment in the formulation of organization strategy, and the integration of environmental issues into the strategic planning process” (Bannerjee, 2002, p.181). The definition of corporate environmentalism highlights two key themes in the sustainability literature: recognition of environmental concerns and consideration of those concerns in a firm’s strategic plans. If a firm is already aware of the importance of the environment and is integrating environmental concerns into their strategic plans, i.e. scoring highly on the corporate environmentalism scale, they are more likely to have a positive relationship with the motivations to moderate consumption. Moderation of consumption can be seen as an extension of corporate environmentalism, since the concept of encouraging consumers to moderate

consumption and refrain from over-purchasing represents a radical way in which a business can contribute positively towards the environment.

There is evidence of an escalation of responsibility towards the environment from a CSR perspective (Moon, 2007). Furthermore, as one organization within a specific industry or geographic area invests in CSR activities, expectations are then raised of other firms to do the same (Bertels and Palzola, 2008). Social responsibility reporting is also escalating as organisations wish to evidence their efforts and success with CSR (Kahn et al., 2009). This escalation of responsibility towards the environment demonstrates how environmental concern is climbing up organizational agenda's.

Corporate environmentalism is defined as "organizational-wide". As such, marketing personnel will be aware and engaged with their organizations' efforts. It is therefore appropriate for marketing managers to answer questions regarding corporate environmentalism and investigate their relationship statistically with the motivations to moderate consumption.

Corporate environmentalism is a variable which presents the opportunity to investigate the effect of an existing environmental effort by an organization on the professional marketers' perceptions about accepting responsibility to encourage moderation. It seems plausible to assume that a positive relationship will exist between corporate environmentalism and the six business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption. As such it is hypothesized that:

H1: Corporate environmentalism will influence marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption

5.1.2.2 Personal Motivations

The personal views of managers are important because they have been seen to influence decisions and actions taken within the work environment, both directly and indirectly (England, 1967). Previous research has demonstrated that the personal values of marketing managers influence ethical decision-making (Ferrell and Gesham, 1985) and views of corporate social responsibility (Hemingway and

Maclagan, 2004). Marketers' norms (i.e. pricing and distribution norms) are also partly explained by their personal values (Rallapalli et al, 2000). Whilst ethics, CSR and norms are not the focus of this research, evidence that the personal views of managers influence these determinants is important to the current research undertaking. It becomes pertinent to investigate the effect of marketing managers' personal motivations towards moderating consumption to test whether personal motivations influence the acceptance of responsibility.

Previous research has investigated the effect of personal motivations within a number of different domains, including education (Williams and Deci, 1996), health care (Williams et al., 1996) and sports (Vallerand and Fortier, 1998). These previous studies were all based on self-determination theory (Ryan and Deci, 2000) which distinguishes between three comprehensive types of motivation for behaviour in a certain domain. These are intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation. People who are intrinsically motivated to engage in a certain activity do so purely for the pleasure or satisfaction of doing the activity itself. The act of doing the activity is autonomous and the individual chooses to engage in it. Extrinsic motivation is a controlled motivation, in which an individual partakes in an activity in order to bring about positive, or avoid negative, consequences. Individuals feel pressure to engage in the activity. Amotivation is the least self-determined motivation as it is characterized by a lack of intention or purpose. The individual is not motivated at all and is unable to see the consequences of his or her behaviour. The three types of motivation exist along a continuum.

The results of research using self-determination theory have been valuable, and researchers have used the taxonomy of motivations to predict peoples' behaviour. Of note, self-determination theory has also been applied to environmental behaviour (Pelletier et al., 1998, Villacorta, 2003). The research specifically developed a new scale in order to measure and, consequently predict, individuals motivations towards acting environmentally. The Motivation toward the Environment Scale (MTES) was a successful use of self-determination theory. The research has practical importance in terms of how individuals can be encouraged to partake in environmental behaviours, and sustain these behaviours over time. The adaptation of self-determination theory in this way provided a

useful starting point for the author to look at motivation to moderate consumption from a personal perspective. If SDT worked well for assessing individuals' personal motivations towards acting environmentally, it is an accessible framework which can be adapted in order to assess personal motivations to encourage moderation of consumption.

As mentioned above, marketers' personal values and views have a bearing on their decision-making and behaviour within the work environment. It is therefore, possible to envisage such a relationship between personal motivations to moderate consumption and marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption. These are different concepts and it is not suggested that motivations drive motivations. Marketers' personal motivations, in the context of this study, refer to the motivations of the individual to moderate their own consumption and actively reduce what they purchase. These motivations are measured according to an adaptation of the Motivation toward the Environment Scale (MTES) (Pelletier et al, 1998) which investigates whether the motivation to moderate consumption is driven by an intrinsic or extrinsic rationale. Marketers' business motivations, in the context of this study, refer to the six motivations that were unearthed during the qualitative phase of the research. These motivations are the reasons why a business would encourage customers to moderate their consumption (as identified by the marketer). Based on the previous research in related fields, it is therefore hypothesized that marketers' personal motivations to moderate consumption will influence marketers' acceptance of the business motivations

H2: Marketers' personal motivations will influence marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption

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5.1.3 Group Three: Explaining Responsibility

A proportion of the attention paid to corporate sustainability has been in regards to understanding why an organization chooses to partake in proactive environmental activities (see section 2.1.2) Understanding both the antecedents and consequences of corporate sustainability has been valuable and pertinent from

many perspectives but perhaps incredibly important from a practical perspective. Such research has provided organisations yet to engage in corporate sustainability with fresh motives and clear consequences for taking those first steps.

Continuing with the suggestion that moderating consumption operates at the far end of the environmentalism continuum, the question is raised as to whether this activity is not only suggestive of an assumed responsibility but has explanatory power for feelings of responsibility. It is hypothesized that corporate environmentalism will explain, in part, marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption

Research suggestions that differences in managerial interpretations of environmental issues are drivers of the type of environmental strategy adopted (Sharma, 2000). Managerial values influence adoption of CSR. Managers have a wide ranging role to play. Their judgments make a difference to strategic direction, philanthropy, environmental planning etc. This demonstrates a need to understand whether marketing professionals feel responsible for changing consumption patterns. These personal feelings regarding moderation of consumption may not only influence the acceptance of responsibility, but help explain the construct further. Greater understanding of this new construct, and the associations that influence and explain it, will shed light on the perspective of the marketer regarding consumption patterns, whilst also offer inferences with respect to the future growth of the marketing profession.

To the authors' knowledge, research has yet to be carried out using the variable corporate environmentalism and treating it as an antecedent to other behaviour. As such, this study will test whether corporate environmentalism is able to explain the acceptance of marketers' responsibility to encourage moderate of consumption.

Finally, the typology of business motivations which were uncovered in the qualitative phase and tested further in section 5.1.2 of this chapter will be treated

as an antecedent to acceptance of responsibility, to determine whether any of these six motivations are predictive of an acceptance of responsibility.

RQ4. Do the variables corporate environmentalism, personally-held motivations and business motivations, explain the acceptance of marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption?

5.2 Summary

The chapter has explored the research questions and hypotheses which form the focus of the quantitative study. Three broad areas will be addressed: the acceptance of marketing responsibility, the influences on marketers' business motivations, and explaining acceptance of responsibility. These findings will add to the debate surrounding marketing and its relationship with consumption.

Chapter Six

Research Methods: Quantitative Research

6.0 Introduction

Moving on from the previous chapter, chapter six provides an outline of the epistemological standpoint from which the research was conducted. The methodology employed and the information pertaining to the unit of analysis, scale type and sample information is provided. The second half of the chapter focuses on the operationalising of the survey measures, drawing upon literature and qualitative research in order to develop scale items. Finally, the survey procedure is documented.

6.1 Quantitative Approach

With respect to how knowledge is produced, the researcher believes in a positivist epistemology; that there is a single “truth” to discover and that truth is accessible and can be observed objectively (Hunt, 1990). However, the epistemological view point of a researcher does not necessarily dictate the methodological choices that a researcher should follow (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005) and, accordingly, a growing number of pragmatic researchers are challenging the dogma of purists (e.g. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The thesis research adopts a mixed methods approach in order to develop and test theory relating to marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption. Chapter 4 outlines the rationale for a mixed methods approach (section 4.2) and presents the qualitative research which was undertaken in order to develop the hypotheses for the study. The practise of using qualitative research to formulize hypotheses that are to be tested quantitatively is seen often in social science research (Bryman, 1998). Indeed, this “exploratory” mixed methods research design was evidenced frequently by Harrison and Reilly (2011) in their review of mixed methods research in prominent marketing journals. It is hoped that a pragmatic approach to methodology will enable access to the best possible data for meeting the needs of each phase of the study.

6.2 Quantitative Research Methodology

Upon reaching the quantitative phase of the study, the various avenues for conducting such a survey were investigated. The survey needed to be conducted on a large scale and the author also wanted to investigate two countries, the UK and the US. This was to establish whether the findings of the UK study generalize to another comparable but wider context. In order to access a large sample and to reach respondents outside of the UK, a web-based survey was considered the most effective choice.

6.2.1 *Web-based survey*

The research utilised an online survey technique in order to collect data. This method of collecting data is considered efficient and has a higher response rate than either mail or fax surveys (Cobanoglu et al., 2001). Respondents of an online survey are invited to participate either by the researcher himself, or a third party such as a market research insight agency.

Electronic survey methods have enabled researchers to overcome international boundaries which have previously acted as a significant barrier to multi-country research. Furthermore, they can reduce the relationship between sample size and survey costs and implementation time can also be reduced (compared with mail surveys (Dillman, 2011) depending on the level of technical expertise required of the online survey. Online survey software is available cheaply and easily accessible, so survey set up and implementation can occur fairly quickly if technical requirements are low. However, even when a third party is used for programming more complex surveys, the survey itself can be developed and implemented in a relatively short space of time. Finally, results are usually collated instantaneously so raw data is accessible quickly with electronic survey methods.

Peoples' familiarity with computers and the internet has had a great influence on how surveys are completed and returned (Dillman, 2011). The ability to access US respondents in an efficient and timely manner made the web-based survey the ideal research method for the study. Furthermore, professional marketers are anticipated to be proficient in the use of online surveys. The survey was

conducted with a panel of marketing professionals who have opted-in to partake in online surveys and therefore, proficiency is assumed.

6.2.2 Likert scales

A Likert scale is a statement with which a respondent can choose to agree or disagree, or remain neutral. It is used extensively in market and social research (Garland, 1991). The Likert scale has the advantage that it is easy to construct and easily understood by respondents. This makes it appropriate for Internet surveys. However, the disadvantage of the scale is that it takes longer for the respondent to complete than other itemised rating scales because the respondent is required to read and reflect upon each statement before choosing their response (Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

There is debate in the literature regarding whether a 5- or 7-point scale is most appropriate, or whether an even number scale (with no mid-point) should be utilised. Regarding the use of a mid-point in the scale, Worcester and Burns (1975) found that when the mid-point was removed, respondents were more likely to give a positive response to questions in order to seem helpful, please the interviewer or to give what they perceive to be the socially acceptable answer. Conversely, Garland (1991) found that in the absence of a mid-point respondents were pushed towards the negative end of the scale. This implies that responses are content specific. In the present study, it was decided that respondent should be able to express a truly neutral position rather than push respondents toward a more positive or negative position.

Likert (1932) himself devised his scale using 5-points and this remains a widely popular choice within social sciences. However, Lozano et al. (2008) found that by increasing the number of response options, validity and reliability improves. As such, this study adopts a 7-point Likert scale. The scales were constructed without intervening adjectives between the two extremes of Disagree Strongly (1) and Agree Strongly (7). The ordering of the response scale from the negative to positive from left to right helped to combat the commonly encountered tendencies towards socially desirable responding and acquiescence bias (Krosnick, 1999). Furthermore, great care was taken to ensure the response buttons were spaced

with even intervals between the seven points on the scale, to enhance the parametric properties of the variables. This removed the need to treat the Likert variables as merely ordinal, which would have limited the range of analytical techniques.

The study also utilises multi-item scales in order to increase the reliability of the constructs and minimise response bias. Hair et al. (2010) suggests the use of 4 items per construct and this is adhered to in the study.

6.2.3 The Unit of Analysis

It is necessary to establish the level of interest, the unit of analysis, which forms the focus of the study. This can range from individual level to group level. Within these two levels, the focus of the study can vary from company to dyad to a team, or a member within a particular set. It is important to establish the level of interest accurately in order to strengthen theory development (Klein et al., 1994).

In this study, the unit of analysis is at a group level: marketing practitioners. This is the target population that the author aims to explain. Specifically, the study targets members of the marketing profession who possess more than three years marketing experience and work within an industry selling physical products directly to consumers (consumer goods manufacturing, consumer utilities, retailing, restaurants/catering). There is a precedent for using marketing professionals as the unit of analysis in the (closely-related) field of ethics and social responsibility (e.g. Singhapakdi, 2001).

Most of the questions in the study are framed to ask the respondent about their role or opinion as a marketing professional, except for the personal motivations scale which measures how important moderation of consumption is in their personal lives. These questions are distinct and the respondent is directed to think from a personal point of view. Likewise, the corporate environmentalism scale asks respondents questions regarding their company's orientation and strategy focus with respect to the environment. The respondent is informed beforehand that these questions are asking about what currently is happening within their company. The corporate environmentalism scale and the personal motivations

scales appear first in the survey. Following on from these two scales, the respondent is instructed to think from within their role as a marketing professional. Each question also contains references to marketing which will allow the respondent to remain focused on the unit of analysis that the author is committed to exploring.

6.2.4 The Sample

The questionnaire was designed with a specific target in mind. The research proposition concerns “marketing’s responsibility”. In order to understand the concern of the marketing profession with respect to responsibility for encouraging moderation, respondents must work within the marketing profession. Marketing professionals therefore, form the main sampling frame.

The survey adopted a stratified sample in which key strata were identified (Salkind, 2003); namely gender, age, seniority and education. The hypotheses drove the strata selection as the research specifically aims to test the importance of these factors. As such, the market research agency was directed to ensure that data was collected within these key strata.

It was important to screen out marketers who might not be able to adequately answer the questions posed. It was felt that marketers with less than 3 years’ experience within the profession would not be able to answer all the questions appropriately, as the questionnaire assumes a sufficient level of marketing experience from the respondents. In addition to 3 years’ experience, the marketer must sell directly to consumers. The study focuses on consumer marketers rather than business-to-business. The main framing of the survey concerns marketing responsibility to *encourage* a moderation of consumption. In order to be able to do this, the respondent must be in a position which would enable them to directly influence the end consumer. Therefore, marketers who work within organisations which are further up the supply chain (i.e. business-to-business) were not deemed appropriate for this survey. It is acknowledged that this limits the generalizability of the sample to consumer marketers.

Information was collected about two other aspects of the participants; the type of organisation they worked for, and the industry type. It was important to specify the type of organisation to ensure that only consumer marketers could enter the sample. Again, it is acknowledged that this poses limitations with respect to generalizability. The organisational type of the company that the respondent worked for was also collected but this did not inform the sampling frame in any way.

The sample size was driven by a number of factors. Firstly, the proposed analysis for the quantitative data is univariate and multivariate data analysis. Multivariate data analysis requires that the sample size is proportionate to the number of variables under investigation, with a minimum recommended ration of 5:1 (Hair et al., 2010); five observations should be made for each independent variable. There are nine possible independent variables in the study and therefore, the sample size of 359 adequately meets the recommendation. Another factor which drove consideration of the sample size was cost. Managerial data is expensive to purchase through a marketing research agency and as such a sample of 350 was considered adequate to meet the needs of the study and remained affordable. The extra 9 cases were provided at no extra cost from the research agency due to their failure to close the survey promptly after the 350th respondent. Table 6.1 presents the sample description, broken down by country.

Table 6.1: Quantitative Survey Sample Description

Characteristics of Respondents	US (%)	UK (%)
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	46.7	57.7
Female	53.3	42.3
<i>Age Group</i>		
Under 35	26.6	28.6
35 to 44	35.9	30.9
45 to 54	21.7	24.6
55 and over	15.8	16.0
<i>Job Title</i>		

Marketing Director	29.9	27.4
Marketing Manager	40.2	48.0
Marketing Executive	29.9	24.6
<i>Years in Marketing</i>		
3 to 5	27.7	26.9
6 to 9	19.6	28.0
10 to 14	24.5	21.1
15 to 19	12.5	9.1
20 and over	15.8	14.9
<i>Education</i>		
High School/Secondary	14.1	9.1
College/A-Level	16.3	22.3
Degree	42.4	53.1
Postgraduate	27.2	15.4
<i>Organisation Type</i>		
Private company	48.4	69.7
Public company	26.6	14.9
Family-owned company	22.8	10.9
Co-operative/Employee partnership	1.6	2.3
Other	0.5	2.3
<i>Industry</i>		
Consumer goods manufacturing	45.7	48.6
Utilities (selling primarily to consumers)	4.9	6.9
Retailing (online and offline)	41.3	38.9
Restaurants or other catering (selling primarily to consumers)	8.2	5.7

6.3 Measurements

The study was designed to test marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption and the effect of other variables on the acceptance of this responsibility. The study comprised four main higher order constructs: *corporate environmentalism (made up of environmental orientation and environmental strategy focus)*, *personal motivations to moderate consumption (made up of guilt and personal motivations)*, *marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation (made up of ethical, health, resource preservation, social equity, cost-saving and competitive motivations)*, *locus of responsibility (made up of government, business, marketing and consumer)*. The study also included several

other sets of measures, including: *moderation consequences and demographic variables*. All of these items were developed for this study with the exception of corporate environmentalism. However, existing literature was used in order to develop and refine the items in the survey. The final questionnaire can be found in Appendix C.

6.3.1 Corporate Environmentalism

Corporate Environmentalism is an existing construct and scale which has been developed and tested previously in a number of studies (Banerjee, 2001; Banerjee, 2002; Banerjee et al., 2003). The term “corporate environmentalism” appeared in literature for some time before Banerjee (2002) defined and measured the construct. In most cases, early references to corporate environmentalism were anecdotal and the construct was not empirically tested (i.e., Hart, 1995; Menon and Menon, 1997). Furthermore, theoretical conceptualisation of corporate environmentalism was confusing due to a number of different terms being used to describe the integration of environmental considerations into business strategy. This period of development is typical for new constructs, as researchers, businesses, governments and other stakeholders use a variety of terms to describe a new phenomenon. Banerjee (2002) successfully refined the term corporate environmentalism and created the following definition:

“Corporate environmentalism is the organisation-wide recognition of the legitimacy and importance of the biophysical environment in the formulation of organization strategy, and the integration of environmental issues into the strategic planning process” (p. 181).

This construct therefore adequately meets the requirements of this study. A measure of whether the respondents’ organisation is engaged in environmental initiatives is required in order to investigate whether an existing environmental commitment influences the marketers’ acceptance of responsibility to encourage a moderation of consumption. Furthermore, the construct is defined as “organisation-wide” implying that marketing managers will be aware of the importance of the environment to the organisation, making it appropriate to ask

marketing personnel about this construct. This construct was developed in a scientifically rigorous manner in accordance with Churchill's (1979) research paradigm on developing constructs and measurements.

The items used in the survey to measure corporate environmentalism are presented below. All the items were adapted from Banerjee (2002) except for item A8 (starred) which was developed following consultation with a number of marketing executives. It was felt that if an organisation was thoroughly committed to corporate environmentalism, then targets and/or bonuses would be in place to incentivise staff to value and prioritise the importance of this goal.

Table 6.2: Corporate Environmentalism Construct Items

Measure	Adapted from
Environmental Orientation	Banerjee (2002)
Our company has a clear policy statement urging environmental awareness in every area	
Environmental preservation is a high-priority activity for our firm	
Preserving the environment is a central corporate value for our firm	
Environmental preservation is vital to our firm's survival	
The financial well-being of our firm does NOT depend on the state of the natural environment	
Our firm's responsibility to its customers, stakeholders and employees is MORE important than our responsibility towards environmental preservation	
Our firm has a responsibility to preserve the environment	
Our firm uses targets and/or bonuses for employees to ensure sustainability is implemented into the business*	Consultation with marketing executives
Environmental Strategy Focus	Banerjee (2002)
Our firm has integrated environmental issues into our strategic planning processes	
At our firm, we link environmental objectives with our other corporate goals	
Environmental issues are always considered when we develop new products	
We emphasize the environmental aspects of our products and services in our advertisements	
Our marketing strategies for our products and services have been influenced by environmental concerns	
In our firm, product and market decisions are always influenced by environmental concerns	

6.3.2 Personally-Held Motivation to Moderate Consumption

Pelletier et al. (1998) developed the motivation toward the environment scale. This was based upon Deci and Ryan's (1991) self-determination theory. The Pelletier et al. (1998) scale closely follows Deci and Ryan's continuum of self-determination and included items to measure how self-determined individuals are doing things for the environment. The most self-determined individuals are classed as intrinsically motivated; they do the act purely for the satisfaction they derive from engaging in the activity. Extrinsic motivation has a number of categories which exist on the continuum; integration, identification, introjection and external regulation.

Whilst these categories fall into the extrinsic aspect of the continuum, they can still be self-determined behaviour, as the behaviour is becoming internalised by the individual and they can move up the continuum as their motivation becomes intrinsic – a part of themselves. Amotivation is the least self-determined and individuals at this point on the continuum are unlikely to continue to engage in the specific activity as they are unable to understand the consequences of their behaviour. Another way to view the continuum is to label intrinsic motivation as autonomous motivation, in that the individual is acting volitionally and they carry out the activity because it is interesting. Extrinsic motivation can be labelled as controlled motivation because the individual feels pressured to engage in that activity (Gagne and Deci, 2005).

Table 6.3: Continuum of Self-Determined Motivation

Self-determination Continuum	
Intrinsic Motivation	Interest and enjoyment of the task
Extrinsic Motivation – Integration	Coherence amongst goals, values and regulations
Extrinsic Motivation - Identification	Identify importance of activity; values the activity
Extrinsic Motivation - Introjection	Avoid feeling of guilt, or to enhance self-esteem
Extrinsic Motivation – External Regulation	Satisfy an external demand or obtain an external reward, avoid an external punishment
Amotivation	Absence of intentional regulation

Source: adapted from Ryan and Deci (2000. p. 61)

Pelletier et al. (1998) used this schema to create their motivation towards the environment scale. This scale was adapted to create a measure of how motivated an individual is to moderate (i.e., reduce) their own consumption. This scale is referred to as “personally-held motivations to moderate consumption” because it is interested in the motivation of the person from their personal perspective not in their role as a marketer. It comprises the personal motivation and the external regulation. Personal motivation measures the extent to which an individual moderates their consumption because they are intrinsically motivated to do so. External regulation measures the extent to which the respondent is motivated by peers. The scale itself does not include amotivation items as these were not considered relevant for the present study. It was also decided upon to replace introjection items with a guilt scale. Guilt has been identified as a predictor of feelings of responsibility in previous studies (i.e. Kaisa and Shimoda, 1999) and it was therefore considered important enough to include a four item scale related to guilt and moderation of consumption.

Table 6.4: Guilt and Personally-held Motivations to Moderate Consumption Construct Items

Measure	Informed by
Guilt	Kals (1993)
I feel guilty about consuming as much as I do	
I feel ashamed of how little I do to reduce the amount I waste	
Sometimes I buy more than I need and that makes me feel guilty	
When I hear about climate change I feel ashamed that I don't do more to help prevent this	
Personal Motivations	Pelletier et al. (1998)
I like knowing that I have only bought what I need	
I find pleasure in finding new ways to live more sustainably	
Reducing the amount I consume is becoming an integral part of my life	
Being considerate about the environment is a fundamental part of who I am	
It is a good idea to consume only what I need	
Moderating (i.e. reducing) the amount I consume is a way I have chosen to contribute to sustainability	
External Regulation	
Other people would feel upset if I didn't try to live more sustainably	
I like to get recognition from others by being considerate about the amount I consume	
My friends insist that I consider my impact on the environment	
To avoid being criticised, I try not to consume more than I need	

6.3.3 Marketers Business Motivations to Encourage Moderation of Consumption

The measures developed to measure the business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption were developed from the qualitative research and corresponding review of literature relevant to each subject area.

6.3.3.1 Competitive motivation

Competitiveness has been identified in the literature review (see section 3.1.4.1) as a motivating factor for organisations to act in a pro-environmental manner (i.e. Bansal and Roth, 2000; Russo and Fouts, 1997). It was further identified in the qualitative research into business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption (see section 4.3.2). In order to measure competitive motivation, a scale was developed based on the motivations that have been uncovered for organisations to engage in sustainability measures, for instance, differentiation (Gonzalez-Benitez and Gonzalez-Benitez (2005)) and customer loyalty (Miles and Covin, 2000).

Table 6.5: Competitive Motivation to Encourage Moderation of Consumption Construct Items

Measure	Informed by
Competitive Motivation	
By not over-selling, marketers will secure more long-term relationships and greater customer loyalty	Miles and Covin, 2000
Sustainability initiatives provide genuine competitive advantage	
Long-term profitability is achievable by encouraging customers to moderate their consumption	
Marketing practitioners who push customers to buy excessively risk damaging corporate reputation	
Encouraging moderation in consumption will enable marketers to differentiate from competitors	Gonzalez-Benitez and Gonzalez-Benitez, 2005

6.3.3.2 Cost-saving Motivation

As identified by Gonzalez-Benito and Gonzalez-Benito (2005), cost-saving is a motivating force for sustainability. With respect to encouraging moderation of consumption, the qualitative study found over-whelming evidence for this type of

motivation, with one respondent claiming that cost-saving would be the *only* reason they would encourage moderation (see section 4.3.2 for a detailed discussion). Eco-efficiency has been a much-researched topic and appears in many accepted models of corporate sustainability (e.g. Dyllick and Hockerts, 2002; Young and Tilley, 2006; Mauerhofer, 2008). It relates to the more efficient use of natural capital (water, energy etc.) which can produce economic savings for an organisation whilst reducing its impact on the environment (Dyllick and Hockerts, 2002). The following scale developed will measure whether eco-efficiency is a motivating factor in the acceptance of responsibility to encourage moderation.

Table 6.6: Cost-saving Motivation to Encourage Moderation of Consumption Construct Items

Measure
Cost-saving Motivations
Sustainability initiatives, such as increasing efficiency during production, are the best way to reduce costs
Transportation costs would be saved if people moderated their consumption of products from distant countries
It is essential that marketers minimise the wastage from marketing expenditures in order to derive cost-saving advantages
People should consume more moderately, as this would ease demand and upwards pressure in the prices of companies' raw materials

6.3.3.3 Ethical Motivation

Corporate ethical motivations to act sustainably were uncovered in the literature review (see section 2.1.2.2). Organisations are already choosing to act in the interests of the environment in order to be seen to be ethical by their customers, and/or to act upon managers' own personal values of responsibility (Hemingway and Maclagen, 2004). The scale for the current study was developed to measure whether marketers would encourage moderation of consumption for ethical reasons.

Table 6.7: Ethical Motivation to Encourage Moderation of Consumption Construct Items

Measure	Informed by
Ethical Motivation	
Marketing practitioners should incorporate sustainability into marketing strategy because it is the right thing to do	Wood, 1991
Encouraging moderation in consumption should be driven by marketers' concern for their social obligations	
Marketing professionals should encourage their customers to purchase more sustainably because it is ethical to do so	Crane and Matten, 2004

6.3.3.4 Health Motivation

In the UK there has been an increased focus on healthy eating, and moderation of consumption has been in line with this message. Reducing fat, salt, sugar, and alcohol have become common social marketing messages from government in recent years. The introduction of dietary guidelines and national health policies has become a growing preoccupation for governments (Wahlqvist, 2009). However, the direct relationship between food and sustainability has also been investigated. In the American Dietetic Association report (2007) strategies and guidance for food and nutrition professionals was provided in order to support sustainability. Likewise, Wahlqvist (2009) indicated the requirement for government, retailer, community and end consumer responsibility in order to confront growing food security and sustainability issues. It was evidenced in the qualitative research, particularly in the private forum sessions, that health was considered one area which would prompt feelings of responsibility (see section 4.3.2). As such, a scale was developed to measure whether marketers are motivated to encourage moderation for health related reasons.

Table 6.8: Health Motivation to Encourage Moderation of Consumption Construct Items

Measure
Health Motivation
Marketing practitioners should encourage moderation in consumption for health-related reasons
Marketing practitioners have a role to play in reducing the amount of unhealthy food customers buy
Marketers should NOT interfere with customer freedom to choose less healthy consumption patterns*
Consumers should NOT be encouraged to buy unhealthy products in case it leads to over-consumption and negative health implications*

*Reverse item

6.3.3.5 Resource Preservation

The Brundtland Commission defined sustainable development as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (WCED, 1987). The potential for irreversible damage to natural systems and the threat this posed to future generations was outlined in the report. As such, debate began within and between countries about the preservation of natural resources.

There is a vast array of literature in both economic and ecological fields attempting to determine the conditions upon which it will be necessary to permanently preserve the natural environments which form inputs into the production of goods and services. There are tensions between these two fields with economists arguing that substitutability of natural resources mean that preserving resources could be unnecessary. Alternatively, ecologists argue that the degradation of natural eco-systems is irreplaceable regardless of capital accumulation or advances in technology (Toman, 1994)

Resource preservation and the notion of waste reduction were discussed in the qualitative research, in particular in the forum focus group sessions (see section 4.3.2). These discussions considered the cost-saving benefits of reducing waste (and hence, preserving resources). Furthermore, energy security was discussed in one of the qualitative interviews and it would appear that the security of future energy requirements is of increasing concern on the business agenda. As such, resource preservation is potentially a motivating factor for marketing professionals to encourage consumers to moderate their consumption. Consequently, a scale was developed to test whether marketing professionals are motivated to encourage moderation of consumption for resource preservation reasons.

Table 6.9: Resource Preservation Motivation to Encourage Moderation of Consumption Construct Items

Measure
Resource Preservation Motivation
Marketing practitioners should encourage their customers to consume more moderately in order to avoid depleting world resources

The environmental value of using natural resources should be included in product price, to account fairly for the cost of using scarce resources
In order to secure the future supply of resources, marketers should reduce the amount of waste in the production and marketing of products
Marketing professionals should encourage consumers to shop sensibly so that over-consumption does not lead to resource depletion

6.3.3.6 Social Equity

As discussed in the preceding section (6.3.3.5), there is no agreement about the substitutability of resources in the future. That leads to assessments about the fairness, justice and equitable distribution of known global resources. The Bruntland Report specifically noted the intra and inter-generational distribution of resources when it discussed the needs of the present and the needs of future generations (WCED, 1987). A scale was devised to measure whether marketing professionals are motivated to encourage moderation of consumption based on reasons of social equity: that everyone, presently and in the future, should have access to natural resources. The depletion of natural resources, the elimination of species of plants and animals, food and energy scarcity are all concerns presently in differing locations around the world and will also continue to be concerns if consumption patterns aren't modified in order to preserve and distribute fairly the natural resources of the planet.

In the qualitative research, social equity (in particular intra-generational fairness) was raised during the forum focus groups. However, it was not a concern which arose in the interviews or the qualitative survey. As such, the motivation was explored further through the quantitative survey, and a scale was developed accordingly.

Table 6.10: Social Equity Motivation to Encourage Moderation of Consumption Construct Items

Measure
Social Equity Motivation
It makes sense to encourage consumers to be more sustainable so that scarce resources will still be available for future generations
Consumers should moderate what they consume in order to allow global resources to be more fairly divided between countries
Marketing professionals should encourage customers to moderate their consumption to protect resources for future generations
Through corporate sustainability initiatives, there will be a more fair

6.3.4 Locus of Responsibility

Locus of responsibility refers to where responsibility lies, the centre or source of the responsibility. Locus of responsibility was explored with respondents in order to investigate more thoroughly the perceptions of responsibility. Throughout the literature review and the qualitative phase of the research, a varied role (and consequently, an ascribed responsibility) was unearthed for each of the following actors; government (section 4.3.1.3), business (section 4.3.1.1), marketing (section 3.4) and consumers (4.3.1.2). For instance, the qualitative phase highlighted business responsibility for encouraging moderation of consumption due to a previous history (and hence, ability) for changing shopping behaviour amongst customers, customer expectations, ethical obligations and existing formal customer relationships.

In order to more clearly delineate the responsibility to encourage moderation (before exploring the reasons why, or motivations), survey measures were devised to measure respondents' locus of responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption. Each respondent was asked about the responsibility of each actor.

Table 6.11: Locus of Responsibility Construct Items

Measure
Government
Our government should encourage consumers to moderate their consumption
Our government is NOT proactive enough in encouraging sustainable consumption by consumers
Our government has a responsibility to encourage consumers to buy more moderately
Business
Businesses should encourage consumers to moderate their consumption
One of the major reasons for environmental problems is that businesses encourage customers to buy excessively
Businesses have a responsibility to encourage more moderate consumption from their customers
Marketing
It is a role of marketing to encourage customers to moderate their consumption
Environmental deterioration is largely due to marketing practitioners

persuading customers to buy much more than they need
Marketing practitioners have a responsibility to encourage customers to buy sustainably
Consumer
Consumers should moderate their consumption
Environmental deterioration is largely due to consumers buying more than they need
Consumers are NOT proactive enough in terms of consuming only what they need
Consumers have a responsibility to moderate what they buy

6.3.5 Consequences of Consumers Moderating Consumption

An important aspect to ascertaining the responsibility of marketing to encourage moderation is to assess marketers' views about the consequences of moderation. As such, a number of items were added to the questionnaire in order to gauge marketers' perception on the consequences of moderation. These questions referred to the trade-offs in consumers lifestyles and company profitability. Furthermore, the questionnaire considered future spending habits and new consumption patterns which may emerge if consumers moderated their consumption. These questions are highly exploratory and were included at the request of the Retail Research Forum. The Retail Forum was incredibly important during the qualitative phase of the research, and the managerial focus groups enabled crucial sense-making in terms of interpretation. These exploratory questions were informed by the managerial discussions of potential implications. These questions can be found in the full version of the questionnaire presented in Appendix C (moderation consequences can be found in section E).

6.4 The Survey Procedure

The data were collected in the UK and the US, predominantly in the consumer goods manufacturing industry. A market research agency was employed to create the online questionnaire, administer it to a panel of respondents who fit the survey criteria, and collect the results. The market research agency has access to large panels of potential managerial respondents from a variety of different industries and with differing levels of experience. The panels consist of people who have agreed to be part of the panel and are, therefore, willing to receive invitations to participate in market research. The panellists are engaged and committed

because they have opted-in to part-take in questionnaires such as this one. Furthermore, the respondents are rewarded for their involvement (by the panel provider) and this further increases the quality of the responses (Cobanoglu and Cobanoglu, 2003).

The market research agency was initially provided with a brief which they used to target the appropriate panels. The specification for the agency was to recruit marketing professionals who met the following criteria. Firstly, the respondent had more than 3 years marketing experience. Secondly, the respondent worked for an organisation which sold directly to consumers. This was very important. The main framing of the survey concerns marketing responsibility to *encourage* a moderation of consumption. In order to be able to do this, the respondent must be in a position which would enable them to directly influence the end consumer. Therefore, organisations which are further up the supply chain (i.e. business-to-business) were not deemed appropriate for this survey. Whilst it could be argued that encouraging moderation from business customers is feasible, this study is focused on responsibility to the end consumer who ultimately determines the flow of products through the business-to-business channels. Thirdly, the respondent has to work for an organisation that sells physical products. Again this is important. Whilst there is a “resource-using” aspect to the production and consumption of services, this is probably much harder to visualise. Equally, moderation of consumption, and research surrounding this topic, is generally in its infancy. As such, it is easier for the respondent to think about the clear connection between the amount of physical product a consumer buys, the rate this uses up resources, and the responsibility they feel professionally for this relationship. Fourthly, the respondent has to work in a sector which deals directly with the consumer. For the purposes of this survey, it was specified that this should be consumer goods manufacturing, retailing (online and offline), utilities (selling primarily to consumers) and restaurant/catering (selling primarily to consumers). This fourth requirement goes hand-in-hand with requirement three ensuring the respondent sells physical products. These requirements were clearly specified for the market research agency but, as a further check on suitability of respondents, pre-screening questions were also built into the start of the survey.

Respondents fatigue and lack of motivation can cause them to exit the survey early, sometimes when they are only a few questions from the end of the survey. A progress completion indicator was added to the survey to enable respondents to see how far along they are and to keep respondents motivated. There has been suggestion that the inclusion of a progress bar in the online survey can have the opposite effect; a higher drop-out rate (Crawford et al., 2001). Conversely, Couper et al. (2001) found that the use of a progress bar did increase completion rate; however, the difference was not significant. Despite the inconsistency within the research, a progress bar was added to the survey. This provided a degree of transparency to the survey and enabled respondents to be fully informed of their progress throughout. The covering page to the survey articulated that the survey was fairly long and the respondents would need 15 minutes to dedicate to completing all the questions. Potential respondents were urged to think about whether they had the time to complete the survey at that given point. Whilst the actual dropout rate was not provided by the market research company, the number of survey responses requested was met successfully.

Another design feature of the survey was the randomization of questions in sections C (motivations for encouraging moderation of consumption) and D (locus of responsibility and barriers). Likert scales measuring respondents' agreement with the six motivations for encouraging moderation were presented in a random order to the respondent. So whilst some respondents may have been asked about social equity first, others may have been asked about resource preservation or ethical motivation or any of the three other motivations. Likewise, the scales measuring locus of responsibility were randomised, meaning respondents received the questions pertaining to government, business, marketing and consumer responsibility in different orders. Such randomisation of questions is becoming more commonplace; Crawford's (2002) evaluation of web survey design software suggests it is a web survey design standard, rather than an advanced feature.

The survey was launched at one location at a time. Firstly, the UK had a soft-launch in which 25 responses were gathered. These were then checked to ensure quality of responses. Running the shorter soft-launch allowed this smaller set of

data to be checked for any “straight-line clickers”, ensure questions were being understood, and to determine what the average completion time for the survey was. This allowed a time limit to be agreed with the market research agency. Respondents who completed the survey in less than 6 minutes would be excluded from the data. The survey was then launched fully.

The same process took place when launching the US data. A small sample of 25 respondents was initially gathered then the data was checked thoroughly before the survey was fully launched. Using a web-based survey enabled this rapid checking of responses and any subsequent follow-up action to be taken. Despite these checks, the full data file was also checked extensively prior to analysis to ensure no “straight-line clickers” had made it into the sample. Equally, anyone who had completed the questionnaire close to 6 minutes was investigated thoroughly. Some respondents were removed from the US and UK data file and the market research agency collected the necessary extra cases to ensure our quota was reached.

The visual layout of the questionnaire was tested thoroughly prior to launch. Several layouts were trialled and eventually it was decided that the layout needed to be re-designed slightly so that more than one question appeared per page. As the survey was fairly long, and the respondent was required to click “next” in order to move to the next question, it was felt this fatigued the respondent too quickly. Since most questions used the same 7-point Likert scale, it was appropriate to add a number of questions to each page. These questions were always within the same section of the questionnaire so the respondent was only answering questions on a certain phenomenon per page, e.g., consumer responsibility and barriers. Again, this was tested a number of times in order to ensure a balance between a visually appealing survey, rotations, and respondent fatigue.

6.5 Summary

The chapter provides an overview of the quantitative research process, the methodology employed and the sample information. The operationalization of the constructs is detailed and the survey procedure presented. The next chapter

begins with a discussion of common method bias before moving on to the data analysis.

Chapter Seven

Data Analysis

7.0 Introduction

The chapter presents the formal quantitative testing in order to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses that were developed in Chapter Five. The chapter begins with an investigation into common method bias within the data set. Next the testing of the research questions and hypotheses are carried out using a variety of univariate and multivariate data analysis techniques.

7.1 Common Method Bias

Common method bias is a source of systematic measurement error that can affect the validity of the findings of a study (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Common method bias can arise because of similarities in item content or wording, structure or format that prompt similar responses (Lance et al., 2010), proximity of items within the research instrument, rater response effects and the context within which the research is carried out (Edwards, 2008). These sources of bias affect the validity of the conclusions that can be drawn about the relationships between measures. Therefore, it is necessary to understand the ways in which common method bias can arise, then ways in which it can be minimised and assessed.

7.1.1 *Procedural remedies*

There are a number of procedural remedies which can put in place during the design of the research instrument which can control for common method bias. These include protecting the respondent anonymity, improving scale items and ensuring they are free from ambiguity, counterbalancing the question order, and obtaining the measurement of the predictor and criterion variables from different sources (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

In this study, the respondents were not identifiable since they were recruited via a third party market research agency. This proactive measure attempted to overcome social desirability responding in which the respondent attempts to

provide answers which present them in the “best light” (Bowling, 2005). The measures that were used in the study were piloted with a small sample of professional marketers, in order to gain feedback on the items themselves and the format of the survey. The survey was also pretested with the market research panel; a test survey of 25 respondents in the USA and 25 respondents in the UK was carried out in order to assess how the survey was being answered, the time it was taking the respondents and to gauge feedback from an open-ended response box at the end of the survey. In this survey it was not feasible to obtain measures of the predictor and criterion variables from different sources. This would have required considerably more cost and time and would have also incurred sample attrition (especially since using a managerial sample). However, some of the items in the survey were rotated (Marketers’ Business Motivations through to Encourage Moderation of Consumption and the Locus of Responsibility items (see sections 6.3.3. and 6.3.4)). This rotation meant that respondents were presented with the dependent variables in differing orders which attempted to combat ordering effects and associated priming. The respondents were not able to track back through the survey once they had completed each section, which was another measure to reduce the respondents from priming their answers. The predictor and criterion variables were not presented on the same page, which provided some separation during the measurement of these variables.

7.1.2 Statistical remedies

A commonly used technique to assess whether common method variance is potentially present within a data set is to use Harman’s single-factor test (Harman, 1967). Here, all the variables in the planned analyses are subjected to an exploratory factor analysis. If a single factor emerges, or one factor accounts for the majority of the variance among the measures, then common method variance is present (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). This technique is revealing in terms of the presence of common method variance, but does not offer any solution for controlling the effect of the variance. As such, it should be considered a diagnostic technique rather than a “remedy” for common method bias.

The single-factor test was run using the main variables in the study (corporate environmentalism (14 items), personal motivations (14), marketer’s motivations to

encourage moderation (24), locus of responsibility and barriers to encouraging moderation (30), and company/marketing roles (6); in total 88). More than one factor emerged based on the principal axis factoring method. This indicates that common method bias is not present. Furthermore, the first extracted factor accounted for 34.66% of the variance, which is well below the majority (this is based on the principal axis factoring method and unrotated factor solution) and therefore, indicates that common method variance is not a serious problem.

A further test was run to enable a secondary check of the data for common method variance. A confirmatory factor analysis was run in AMOS in order to capture the common variance among all the observed variables in the model. For this model, 9 items relating to locus of responsibility were inputted into a CFA. A latent factor was then added to the CFA model and connected to all the observed items. The standardised regression weights from the model with the latent factor were compared with the standardised regression weights of the model without the latent factor. Since no large (>0.2) differences were observed then it is assumed that excessive common method variance is not present in the data and the common latent factor does not need to be retained in future models (Billiet and McClendon, 2000) (see Appendix D for standardised regression weights and model).

7.1.3 Academic debate about common method variance

There is academic debate surrounding the extent of the problem of common method variance. Some authors, notably Podsakoff et al. (2003), suggest that CMV is a potential problem in all organisational research. Contrary to this view, Spector (2006) believes that CMV is not a systematic source of error and is better classified as an urban legend.

“Rather than accepting the idea that there is systematic variance produced by a particular method, we should instead think for each measured variable what the likely sources of variance might be and how different features of method might control them.” (p. 228).

The items in this study are intended to measure perceptions and opinions regarding a number of variables: primarily corporate environmentalism, personal motivations to moderate consumption, marketers' business motivations to moderate consumption, locus of responsibility, and barriers to encouraging moderation. These variables are not abstract (with the exception perhaps of corporate environmentalism) and they are very likely to bring about a number of different subjective thoughts and emotions amongst respondents because they are demonstrating interest in the internal state of the respondent. These subjective thoughts and emotions may introduce different biases into the research, but that does not mean all variables will automatically be biased by common method. Understanding the nature of the variables, especially those used to investigate the internal state of the respondents, means that research design can be better considered and biases kept to a minimum.

In this study, the potential for acquiescence, one type of proposed source of CMV, is seemingly likely to affect the main marketing responsibility scale. However, from qualitative research of perceived marketing responsibility conducted prior to the questionnaire, the opposite was found. A number of marketing professionals vehemently refused to accept marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption. This prior research enabled a thorough understanding of the possible responses to the main variables in the study and the questionnaire was designed with these potential responses in mind. For instance, as discussed in section 6.4, several sections of the survey were rotated for each respondent. This meant that respondents answered questions in different orders to each other which it was hoped would minimise common method variance.

Consideration of the sources of specific biases, which may compromise the research, were borne in mind by the researcher. As such, it is hoped that any potential sources of bias have been diminished or eliminated. However, following Spector's (2006) lead, possible alternative explanations for observed phenomena will be explored, should shared variance become apparent during the analysis of the data. The extensive qualitative research will assist this process if needed.

7.2 Group 1: Marketing Responsibility to Encourage Moderation of Consumption

The aim of this first group of research questions is to gain an understanding of the extent of marketing professionals' responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption (the central thesis question) and demographic factors that may influence acceptance of that responsibility.

7.2.1 Level of agreement with marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption

The first research question posed is as follows:

Research Question 1: Is marketing responsible for encouraging a moderation of consumption

One item in the survey directly asked the question of whether it is a role of marketing to encourage consumers to moderate consumption. The question formed part of the marketing responsibility scale. Analysis of the frequencies of the responses reveals a general agreement of 53.3% across the sample (points 5 to 7).

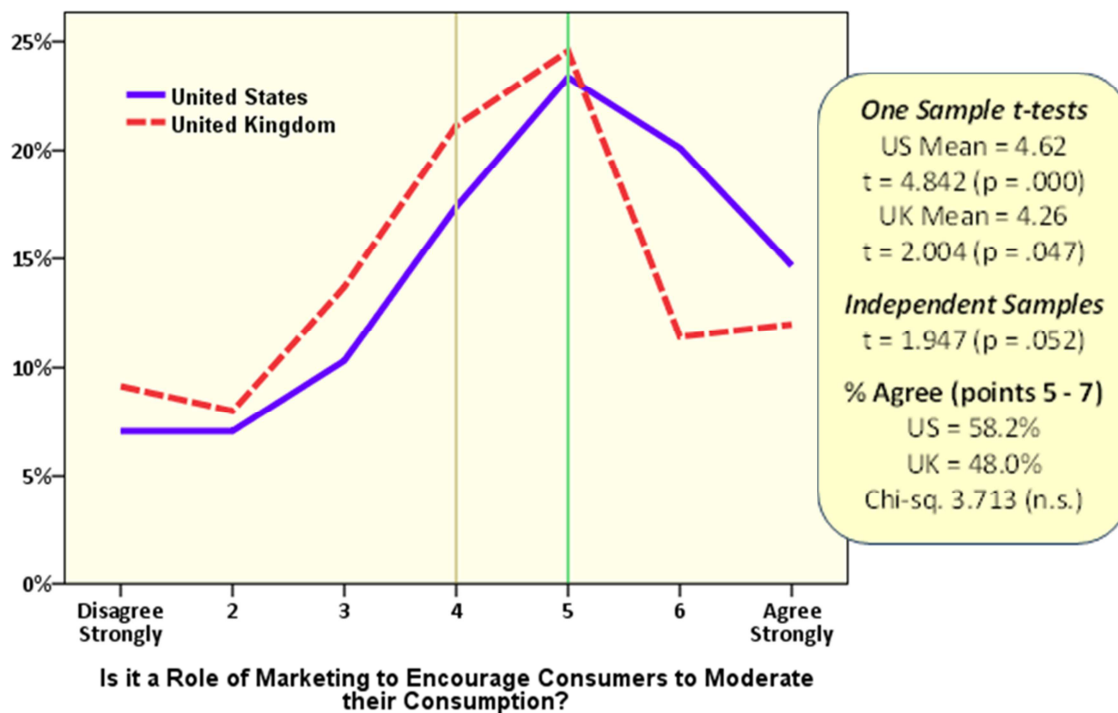
Table 7.1: Level of agreement with marketing responsibility

Is it a Role of Marketing to Encourage Customers to Moderate their Consumption?			
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative % Agreement
1. Disagree Strongly	29	8.1	-
2.	27	7.5	-
3.	43	12.0	-
4. (midpoint)	69	19.2	-
5.	86	24.0	24
6.	57	15.9	39.9
7. Agree Strongly	48	13.4	53.3
Total	359	100.0	53.3

Figure 7.1 shows the frequency of agreement between the US and the UK samples. The midpoint of the scale (point 4) is highlighted in grey on the figure. Beyond this point represents the extent of agreement amongst the respondents that marketing has a role to play in encouraging consumers to moderate. Both country samples share the same mode at point 5 and this is depicted in the figure by the green line.

It is clear from this figure that more US respondents agreed with the proposition that marketing has a role in encouraging moderation from customers than did UK respondents. The one-sample t-tests revealed that the mean deviation from the scale mid-point is statistically significant for both US ($p < .001$) and UK ($p = .047$) respondents. An independent samples t-test further confirmed the intra-country difference between the mean scores.

Figure 7.1: Frequency of agreement with marketing responsibility



7.2.2 Who is most responsible?

Table 7.2 next provides a different perspective on who is most responsible for the task of encouraging consumers to moderate their consumption. The locus of responsibility was explored in the survey with respondents answering scales

relating to government, consumer, business, and marketing responsibility. These scales were transformed into a ranking variable which allocated new values based on each actor being rated the most responsible according to the responses to the scale items. Instances where there were two actors identified as first rank were also accounted for in the creation of the new variable and these “tied” ranks were also incorporated. There were 40 cases where there were three or four tied ranks. These were not considered to have a clear first rank, therefore were not allocated to any of the four loci.

The total percents for the uniquely first ranks and the tied first ranks therefore sum to more than 100, as each dual tie is included in the percents in the penultimate column for both loci in the tie. To produce the weighted first ranks in the final column, the percent tied at first rank are divided by 2 before being added to the uniquely first ranks for each locus.

The table evidences that consumers were ranked first by the respondents, followed by government, business and marketing. Interestingly, marketing was uniquely first rank for 6.6% of the sample, meaning that the three items on the “marketing responsibility” scale were agreed with more strongly than the responsibility scales for consumers, government and business. This evidences a clear indication that marketers are recognising a responsibility towards encouraging moderation. Furthermore, the weighted first rank percentage suggests almost 10% of the respondents ranked marketing in first rank position.

Table 7.2: Locus of responsibility breakdown

Locus of responsibility	n	Raw Percent	Adjusted Percent	% Uniquely First Rank	% Tied at First Rank	Weighted First Rank
Consumers	91	25.3	28.5			
<i>Tie Con+Gov</i>	57	15.9	17.9	28.5	25.1	41.0
<i>Tie Con+Bus</i>	15	4.2	4.7			
<i>Tie Con+Mkt</i>	8	2.2	2.5			
Government	80	22.3	25.1			
<i>Tie Gov+Bus</i>	13	3.6	4.1	25.1	23.9	37.0
<i>Tie Gov+Mkt</i>	6	1.7	1.9			
Business	22	6.1	6.9			
<i>Tie Bus+Mkt</i>	6	1.7	1.9	6.9	10.7	12.3
Marketing	21	5.8	6.6	6.6	6.3	9.7
Sub Total	319	88.9	100.0			
Multiple Ties	40	11.1	n/a			
Total	359	100%	100%	67.1%	66.0%	100%

The next exhibit, Table 7.3, demonstrates the perceived responsibility for encouraging moderation broken down by country. Like the previous table, the 40 cases with three or four tied ranks were excluded from these analyses. The totals with (dual) tied ranks included adds to more than 100%, as each tie is included for each of the two first tied loci. The first Chi-sq. test inevitably includes cells with < 5 cases: the second Chi-sq. is a more robust test.

The breakdown of responsibility by country provides an interesting consideration of where responsibility is perceived to lie. In terms of who is most responsible, US respondents ranked consumers uniquely first rank (46.4%). In contrast, UK respondents ranked government uniquely first rank (46.2%).

Looking specifically at business and marketing, more US respondents ranked marketing in uniquely first rank (13.8%) as opposed to business (10.9%). In contrast, more UK respondents ranked business uniquely first rank (9.6%) than

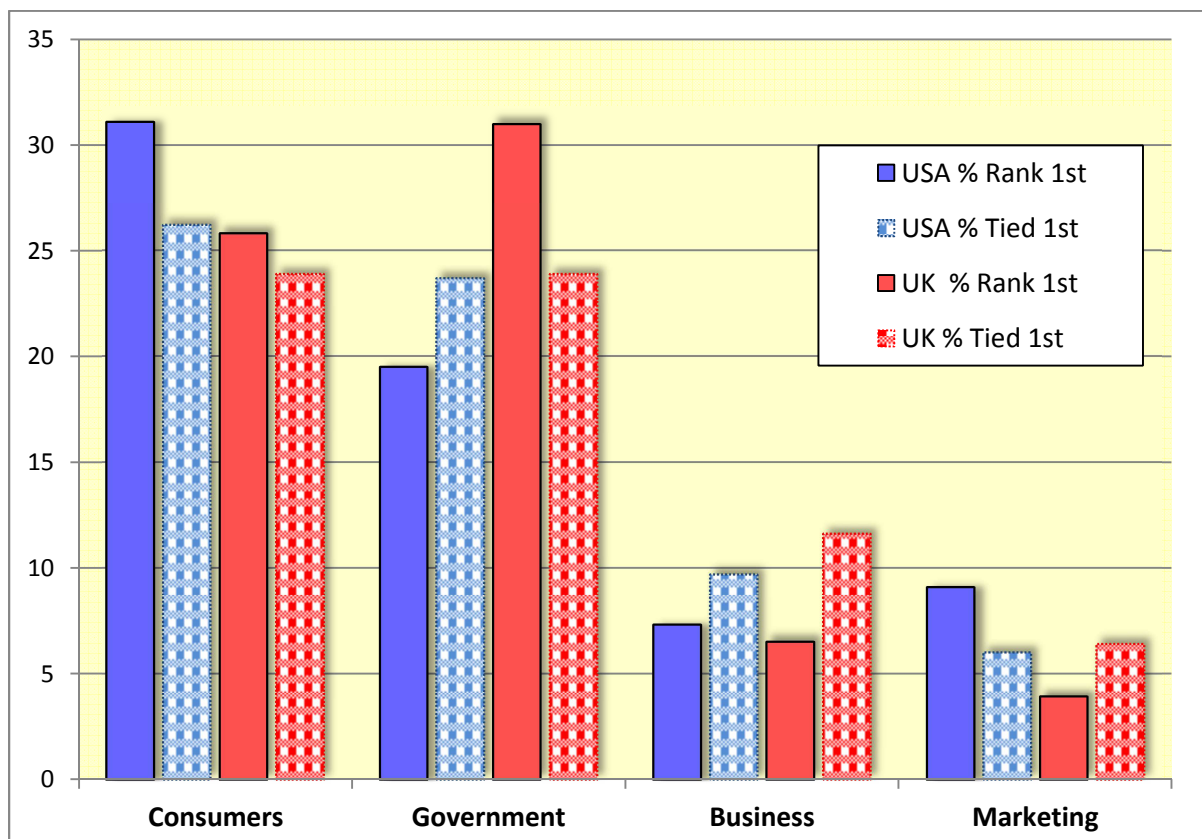
marketing (5.8%). This highlights interesting differences between perceptions of responsibility between the two country samples.

Table 7.3: Locus of responsibility breakdown by country

Locus of responsibility	% First Ranked or Tied		% Uniquely First Ranked	
	USA	UK	USA	UK
Consumers	31.1	25.8	46.4	38.5
Con (incl ties)	(57.3)	(49.7)		
<i>Tie Con+Gov</i>	18.9	16.8		
<i>Tie Con+Bus</i>	5.5	3.9		
<i>Tie Con+Mkt</i>	1.8	3.2		
Government	19.5	31.0	29.1	46.2
Gov (incl ties)	(43.2)	(78.6)		
<i>Tie Gov+Bus</i>	2.4	5.8		
<i>Tie Gov+Mkt</i>	2.4	1.3		
Business	7.3	6.5	10.9	9.6
Bus (incl ties)	(17.0)	(31.0)		
<i>Tie Bus+Mkt</i>	1.8	1.9		
Marketing	9.1	3.9	13.8	5.8
Mkt (incl ties)	(15.1)	(10.3)		
Cases (n)	164	155	110	104
Chi-sq (p =)	12.453 (n.s.)		8.407 (.038)	

Figure 7.2 provides a visual depiction of table 7.3. Here the differences in the US and UK samples in relation to where they perceive responsibility is explicit. The responses to the locus of responsibility items in the questionnaire evidence a recognised responsibility for marketing personnel to encourage a moderation of consumption.

Figure 7.2: Ranked locus of responsibility by country



7.2.3 The effect of demographic variables on acceptance of responsibility

A second research question considered the impact of demographic variables on marketing responsibility. The marketing responsibility scale was the main measurement tool.

Research Question 2: Do demographic variables affect the acceptance of business or marketing responsibility?

Table 7.4 provides an overview of the respondents' acceptance of marketing responsibility (using the marketing responsibility scale) to encourage moderation of consumption based on a number of demographic variables: country, gender, seniority, education and age. Conceptually, these demographic variables have been linked to corporate sustainability (see section 5.1.1).

With respect to country difference, there was stronger agreement with marketing responsibility amongst US respondents (49.5% (scale points 5-7)) than amongst

the UK respondents (38.9%). Gender evidenced a stronger agreement amongst male respondents (48.1%) than female respondents (40.2%). With respect to seniority, marketing directors (45.6%) and marketing managers (47.5%) agreed more strongly than marketing executives (37.8%). Interestingly, respondents with the least amount of formal education, and those with the most, agreed most strongly with marketing responsibility. Of those respondents with a high school education, 61.9% agreed with marketing responsibility. Likewise, of those respondents with a post-graduate degree, 45.5% agreed with marketing responsibility. The respondents in the younger half of the sample, ages 35-44 (54.1%) and under 35's (52.6%) tended to agree more strongly than the 45-54 (32.5%) year olds and the over 55s (26.3%).

Table 7.4: Acceptance of marketing responsibility by demographic profile

Marketing Responsibility Scale				
	n	% Disagree (1-3)	% Neutral (4)	% Agree (5-7)
Country				
USA	184	26.6	23.9	49.5
UK	175	36.6	24.6	38.9
Gender				
Male	187	30.5	21.4	48.1
Female	172	32.6	27.3	40.1
Seniority				
Marketing Director	103	36.0	18.4	45.6
Marketing Manager	158	27.2	25.3	47.5
Marketing Executive	98	33.7	28.6	37.8
Education				
High School	42	11.9	26.2	61.9
College	69	36.2	26.1	37.7
Degree	171	36.3	21.6	42.1

Post-graduate	77	27.3	27.3	45.5
Age				
Under 35	99	28.3	19.2	52.5
35-44	120	25.8	20.0	54.2
45-54	83	37.4	30.1	32.5
55 and Over	57	40.4	33.3	26.3

The demographic variables will now be considered in more detail.

7.2.3.1 Country

As noted in section 5.1.1.1, country differences between the USA and European countries exist in the approach to social and environmental issues by businesses. Table 7.5 presents an examination of differences between the US and UK respondents. Respondents from the USA on average agreed more strongly than UK respondents with item D22 on the marketing responsibility scale, which directly asked if encouraging customers to moderate their consumption is a role of marketing. Both the independent t-test ($p = .052$) and the chi-square ($p = .034$) analysis show a significant difference between the respondents from the two countries.

Table 7.5: Level of agreement with marketing responsibility by country

	Mean (Marketing Responsibility Item D22)	Independent t-test	Chi-Square (2 category Marketing Responsibility item)*
USA	4.62	t = 1.947 (p = .052)	3.713 (p = .034)
UK	4.26		

*Item D22 was transformed into a two category "yes/no" variable. Scale point 5 and above was considered agreement with marketing responsibility, scale point 4 and below was considered disagreement.

7.2.3.2 Gender

The second demographic variable under investigation is gender. A theoretical argument was presented in section 5.1.1.2, in which females were considered

more likely than men to act in a pro-environmental manner and positively influence corporate sustainability.

As demonstrated in table 7.6, male respondents averaged slightly stronger agreement with marketing responsibility than female respondents. However, this difference was not statistically significant in either a t-test or chi-square analysis.

Table 7.6: Level of agreement with marketing responsibility by gender

	Mean (Marketing Responsibility Item D22)	Independent t-test	Chi-Square (2 category Marketing Responsibility item)
Male	4.52	t = 0.828 (ns)	1.361 (ns)
Female	4.37		

7.2.3.3 Education

The level of the respondents' education was next considered. Within the literature, there has been mixed results regarding the influence of education on environmental attitude and ethical-decision making (see section 5.1.1.3). The concept of marketing responsibility, whilst a more extreme example of corporate sustainability, is also an entirely unique concept. As such, the influence of education is investigated.

Table 7.7 reveals a stronger agreement with marketing responsibility from the respondents with less formal education. Interestingly, the next strongest agreement comes from the respondents with the most formal education; a post-graduate degree. An ANOVA test was carried out with education and item D22 from the survey. The ANOVA does not reveal a strong significance of education upon the agreement with marketing responsibility. However, it does demonstrate an indication of differences but only at a modest significance level. In contrast, the chi-square test (which utilises the two category (yes/no) marketing responsibility item), does indicate a significant relationship between education and marketing responsibility ($p = .018$)

Table 7.7: Level of agreement with marketing responsibility by education

	Mean (Marketing Responsibility Item D22)	ANOVA	Chi-Square (2 category Marketing Responsibility item)
High School	5.10	F = 2.289 ($p = .078$)	10.048 ($p = .018$)
College	4.39		
Degree	4.32		
Post-graduate Degree	4.42		

7.2.3.4 Seniority

The influence of the seniority of the respondent is next investigated in terms of the influence it has upon agreement with marketing responsibility. The conceptual background revealed no prior evidence of a statistically significant relationship between the ethical judgements of higher or lower ranking marketing professionals (see section 5.1.1.4). Thus, the investigation into seniority and responsibility was undertaken to ascertain whether seniority played a part in the acceptance of marketing responsibility.

Table 7.8 reveals that, interestingly, mid-level marketing professionals agreed most strongly with marketing responsibility, followed next by marketing directors. Marketing executives displayed the lowest means on the marketing responsibility item. However, these differences were not statistically significant and this suggests the variables are unrelated.

Table 7.8: Level of agreement with marketing responsibility by seniority

	Mean (Marketing Responsibility Item D22)	ANOVA	Chi-Square (2 category Marketing Responsibility item)
Marketing Director	4.42	F Ratio = 0.463 (ns)	1.533 (ns)
Marketing Manager	4.54		

Marketing Executive	4.33		
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7.2.3.5 Age

Analysis next focused on the influence of respondents' age on the acceptance of marketing responsibility. There has been theoretical debate regarding the influence of age on environmental concern, environmental attitude and green buying behaviour. There is scant literature on the impact of age on corporate social responsibility, corporate sustainability or business ethics. As such, this analysis is of interest in order to provide a perspective on the influence of age on a professional outlook of responsibility.

Table 7.9 demonstrates that age group 35-44 are in the strongest agreement with marketing responsibility to encourage moderation, followed next by under 35's. The younger half of the sample is, therefore, most inclined to agree with marketing responsibility. ANOVA tests do reveal a significant F ratio ($p = .018$) and the chi-square test also indicates a significant relationship ($p = .031$).

Table 7.9: Level of agreement with marketing responsibility by age

	Mean (Marketing Responsibility Item D22)	ANOVA	Chi-Square (2 category Marketing Responsibility item)
Under 35	4.62	F = 3.415 ($p = .018$)	8.866 ($p = .031$)
35-44	4.73		
45-54	4.11		
Over 55	4.05		

7.3 Group 2: Marketer' Business Motivations to Encourage Moderation of Consumption

The focus of this group of analyses is to uncover more understanding about the marketers' six business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption, which were elicited during the qualitative phase of the research. Table 7.10 presents the six motivations.

Table 7.10: Marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption

Identified Motivation	Beliefs: Potential Reason to Encourage Moderation
Competitive	To gain competitive advantage: environmental leadership/image
Cost-Saving	Organisational and/or consumer moderation can save the firm money
Ethical	It is the right thing to do
Health	Moderation can often contribute to health improvement
Resource Preservation	It will avoid or minimize depletion of world resources
Social Equity	To facilitate greater fairness and justice in the use of global resources

7.3.1 Agreement with marketers' business motivations

The first research question addresses which of these motivations are most pertinent to marketing professionals.

RQ3: Which of the marketers' six business motivations are most strongly agreed with?

The means were produced to look at which of the motivations had the strongest overall agreement and these are presented in table 7.11. Cost-saving motivation achieved the highest mean. This confirms the trend noted in the qualitative phase of the research for marketers to discuss encouraging moderation for cost-saving purposes. Interestingly, competitive motivation achieved the lowest mean, which is perhaps suggestive of a concern of marketers that encouraging moderation of consumption would not make their organisations more competitive.

Table 7.11: Marketers' perceptions of business motivations: means

Business Motivations	Mean
Cost-Saving	5.2681
Social Equity	5.2486
Resource Preservation	5.1985
Ethical	5.1504
Health	5.0381
Competitive	4.9571

7.3.1.1 Ranking the marketers' business motivations

The scales for each of the marketers' business motivations were transformed into a ranking variable which allocated new values based on how strongly the motivations were agreed with. This allowed the researcher to rank the motivations in terms of the overall levels of agreement by marketers. Instances where two motivations were identified as first rank were accounted for in the creation of the new variable and these "tied ranks" were incorporated. There were 66 cases where the respondents had multiple ties and these could not be considered to have a clear first rank. As such, these were not allocated to any of the six motivations and the ranking of the motivations has been conducted with 293 out of the 359 cases accordingly. Table 7.12 presents the ranking information.

Ethical motivation was ranked first out of the six motivations, followed by cost-saving, social equity, health, resource preservation and finally competitiveness. The calculation of the weighted first rank is important in order to gain a clear picture of the rankings (which differ if based on the uniquely first rank alone). Ethical decision –making within organisations has been researched extensively and the inclusion of environmental issues within ethical decision making is not new. The results of the ranked marketers' motivation to encourage moderation of consumption evidences an extension of what has been researched previously and suggests encouraging moderation is an ethical consideration for professional marketers.

Table 7.12: Marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation breakdown

Marketings' Business Motivations	N	Raw Percent	Adjusted Percent	% Uniquely First Rank	% Tied at First Rank	Weighted First Rank
Ethical	54	15.0	18.4	18.4	3.4	20.1
<i>Tie Eth+Hea</i>	5	1.4	1.7			
<i>Tie Eth+ResPres</i>	1	0.3	0.3			
<i>Tie Eth+SocEq</i>	1	0.3	0.3			
<i>Tie Eth+CostSav</i>	1	0.3	0.3			
<i>Tie Eth+Comp</i>	2	0.6	0.7			
Health	43	12	14.7	14.7	4.1	16.8
<i>Tie Hea+ResPres</i>	2	0.6	0.7			
<i>Tie Hea+SocEq</i>	1	0.3	0.3			
<i>Tie Hea+CostSav</i>	3	0.8	1.0			
<i>Tie Hea+Comp</i>	1	0.3	0.3			
Resource Preservation	31	8.6	10.6	10.6	7.5	14.4
<i>Tie ResPres+SocEq</i>	13	3.6	4.4			
<i>Tie ResPres+CostSav</i>	6	1.7	2.0			
<i>Tie ResPres+Comp</i>	0	0.0	0.0			
Social Equity	43	12	14.7	14.7	7.9	18.7
<i>Tie SocEq+CostSav</i>	7	1.9	2.4			
<i>Tie SocEq+Comp</i>	1	.3	0.3			
Cost-Saving	47	13.1	16.0	16.0	5.8	18.9
<i>Tie CostSav+Comp</i>	0	0.0	0.0			
Competitive	31	8.6	10.6	10.6	1.4	11.3
Subtotal	293	81.6	100			
Multiple Ties	66	18.4	n/a			
Total	359	100	100	85.0	30.1	100

7.3.2 Influences on the marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption

During the conceptualisation chapter, it was hypothesized that corporate environmentalism would have an influence on the marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption. It is anticipated that, if an organisation is already acting environmentally, this will positively influence the marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption. As such, the analysis progresses to address this hypothesis.

H1: Corporate environmentalism will influence marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption

In order to address this hypothesis, multiple regression analyses are performed in SPSS. A model was produced for each of the six dependent variables; ethical, health, resource preservation, social equity, cost-saving and competitive motivation. For each of these models, the corporate environmentalism subscales (environmental orientation and environmental strategy focus) were the independent variables.

There are a number of assumptions which must be met in order for the conclusions of a linear regression analysis to become generalizable to a wider population beyond the sample. These are

- Linearity. The relationship between the independent and dependent variables should be a linear one. This can be assessed by partial regression plots (Hair et al., 2010).
- Homoscedasticity. The variance of the residual terms should be constant. If they are very unequal, it would indicate heteroscedasticity in the multivariate case. This assumption can be assessed by an examination of the residuals.
- Normality. The residuals in the model must be random and normally distributed. A visual examination of the normal probability plots of the residuals will enable an assessment of normality (Hair et al., 2010).

- No perfect multicollinearity must exist between the predictors. Field (2009) suggests that independent variables should not correlate more highly than .80 or .90 in a correlation matrix. The tolerance value, and the corresponding VIF value ($VIF = 1 \div \text{tolerance}$) should also be assessed as these provide a further diagnostic for collinearity. Tolerance values below .10, and a corresponding VIF of 10, indicates problems with multicollinearity. Hair et al., (2010) suggest that even VIF values of 3 to 5 can indicate problems and cause problems with interpreting the model
- Independent errors. There should be uncorrelated (or independent) residual terms for any two observations. The Durbin-Watson statistic tests this assumption by checking for serial correlations between errors. Values less than 1 or greater than 3 indicate problems and suggests errors are not independent.

Using the recommended plots, model statistics and examining the residuals, allows the researcher to assess whether the regression model meets the above assumptions and whether the findings can be generalized beyond the sample.

In order to produce a well-fitting model, the output should be checked for outliers and influential cases. The case-wise diagnostics (residual statistics) were requested for each model and the residuals were assessed. In an ordinary sample, it would be expected that 95% of cases would have standardised residuals within ± 2 . Field (2009) suggests that with a sample size of 200 respondents it is reasonable to expect about 10 cases (10%) to have standardised residuals outside of these limits. In the models run to assess hypothesis 1, the outliers were constrained to 2. Between 4-6% of cases exceed ± 2 (across all the H1 and H2 models). These cases were then excluded from each model and the model was run again. The improved models are presented for each of the marketers' business motivations.

Homoscedasticity and normality were assessed using plots for each model. An example can be found in appendix 7.2. All plots visually met the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity.

7.3.2.1 Corporate Environmentalism and Ethical Motivation

The first analysis concerns the influence of corporate environmentalism is the ethical motivation to encourage moderation of consumption. Corporate environmentalism is made up of two subscales; environmental orientation and environmental strategy focus. These were entered into a multiple regression model in two steps. It is presumed that environmental orientation (EO) will be more common within organisations. An environmental strategy focus (ESF) is likely to be less common amongst the organisations the respondents worked for. This assumption was checked using the data (Means: EO=5.11, ESF=4.74, Standard Deviation; EO= 1.48, ESF= 1.58). The means for the two subscales indicate that more of the marketers in the sample worked for organisations with an environmental orientation than an environmental strategy focus. The standard deviation for each subscale also supports this. Banerjee's original (2002) study evidenced higher means on the environmental orientation scale than the environmental strategy focus scale. This suggests that environmental orientation is potentially a more important influencer on marketers' business motivations towards moderating consumption. As such, environmental orientation is added to the model first, followed by environmental strategy focus. Table 7.13 presents the model statistics.

Table 7.13: Corporate environmentalism and ethical motivation

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	R ² Change	F-Change	Sig F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.554	.307	.305	.93773	.307	149.320	.000	1.635
2	.584	.341	.338	.91550	.034	17.563	.000	

	B	Std. Error	Beta	Tolerance	VIF
Step1					
Constant	3.013	.192		1.000	1.000
Environmental Orientation	.438	.036	.554		
Step 2					
Constant	2.888	.190			

Environmental Orientation	.260	.055	.328	.403	2.480
Environmental Strategy Focus	.218	.052	.292	.403	2.480

Model 1 produces an R^2 of .307 indicating that environmental orientation accounts for 30.7% of the variance in ethical motivation. The Beta values indicate a positive relationship with ethical motivation. The inclusion of environmental strategy focus (model 2) improves the model and, despite a relatively small change in the R^2 , that change is statistically significant ($p = .000$). The Durbin-Watson statistic is above 1 and less than 3, indicating that the assumption of independent errors has been met. Overall the model produces a good level of explanation. The multicollinearity diagnostics are comfortably within the suggested rule of thumb (VIF less than 10, tolerance above 0.1 (Field, 2009)).

7.3.2.2 Corporate Environmentalism and Health Motivation

A regression analysis was carried out in order to assess the influence of corporate environmentalism upon health motivation. This particular motivation refers to marketers encouraging moderation of consumption because they are motivated to improve the health of customers and potential customers. Table 7.14 presents the outcome of the regression.

Table 7.14: Corporate environmentalism and health motivation

Model	R	R²	Adjusted R²	Std. Error of the Estimate	R² Change	F-Change	Sig F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.465	.217	.214	1.06778	.217	94.005	.000	1.961
2	.532	.283	.279	1.02271	.067	31.627	.000	

	B	Std. Error	Beta	Tolerance	VIF
Step1					
Constant	3.072	.217		1.000	1.000

Environmental Orientation	.393	.041	.465		
Step 2					
Constant	2.902	.210			
Environmental Orientation	.116	.063	.137	.383	2.613
Environmental Strategy Focus	.333	.059	.418	.383	2.613

In model 1, environmental orientation explains 21.7% of the variance in health motivation. The inclusion of environmental strategy focus increases the R^2 to 28.3% and this change in R^2 is statistically significant. The Beta values indicate that environmental strategy focus is more powerful than environmental orientation once it has been added to the model. As noted above, environmental orientation was entered into the model first as an environmental orientation is more common than an environmental strategy focus. However, less common does not equate to less effective. Since a formal strategy focus is less common, it is possibly a more important subscale for explaining health motivation. It is also important to note that the correlations between the EO and EST scales conform to guidelines (below 0.8 (Field, 2009)).

Multicollinearity diagnostics suggest the assumption of no perfect multicollinearity has been met. The Durbin-Watson statistic is almost 2, the ideal level for meeting the assumption of independent errors. However, over 70% of the variance remains unexplained for health motivation and this suggests that corporate environmentalism alone is not fully predictive of this motivation.

7.3.2.3 Corporate Environmentalism and Resource Preservation

This motivation refers to encouraging moderation in order to avoid depleting world resources. It is hypothesized that corporate environmentalism will positively affect whether marketers are motivated to encourage moderation for resource preservation reasons. Table 7.15 presents the results.

Table 7.15: Corporate environmentalism and resource preservation motivation

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	R ² Change	F-Change	Sig F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.600	.360	.358	.95190	.360	192.523	.000	1.682
2	.631	.399	.395	.92370	.039	22.263	.000	

	B	Std. Error	Beta	Tolerance	VIF
Step1					
Constant	2.767	.186		1.000	1.000
Environmental Orientation	.485	.035	.600		
Step 2					
Constant	2.662	.182			
Environmental Orientation	.275	.056	.341	.369	2.713
Environmental Strategy Focus	.247	.052	.326	.369	2.713

The multiple correlation coefficients suggest that 36% (model 1) and 39.9% (model 2) of the variance in resource preservation motivation is explained by corporate environmentalism. The change in R² is significant which suggests the inclusion of environmental strategy focus in model 2 improves the model. The two variables are positively related meaning that marketers who work for more environmentally conscious organisations are likely to agree more strongly with encouraging moderation for resource preservation reasons. The Durbin-Watson statistic, whilst moderately less than 2 when compared to the analysis of health motivation, is still within acceptable guidelines and it is fair to assume that the assumption of independent errors has been met.

This is the highest VIF encountered in the analyses so far; however, it is still comfortably below the recommendation of 10 and, therefore, suggests multicollinearity is within acceptable levels.

7.3.2.4 Corporate Environmentalism and Social Equity

Social equity refers to greater fairness and justice in the use of global resources, and refers to both intra and intergenerational use of resources. A regression analysis was undertaken to assess the influence of corporate environmentalism on marketers' agreement with a social equity motivation. Table 7.16 presents the results of this regression.

Table 7.16: Corporate environmentalism and social equity motivation

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	R ² Change	F-Change	Sig F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.628	.394	.393	.90109	.394	220.677	.000	1.781
2	.684	.467	.464	.84625	.073	46.367	.000	

	B	Std. Error	Beta	Tolerance	VIF
Step1					
Constant	2.731	.180		1.000	1.000
Environmental Orientation	.501	.034	.628		
Step 2					
Constant	2.547	.171			
Environmental Orientation	.229	.051	.286	.385	2.598
Environmental Strategy Focus	.330	.049	.436	.385	2.598

The results show that model 1 explains 39.4% of the variance in social equity motivation. The addition of environmental strategy focus in model 2 increases the explanation to 46.7% and this change in R² is significant. The Beta values indicate that the relationship between corporate environmentalism and social equity motivation is a positive one, implying that a marketers working in a more environmentally focused organisation will be agree more strongly with encouraging moderation for social equity reasons. As with the regression analysis

of health motivation, the beta values here also indicate a more powerful effect of environmental strategy focus when added to the model in step 2. The importance of this subscale clearly suggests that an environment strategy focus, whilst less common than an environmental orientation, is more important for explaining social equity motivation.

The Durbin-Watson statistic reveals the assumption of independent errors is met. The collinearity statistics are also within acceptable levels and suggests the assumption of no perfect collinearity has not been violated.

7.3.2.5 Corporate Environmentalism and Cost-saving motivation

During the qualitative phase, cost-saving was the most frequently mentioned reason why a marketer might encourage moderation of consumption. Likewise in the sustainability literature, efficiency measures and the associated cost-savings were most often cited for organisations to act sustainably. The regression analysis tests the influence of corporate environmentalism on the marketers' agreement with encouraging moderation for cost-saving purposes. Table 7.17 presents the results.

Table 7.17: Corporate environmentalism and cost-saving motivation

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	R ² Change	F-Change	Sig F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.557	.311	.309	.88701	.311	154.646	.000	1.811
2	.593	.351	.347	.86179	.041	21.369	.000	

	B	Std. Error	Beta	Tolerance	VIF
Step1					
Constant	3.182	.176		1.000	1.000
Environmental Orientation	.409	.033	.557		
Step 2					
Constant	3.115	.171			
Environmental Orientation	.208	.054	.284	.351	2.849

Environmental Strategy Focus	.231	.050	.340	.351	2.849
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Model 1 produced an R^2 of .311 indicating that environmental orientation alone explains 31.1% of the variance in cost-saving motivation. The addition of environmental strategy focus increased the explained variance to 35.1% and this change in R^2 was statistically significant. The beta values reveal that environmental strategy focus becomes a more powerful indicator once added to the model.

The Durbin-Watson statistic is close to 2 which comfortably confirms the assumption of independent errors. The multicollinearity diagnostics are within acceptable levels and the model is therefore considered a good fit.

7.3.2.6 Corporate Environmentalism and Competitive motivation

Encouraging moderation of consumption in order to stay competitive was a noted motivation in the qualitative research phase. Indeed, in the sustainability literature, organisations also undertook environmental activities in order to keep up with competitors and maintain an image of legitimacy with customers. Here, the regression analysis tests to see whether corporate environmentalism influences the marketers' agreement with encouraging moderation for competitive reasons. Table 7.18 presents the results.

Table 7.18: Corporate environmentalism and competitive motivation

Model	R	R²	Adjusted R²	Std. Error of the Estimate	R² Change	F-Change	Sig F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.578	.334	.332	.94483	.334	171.874	.000	1.832
2	.669	.447	.444	.86213	.113	69.963	.000	

	B	Std. Error	Beta	Tolerance	VIF
Step1					
Constant	2.626	.189		1.000	1.000
Environmental	.463	.035	.578		

Orientation					
Step 2					
Constant	2.453	.174			
Environmental Orientation	.122	.052	.152	.384	2.605
Environmental Strategy Focus	.405	.048	.543	.384	2.605

In model 1, environmental orientation explains over a third of the variance in competitive motivation. The addition of environmental strategy focus increases this explanation to 44.7%. This change in R^2 is statistically significant and supports the addition of the environmental strategy focus subscale to the model. The b-values indicate a positive relationship and therefore, a marketer who works for an environmentally focussed organisation is more likely to agree with encouraging moderation for competitive reasons. Again, the beta values suggest that once environmental strategy focus is added to the model, it becomes more important for explaining competitive motivation. The correlations between the variables were all within acceptable guidelines. The assumptions of no multicollinearity and independence of errors were met comfortably. The model produces an acceptable fit.

7.3.2.7 Summary of the influence of corporate environmentalism and the marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption

The regression analysis reveals that corporate environmentalism explained between a third and half of the variance in each of the marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption and it evidences the influence of the corporate environmentalism variable on the marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation. The adjusted R^2 in each of the models were close in size to the R^2 , indicating that the findings are generalizable beyond the sample data to a wider population.

Table 7.19 presents a summary of the beta values and R^2 from each of the motivations. It also includes the Pearson's r for Environmental Orientation and

Environmental Strategy Focus with each of the marketers' business motivations, in order to demonstrate the bivariate correlations between these scales. It is clear that in the instances where the beta weight of environmental strategy focus was larger than environmental orientation, the bivariate correlation also demonstrates a bigger Pearson's r for ESF.

Table 7.19: Summary of r and β values for corporate environmentalism

Marketers' business motivations	Environmental Orientation		Environmental Strategy Focus		Complete Model
	r	B^*	r	β	R^2
Ethical	.494	.554/ .328	.490	.292	.341
Health	.379	.465/ .137	.430	.418	.283
Resource Preservation	.492	.600/ .341	.483	.326	.399
Social Equity	.517	.628/ .286	.544	.436	.467
Cost-saving	.429	.557/ .284	.466	.340	.351
Competitive	.499	.578/ .152	.553	.543	.447

The next section will seek to explain more of the variance by analysing the influence of personally-held motivations upon the agreement with each of the six motivations

7.3.2.8 Personally-held motivations

In chapter 5, it was conceptualised that the personally-held motivations of the marketer would have an influence on the marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption. It is anticipated that if an individual is already motivated to consume less, this will positively influence the marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption. Hypothesis two is as follows:

H2: Marketers' personally-held motivations will influence marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption

Multiple regression analysis was used to address this hypothesis. Models were produced for each of the six motivations. The variable *marketers' personally-held*

motivations is made up of the subscales personal motivations (PM) and extrinsic regulation (ER). The guilt scale, which was used instead of the introjected regulation scale which formed part of the MTES (discussed in section 6.3.2), did not contribute to any of the six models and it was therefore excluded from the analysis.

The regression models were run using the “enter” method in SPSS. Personal motivations were added first to the model followed by extrinsic regulation. The personal motivations subscale is a newly adapted scale and comprised items from the original MTES which were adapted for this study. These items concerned intrinsic motivation, integrated regulation and identified regulation. These items are the most strongly felt motivations and represent individuals acting environmentally because they were very highly motivated to do so. As such, it is anticipated that the personal motivations will be more powerful than external regulation and as such will provide greater explanatory power. The data was checked to ensure this assumption was correct (Means: PM=5.26, ER=3.66, Standard Deviation; PM= 1.26, ER= 1.58). The means for the two subscales indicate that more of the marketers in the sample had a stronger agreement with the personal motivations to moderation consumption. External regulation, which concerns moderating consumption due to external reasons such as avoiding criticism or in order to gain recognition from others, produced a much lower mean score. The standard deviation for each subscale also supports this. The standard deviation also evidenced a higher variation of opinion for external regulation. The means and standard deviation for the two subscales supports adding personal motivation first to the regression models.

7.3.2.9 Personally-held Motivations and Ethical Motivation

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to test the influence of personally-held views of moderation upon the acceptance of ethical motivation. Table 7.20 presents the results.

Table 7.20: Personally-held motivations and ethical motivation

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	R ² Change	F-Change	Sig F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.720	.518	.516	.82841	.518	364.035	.000	1.806
2	.743	.553	.550	.79920	.035	26.233	.000	

	B	Std. Error	Beta	Tolerance	VIF
Step1					
Constant	1.636	.192		1.000	1.000
Personally-held Motivations	.677	.036	.720		
Step 2					
Constant	1.549	.186			
Personally-held Motivations	.583	.039	.619	.774	1.293
External Regulation	.159	.031	.212	.774	1.293

Model step 1 produces an R² of .518 indicating that personally held motivation accounts for 51.8% of the variance in ethical motivation. The inclusion of external regulation increases the explained variance to 55.3%. This improvement is modest but statistically significant. The Durbin-Watson statistic is above 1 and less than 3, indicating that the assumption of independent errors has been met. Overall the model produces a good level of explanation. The collinearity diagnostics are comfortably within the suggested rule of thumb (VIF less than 10, tolerance above 0.1 (Field, 2009)).

7.3.2.10 Personally-held Motivations and Health Motivation

The two personally-held motivation subscales were next analysed with health motivation to test their influence on whether marketers would be inclined to

encourage moderation of consumption for health reasons. Table 7.21 presents the results

Table 7.21: Personally-held motivations and health motivation

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	R ² Change	F-Change	Sig F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.709	.503	.502	.87511	.503	347.372	.000	2.071
2	.725	.526	.523	.85628	.023	16.255	.000	

	B	Std. Error	Beta	Tolerance	VIF
Step1					
Constant	1.412	.204		1.000	1.000
Personally-held Motivation	.701	.038	.709		
Step 2					
Constant	1.343	.200			
Personally-held Motivation	.618	.042	.626	.765	1.307
External Regulation	.136	.034	.172	.765	1.307

Model step 1 produces an R² of .502 which improves to .523 upon the inclusion of external regulation. This R² change is significant and, despite providing only a small improvement, it implies that the external regulation subscale is important in the explanation of health motivation. The Durbin-Watson statistic and collinearity diagnostics are comfortably within acceptable levels.

7.3.2.11 Personally-held Motivations and Resource Preservation

Resource preservation motivation was next analysed for the influence of personally held motivations. Table 7.22 presents the results.

Table 7.22: Personally-held motivations and resource preservation

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	R ² Change	F-Change	Sig F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.781	.611	.609	.72769	.611	525.395	.000	1.722
2	.800	.640	.638	.70107	.029	26.930	.000	

	B	Std. Error	Beta	Tolerance	VIF
Step1					
Constant	1.410	.173		1.000	1.000
Personally-held Motivation	.729	.032	.781		
Step 2					
Constant	1.331	.168			
Personally-held Motivation	.642	.035	.688	.770	1.299
External Regulation	.145	.028	.194	.770	1.299

The regression analysis indicates that personally-held motivation explains 61.1% of the variance in resource preservation, rising to 64% with the inclusion of external regulation. This is a large amount of explained variance and suggests a strong relationship between the two variables. The VIF and tolerance indicators suggest the assumption of no perfect collinearity has been met. The Durbin-Watson statistic is equally satisfactory.

7.3.2.12 Personally-held Motivations and Social Equity

Social equity refers to greater fairness and justice in the use of global resources, and refers to both intra and intergenerational use of resources. A regression analysis was undertaken to assess the influence of personally held motivations on marketers' agreement with a social equity motivation. Table 7.23 presents the results of this regression.

Table 7.23: Personally-held motivations and social equity motivation

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	R ² Change	F-Change	Sig F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.759	.576	.575	.79474	.576	478.125	.000	1.867
2	.776	.602	.600	.77098	.026	23.033	.000	

	B	Std. Error	Beta	Tolerance	VIF
Step 1					
Constant	1.406	.182		1.000	1.000
Personally-held Motivation	.735	.034	.759		
Step 2					
Constant	1.328	.177			
Personally-held Motivation	.650	.037	.672	.774	1.292
External Regulation	.142	.030	.184	.774	

The R² at step 1 and step 2 suggest that personally-held motivation and external regulation are highly influential on the explanation of social equity motivation. The beta values suggest a positive relationship, indicating that the more motivated a marketer is to moderate consumption in their private life, the more likely they are to agree with encouraging moderation of consumption for social equity reasons in the workplace. Collinearity statistics and Durbin-Watson statistic are both comfortably within acceptable levels.

7.3.2.13 Personally-held Motivations and Cost-saving Motivation

Cost-saving was a motivator much noted by marketers during the qualitative phase of the research. Likewise, in the literature, it was commonly found to be an important driver of sustainability. The effect of personally held motivations upon the agreement of encouraging moderation of consumption for (business) cost-

saving reasons is now tested using multiple regression analysis. Table 7.24 presents the results.

Table 7.24: Personally-held motivations and cost-saving motivation

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	R ² Change	F-Change	Sig F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.735	.540	.539	.72592	.540	396.829	.000	1.945
2	.745	.555	.552	.71536	.015	11.055	.001	

	B	Std. Error	Beta	Tolerance	VIF
Step1					
Constant	1.944	.173		1.000	1.000
Personally-held Motivation	.636	.032	.735		
Step 2					
Constant	1.900	.171			
Personally-held Motivation	.580	.036	.670	.776	1.289
External Regulation	.092	.028	.137	.776	1.289

Model step 1 produces an R² of .540 indicating that personally held motivation accounts for 54% of the variance in ethical motivation. The inclusion of external regulation increases the explained variance to 55.5%. This small improvement is statistically significant. The Durbin-Watson statistic is above 1 and less than 3, indicating that the assumption of independent errors has been met. Overall the model produces a good level of explanation. The collinearity diagnostics are comfortably within the suggested rule of thumb.

7.3.2.14 Personally-held Motivations and Competitive Motivation

The effects of personally-held motivations are now tested for their influence upon the competitive motivation. Table 7.25 presents the results.

Table 7.25: Personally-held motivations and competitive motivation

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	R ² Change	F-Change	Sig F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.739	.546	.545	.80540	.546	417.945	.000	1.987
2	.779	.607	.604	.75115	.060	52.937	.000	

	B	Std. Error	Beta	Tolerance	VIF
Step1					
Constant	1.235	.189		1.000	1.000
Personally-held Motivation	.714	.035	.739		
Step 2					
Constant	1.123	.177			
Personally-held Motivation	.586	.037	.607	.775	1.290
External Regulation	.212	.029	.279	.775	1.290

Personally-held motivation and external regulation subscales are important in their effect on competitive motivation. The R² in model step 2 reveals that the combined subscales explain 60.7% of the variance in competitive motivation. The beta values indicate a positive relationship between the two variables. Collinearity statistics and Durbin-Watson statistic are both comfortably within acceptable levels.

7.3.2.15 Summary of the influence of personally-held motivations on the marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption

Table 7.26 presents a summary of the beta values and R² from each of the motivations. It also includes the Pearson's *r* for Personally-held motivation and External Regulation with each of the marketers' business motivations, in order to demonstrate the bivariate correlations between these scales. The R² for the

complete models are high and demonstrate good explanatory power and facilitates understanding of the influences on marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption.

Table 7.26: Summary of r and β values for corporate environmentalism

Marketers' business motivations	Personally-held Motivation		External Regulation		Complete Model
	r	β	r	β	R^2
Ethical	.630	.720/ .619	.448	.212	.553
Health	.630	.709/ .626	.461	.172	.526
Resource Preservation	.668	.781/ .688	.481	.194	.638
Social Equity	.730	.759/ .672	.504	.184	.602
Cost-saving	.658	.735/ .670	.441	.137	.555
Competitive	.667	.739/ .607	.534	.279	.607

7.4 Group 3: Explaining Marketing Responsibility

The third group of analysis concerns understanding the power of the variables so far explored in group 2 in terms of explaining marketing responsibility to encourage moderation. In chapter 5, it was conceptualised that corporate environmentalism, personally-held motivations and the marketers' business motivations would predict perceived marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption.

RQ4. Do the variables corporate environmentalism, personally-held motivations and business motivations, explain the acceptance of marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption?

In order to answer the research question, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was first produced incorporating all the variables. This was the first step to understanding the relationships between the variables and assessing the "fit" they have with each other.

7.4.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Marketing Responsibility

A CFA measurement model was produced using the Maximum Likelihood (ML) method and was run using the full sample (n=359). The model included the following constructs:

Table 7.27: CFA constructs and Cronbach's alphas

Construct	Subscale	Cronbach's alpha
Corporate Environmentalism	Environmental Orientation (EO)	.949
	Environmental Strategy Focus (ESF)	.955
Personally-held motivations	Personal Motivation (PM)	.895
	External Regulation (ER)	.882
Marketers' Business Motivations to Encourage Moderation of Consumption	Ethical	.856
	Health	.812
	Resource Preservation (RP)	.886
	Social Equity (SE)	.882
	Cost-saving (CS)	.815
	Competitive (Comp)	.884
Marketing Responsibility	Marketing Responsibility (MR)	.873

The CFA model is presented in Appendix E. The acceptability of the model is now discussed.

7.4.1.1 Model Fit

Model fit compares theory to reality by assessing the similarity of the estimated covariance matrix to the observed covariance matrix. Goodness-of-fit (GOF) measures are derived from the mathematical comparison of the two matrices. The specified model is said to have good fit, when the values of the two matrices are similar (Hair et al., 2010).

Hair et al. (2010) suggest that it is satisfactory to report one goodness-of-fit statistic, one badness-of-fit statistic plus the normed chi-square. In particular, they recommend the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) to demonstrate goodness-of-fit and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) to demonstrate badness-

of-fit. The CFI = 0.904 which meets the recommended 0.9 or higher (Hair et al., 2010).

The RMSEA for the model = 0.062 which is well below 0.08 or less as recommended by Browne and Cudeck (1993). The $\chi^2 = 2445.205$ and degrees of freedom = 1025, p-value <.05. A statistically insignificant result indicates that the two covariance matrices are not different (the same) and therefore a statistically insignificant χ^2 is hoped for. However, this measure is influenced by sample size and the number of observed variables. Based on the sample size (n=359) and the number of variables in the model (13), a significant p-value is expected. Other fit indices include the Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.905 and the Parsimony Adjusted Comparative Fit Index (PCFI) = 0.822. Taken together, all the fit indices indicate an adequate fit for the model.

7.4.1.2 Standardised residuals

The individual differences between the observed and estimated covariance terms are known as residuals. The smaller the residuals, the better the fit. The residuals can assist with diagnosing problems in the measurement model. Residual terms below 2.5 do not suggest a problem, however, residuals greater than 4.0 suggest a potentially unacceptable level of error (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Five errors terms were slightly above the 2.5 level however, they were considerably lower than the threshold of 4.0. No items in the model were above 4.0. Since it is suggested that it is ok to accept a small number of residuals (above 4.0), the residuals suggest that the model is acceptable (Hair et al., 2010).

7.4.1.3 Factor Loadings

An assessment of the convergent validity of the model can be carried out by examining the factor loadings. Convergent validity concerns how well the indicators of a specific model “converge” or share a high proportion of variance (Hair et al., 2010). It is suggested that factor loadings should be statistically significant and meet the minimum threshold of .5 but preferably be .7 or higher (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The loadings are presented in Appendix E. All loadings met the minimum requirements of .5. Two factor loadings were below .6, three loadings were below .7, the remaining 43 factor loadings were .7 or higher.

Considering that all the items were higher than the minimum of .5, all items were retained in the model. The convergent validity of the model is supported by the factor loadings.

Another pertinent assessment of this type of validity is the computation of Average Variance Extracted (AVE). This should be calculated for each construct in the model and is obtained from the sum of the factor loadings for each construct, divided by the number of items representing that construct. The general rule-of-thumb is that the AVE for each construct should be .5 or higher in order to represent good convergence. The AVE for the CFA model can be found in Appendix E along with the factor loadings. The AVE for each construct was considerably more than the .5 minimum and confirms the convergent validity for the model.

Finally, the construct reliability (CR) can be computed as a final check of convergent validity. This is calculated for each construct in the model using the sum of the squared factor loadings for each construct and then dividing this value by the sum of the squared factor loadings plus the sum of the error variance (delta). The rule of thumb for CR is that .7 or higher suggests good reliability (Hair et al., 2010). The CR for each construct is above .8 and suggests good reliability. These figures can be found in Appendix E.

7.4.1.4 Discriminant validity

The discriminant validity concerns how distinct a construct is from the other constructs in the model. Hair et al. (2010) suggest comparing the AVE for each construct with the squared inter-construct correlation (SIC) for each of the constructs in the model. The AVE should be greater than the SIC in order to demonstrate that a construct shares more variance with its own item measures than it does with another construct. In most cases, the AVE was greater than the SIC for the CFA model. However, on five occasions the SIC was greater (in two instances there was only a slight difference in values).

However, this does call into question the discriminant validity of those items. It is important to remember that the scales used in the study were all newly developed

scales (except for Corporate Environmentalism). Developing new scales is always a challenging procedure which often calls for further refinement and re-testing. For most constructs the discriminant validity was acceptable and this affirms the validity of those newly developed scales.

7.4.1.5 Face Validity

Face validity is assessed using the researcher's and other expert judgements; it refers to the extent to which the construct definition is consistent with the content of the items used to measure the construct. The face validity of the items in the survey was assessed using a number of procedures: pre-test of the survey with marketing professionals, review of the qualitative data (which helped define the constructs), involving senior marketing executives during the Retail Research Forum, and informal assessment from PhD peer group and other members of academic staff at the University of Manchester. The feedback obtained led to the clarification and re-wording of some items in the survey prior to the survey being executed.

7.4.2 Testing Explanatory Power

Following the CFA, a regression analysis will be run to test whether the variables corporate environmentalism, personally-held motivations and the marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption can explain the acceptance of marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption. Regression has been chosen over structural equations modelling (SEM) to test the constructs for their ability to predict marketing responsibility for a number of reasons. Firstly, regression analysis produces more coherent results and has more stringent guidelines in terms of interpreting the output. Secondly, considering the discriminant validity concerns which arose during the CFA, and the model not producing an excellent fit, it is felt that regression analysis would be a more appropriate analysis technique which would provide clearer results.

7.4.2.1 Regression analysis to predict marketing responsibility

A stepwise regression model was firstly produced following the advice of Field (2009), who suggests stepwise methods for exploratory model building. The relationship between corporate environmentalism and marketing responsibility to

encourage moderation is new and untested. The personally-held motivations and the marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption are newly developed concepts and their effect on marketing responsibility is, likewise, new and exploratory. This makes a stepwise regression analysis an ideal choice of analysis.

The stepwise regression was produced using the same variables as the CFA to assess how the regression model prioritizes the variables for explaining marketing responsibility for encouraging moderation of consumption (refer to Table 7.28). The corporate environmental subscales and the personally-held motivation subscales were added into the first step, and the marketers' business motivations were added into the second step. The results were as follows:

Table 7.28: All Motivation Factors Explaining Perceived Responsibility of Marketing

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	R ² Change	F-Change	Sig F Change	Durbin-Watson
1	.562	.316	.314	1.26171	.316	165.177	.000	1.892
2	.649	.421	.418	1.16279	.105	64.323	.000	
3	.657	.432	.427	1.15376	.011	6.594	.011	
4	.729	.531	.526	1.04946	.099	75.074	.000	
5	.756	.572	.566	1.00422	.041	33.612	.000	
6	.760	.578	.571	.99788	.007	5.499	.020	

	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Step1	Enters: External Regulation (ER)						
Constant	2.524	.168		15.001	.000	1.000	1.000
ER	.543	.042	.562	12.852	.000		
Step 2	Enters: External Regulation (ER), Personal Motivation (PM)						
Constant	.796	.266		2.997	.003		
ER	.374	.044	.388	8.463	.000	.774	1.291
PM	.446	.056	.368	8.020	.000	.774	1.291

Step 3	Enters: External Regulation (ER), Personal Motivation (PM), Environmental Strategy Focus (ESF)						
Constant	.682	.267		2.552	.011		
ER	.328	.047	.340	6.905	.000	.662	1.511
PM	.384	.060	.317	6.381	.000	.651	1.537
ESF	.129	.050	.133	2.568	.011	.593	1.687
Step 4	Enters: External Regulation (ER), Personal Motivation (PM), Environmental Strategy Focus (ESF), Competitive Motivation (Comp)						
Constant	.002	.255		.008	.993		
ER	.232	.045	.240	5.206	.000	.621	1.610
PM	.126	.062	.104	2.022	.044	.502	1.992
ESF	.050	.046	.052	1.085	.279	.570	1.753
Comp	.556	.064	.457	8.665	.000	.476	2.102
Step 5	Enters: External Regulation (ER), Personal Motivation (PM), Environmental Strategy Focus (ESF), Competitive Motivation (Comp), Social Equity Motivation (SE)						
Constant	-.332	.251		-1.322	.187		
ER	.206	.043	.214	4.808	.000	.614	1.628
PM	-.045	.066	-.037	-.676	.500	.403	2.479
ESF	.024	.045	.025	.537	.591	.565	1.771
Comp	.424	.066	.348	6.461	.000	.418	2.393
SE	.402	.069	.331	5.798	.000	.372	2.687
Step 6	Enters: External Regulation (ER), Personal Motivation (PM), Environmental Strategy Focus (ESF), Competitive (Comp), Social Equity (SE), Health Motivation						
Constant	-.424	.253		-1.678	.094		
ER	.195	.043	.202	4.545	.000	.607	1.648
PM	-.079	.068	-.065	-1.170	.243	.385	2.600
ESF	0.29	.044	.030	.648	.518	.563	1.775
Comp	.390	.067	.321	5.850	.000	.399	2.508
SE	.363	.071	.298	5.109	.000	.351	2.848
Health	.132	.056	.116	2.345	.020	.488	2.049

The stepwise regression analysis controls the decision about the order in which predictors are entered into the model (Field, 2009). The analysis generated six

steps and by the sixth step the model consisted of External Regulation, Personal Motivations, Environmental Strategy Focus, Competitive Motivation, Social Equity Motivation and Health Motivation. The R^2 for the model, at the sixth step, is .578 which indicates that 57.8% of the variance in marketing responsibility is explained by these variables. The change in the R^2 at each step is also significant, evidencing that these improvements are important.

However, from looking at the Beta values (and the associated significance), it is clear that as the marketers' motivations are added to the model at step 4, 5 and 6, several of the earlier variables lose their significance; namely Environmental Strategy Focus and Personal Motivations. Therefore, the main predictors by step 6, based on the Beta values, are External Regulation, Competitive Motivation, Social Equity Motivation and Health Motivation.

The Durbin-Watson statistic demonstrates that the assumption of independent errors has been met. The VIF and Tolerance statistics are comfortably within the recommended thresholds and suggests that multicollinearity is not affecting the model.

Using the stepwise regression analysis for an exploratory approach enables an assessment of what is and isn't an important predictor of marketing responsibility. As seen with the CFA, when all the possible constructs are retained in the model, the model fit was adequate but it could be improved by tweaking items in the model. Hair et al. (2010) suggest that a confirmatory regression analysis can be produced in order to evaluate alternative models, add additional explanatory power or to confirm earlier results. A confirmatory regression analysis differs from a stepwise because the researcher specifies the variables to be included in the model and retains control over the regression variate.

7.4.2.2 Confirmatory Regression Analysis

A confirmatory regression model was undertaken in order to confirm the importance of the variables External Regulation, Competitive Motivation, Social Equity Motivation and Health Motivation. All four variables were directly entered into a regression model, at one time. The results are presented in table 7.29

Table 7.29: Confirmatory Regression Analysis

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.759	.576	.572	.99726	1.881

	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Tolerance	VIF
Step1							
Constant	.474	.245		1.937	.053	1.000	1.000
ER	.200	.041	.270	4.914	.000	.672	1.489
Health	.118	.055	.104	2.142	.033	.512	1.954
SE	.338	.065	.278	5.221	.000	.423	2.367
Comp	.381	.064	.313	5.933	.000	.430	2.328

The confirmatory regression analysis produces a slightly lower R². The model does explain 57.6% of the variance in marketing responsibility and that represents a good understanding of the constructs that help to explain this new scale. The Durbin-Watson statistic is close to two which implies the assumption of independent errors is met. Multicollinearity does not appear to be a problem in the model based on the Tolerance/VIF statistics.

It is clear from the Beta values that the competitive motivation was the strongest predictor of marketing responsibility, followed by social equity, external regulation and health motivation. Health motivation was significant albeit slightly less so than the other variables ($p = .033$).

7.4.2.3 Summary

The confirmatory regression analysis concludes the formal testing pertinent to the research questions. The data analysis has consisted of a variety of techniques including frequencies, t-test, chi-square, ranking, regression and confirmatory factor analysis. The results will be discussed in detail in the chapter (Chapter 8).

7.5 Additional Exploratory Findings: Consequences of Moderation

It is appropriate to conclude the chapter with highly exploratory findings suggested by the Retail Research Forum industry experts. These items were included in the questionnaire on an entirely exploratory basis and were potentially important to some of the stakeholders discussed in the next chapter. These additional exploratory dimensions add supplementary value to the main findings. As discussed in Chapter 5, the Retail Research Forum experts were a highly influential part of the research process. The members of the forum not only provided feedback at various points along the way, but played a crucial “sense-making” role in terms of interpretation and understanding of the findings of the qualitative research. The request from the forum for further exploratory questions concerning potential consequences of encouraging moderation was met and these additional exploratory dimensions add supplementary value when interpreting the implications of the main findings. As such, it was deemed appropriate to include them in the concluding part of the data analysis chapter.

7.5.1. Trade-offs

The respondents were asked a series of six questions regarding probable trade-offs for organisational profitability and for consumer lifestyles, if moderation of consumption were encouraged. These items can be seen in the questionnaire in Appendix C. Table 7.30 presents the mean, standard deviation and the level of agreement with each of the statements. To assist the reader and provide an overview, the frequencies of responses to the different scales have been condensed into three levels, for example: disagree (scale points 1-3), neutral (scale point 4) and agree (scale points 5-7).

It is evident that over half the sample agreed with each of the organisational profitability questions; that profitability will be damaged (56.6%), that moderation can be compatible with long-term profitability (60.9%) and that profitable opportunities would be created by consumers moderating their consumption (55.1%).

In terms of how moderation could affect consumer lifestyles, there was a much stronger disagreement with consumer standard of living being reduced if consumers moderated their consumption (42.1% disagreed). In line with this

sentiment, there was stronger agreement amongst the respondents that consumer lifestyles would be enriched (62.4%) and would not be compromised (68.6%) by embracing moderation.

Table 7.30: Respondents' agreement with organisational and consumer trade-offs

Bipolar scale from: 1 = Disagree Strongly to 7 = Agree Strongly	n	Mean	SD	Disagree (1-3) %	(Neutral) (4) %	Agree (5-7) %
Company Profitability						
Moderation of consumption will damage profitability	359	4.56	1.572	22.6	20.9	56.6
Long-term profitability can be compatible with moderation	359	4.89	1.412	15.9	23.1	60.9
Consumers moderating their consumption would create profitable opportunities	359	4.70	1.532	18.7	26.2	55.1
Consumer Lifestyles						
By moderating their consumption, consumers would reduce their standard of living	359	3.78	1.835	42.1	19.5	38.4
Consumer lifestyles need not be compromised by consuming less	359	5.18	1.405	11.1	20.3	68.6
Consumer lifestyles would be enriched by consuming less	359	4.99	1.500	13.9	23.7	62.4

7.5.2 The Effectiveness of Different Marketing Actions for Encouraging Moderation

The survey sample comprised marketing executives, managers and directors. As such, it was deemed appropriate to ask the sample directly about the effectiveness of different types of marketing activities to encourage consumers to moderate their consumption. The question was presented as a scenario in which the respondent was asked to assume that the company they work for has decided

to encourage moderation. The respondents were asked to consider the effectiveness of six different marketing actions. Table 7.31 presents the results.

The results assert that reducing packaging was considered the most effective way to encourage moderation (82.7%, mean = 5.77). Using a new product design which incorporates environmental features was the next most strongly agreed marketing action (74.1), closely followed by promotion of the concept of sustainable consumption (70.5%). Using fewer buy-one-get-one-free offers was the least agreed with (in terms of effectiveness) (49.2%).

Table 7.31: Respondents' agreement with the effectiveness of marketing activities to encourage consumers to moderate their consumption

Bipolar scale from: 1 = Not Effective to 7 = Highly Effective	n	Mean	SD	Not Effective (1-3) %	(Neutral) (4) %	Effective (5-7) %
Using fewer BOGOF offers	359	4.28	1.870	32.9	17.8	49.2
Improved environmental labelling	359	5.02	1.507	14.8	17.3	67.9
New product design	340	5.34	1.376	8.5	17.4	74.1
Include an environmental cost	359	4.94	1.530	14.5	21.2	64.4
Promote the concept of sustainable consumption	359	5.22	1.382	10.0	19.5	70.5
Reduce Packaging	340	5.77	1.378	7.1	10.3	82.7

7.5.3 Future Spending Avenues

The Retail Research Forum industry experts were interested in finding out if there were some potential shifts in spending, rather than simply a reduction in spending, if moderation was encouraged. This was an important consideration for companies with responsibility to shareholders. A question was added to the questionnaire which asked the respondents to consider what consumers might do with any money they may save if they moderated their consumption. The respondents were presented with nine possible options for money that may be saved, and they were asked to score each item along a 7-point least likely - most

likely scale. This question was situated in the penultimate section of the questionnaire, after the measurement of perceived marketing responsibility, in order not to influence those responses. Table 7.32 presents the results.

The respondents felt that consumers would likely spend any money saved on more leisure activities such as holidays, cultural activities, eating out and new hobbies (81.8%). This item also achieved the highest mean agreement (5.55) and the lowest standard deviation (1.249). Respondents also felt it was likely that consumers would spend any money saved on a better standard of living (74.1%, mean = 5.18). This accords with section 7.6.1 in which respondents agreed with propositions that consumer lifestyles would not be compromised by a moderation in consumption, and that moderation could enrich lifestyles. Respondents asserted that the least likely avenue for any money saved by consumers would be charity, community or religious giving (44.8%, mean = 3.72). This item also produced the highest variation of opinions (SD = 1.758).

Table 7.32: Respondents' agreement with future spending avenues

Bipolar scale from: 1 = Least Likely to 7 = Most Likely	n	Mean	SD	Unlikely (1-3) %	(Neutral) (4) %	Likely (5-7) %
Pay off existing debt	359	5.06	1.487	15.6	14.8	69.6
Savings and investments	359	4.56	1.586	24.8	17.5	57.7
More or higher quality education	359	4.28	1.632	29.5	24.5	46.0
Better standard of living	359	5.18	1.309	8.9	17.0	74.1
Invest in better health	359	4.63	1.519	20.3	24.5	55.1
Charity, community or religious giving	359	3.72	1.758	44.8	21.4	33.8
Household environmental initiatives	359	4.28	1.680	29.5	22.0	48.4
More leisure activities	359	5.55	1.249	5.6	12.5	81.8
Invest in better work-life balance	359	4.92	1.420	15.3	20.6	64.1

7.5.4 Summary

The moderation consequences questions provide a purely exploratory look at the effect of consumers changing their consumption patterns. These tabulations provide additional insights into the concept of encouraging moderating from consumers. These insights will be considered (where appropriate) in the discussion of the formal data analysis in the next chapter, especially with regard to potential implications for stakeholders.

Chapter Eight

Discussion and Implications

8.0 Introduction

In this chapter, the discussion of the results is presented. The discussion runs in the same order as the previous analysis chapter; responsibility for encouraging moderation of consumption and the influence of demographic effects, marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation and their influences, and finally, explaining marketing responsibility. The limitations of the research and possible extensions and future work are presented, followed by a conclusion to the research.

The discussion takes into account the results from the quantitative survey conducted in the UK and USA, and also draws upon the qualitative research which comprised direct interviews, focus groups and online quasi-qualitative questionnaire. All the research was conducted with marketing executives, managers and directors.

8.1 Responsibility for Encouraging Moderation of Consumption

This section discusses the findings with respect to the responsibility of marketing, government, business and consumers for encouraging moderation of consumption. The effect of demographic information is also discussed.

8.1.1 Marketing Responsibility

The empirical results support the relatively modest acceptance of marketing responsibility to encourage consumers to moderate their consumption. The data analysis chapter evidenced an agreement with the proposition that marketing had a role to play in encouraging moderation of consumption (53.3% agreed with this proposition). Furthermore, 6.6% of the sample ranked marketing the most responsible above consumers, government and business. This figure rises to almost 10% of the sample when the tied first ranks are also considered. These results are suggestive of a changing role for marketing.

The profession of marketing has come a long way since its beginnings. In 1969, Kotler and Levy's article concerning the broadening of the marketing concept into areas beyond commercial exchange began the expansion of the marketing definition and a proliferation of research into the ability of marketing to change behaviour. The indications from this study's findings continue to build upon the belief that marketing can, and should, be responsible for a wider range of activities, beyond merely anticipating and satisfying consumer wants and needs.

The study supports more recent literature which asserts the role of marketing in bringing about positive social change and well-being. Kotler (2011) posits that two marketing perspectives will affect the quality of the future environment. These are demarketing and social marketing. Demarketing is a marketing strategy in which the four Ps are manipulated to bring about a reduction in demand for certain resources. It is an important tool for interrupting the cycle of consumerism and resource depletion and has been identified as one strategy to support sustainability initiatives (Lefebvre and Kotler, 2011). Whilst Kotler (2011) believes that the dominant pursuit of marketing will remain the expansion of demand, he asserts that certain resources will require conservation and reduction of usage. The findings of the study support the literature on demarketing. Modest agreement amongst the sample with marketings' role in encourage moderate consumption is suggestive that expansion of demand is not the only goal for marketing organisations. This finding further supports the second important marketing perspective outlined by Kotler (2011) for quality of the environment; social marketing. Social marketing is a framework which utilises the full complement of the marketers' skillset (not just 'promotion') in order to bring about positive awareness and behaviour (Kotler and Zaltman, 1971). Lazer and Kelly (1973) also note how social marketing is concerned with the social consequence of marketing decisions and activities. The members of the sample who agreed with marketing responsibility for encouraging moderation of consumption evidence a concern for the consequences of their marketing decisions.

The research also contributes to existing quality-of-life (QOL) literature. QOL is a marketing practice which is designed to enhance overall customer well-being

whilst preserving the well-being of other stakeholders (Sirgy, 2001). The QOL marketing approach fundamentally places the customer first in the sense that all marketing efforts must contribute to customer well-being. Recent research by Sirgy et al. (2012) suggests that marketing activity plays an important and positive role in societal well-being and improves quality-of-life. Acceptance of marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption supports the QOL literature in the sense that it evidences a long-term marketing commitment to customer well-being by attempting to bring about behaviour change that will benefit the environment and, consequently, the customer.

The findings also complements research which concerns the role of marketing in changing habits and routinized behaviour in order to make consumption more sustainable (e.g. Rettie et al., 2014). Consumers and producers are closely intertwined in the process of creating new practices of consumption (Shove and Pantzer, 2005). As such, marketers are part of the system of affecting the uptake of new behaviours and the corresponding production of social practices. Encouraging consumers to moderate their consumption may be an important part of this process.

Many organisations are involved in corporate sustainability and CSR initiatives. However, encouraging a moderation of consumption from consumers is a new proposition, with (to the authors' knowledge) very little literature currently written about this proposition. The concept of sufficiency (noted in section 3.1.2) pertains to consumers making responsible choices in their purchasing behaviour (Dyllick and Hockerts, 2002). The proposition of encouraging consumers to moderate their consumption, essentially inspiring consumers to consider their purchasing behaviour and act from a sufficiency mind set, takes the responsibility (partly) away from the consumer and into the hands of the marketer. The relatively modest acceptance by the management sample of a responsibility for encouraging moderation of consumption might be indicative of a changing role for marketing. It complements the literature regarding transformational marketing (reviewed in section 2.4.2), in which a number of authors assert the power of marketing to alter consumer behaviour.

The study also adds support to the proposition of Sheth et al. (2011), who noted that businesses should “foster” mindful consumption from their customers. Mindful consumption is a new (consumer) construct, which refers to the combination of a mindful mind-set and mindful behaviour. A mindful mind-set constitutes a caring for self, for community and for nature. Mindful behaviour involves the assuaging of excesses associated with consumption. Marketing can assist consumers to implement mindful consumption by approaching the 4 P’s of marketing in an innovative and creative way and fully re-orienting itself towards supporting and promoting mindful consumption (Sheth et al., 2011). The present study complements the theoretical research on mindful consumption by focusing entirely on the responsibility of the marketer to encourage more desirable consumption patterns. With marketing responsibility identified by the study, it is then pertinent to consider in what ways marketing can encourage moderation.

The additional exploratory results (presented in section 7.6) considered the effectiveness of a number of marketing activities which could encourage moderation of consumption. Reduction in packaging was considered the most effective activity. The connection between reduced packaging and lower consumption was also mentioned frequently within the qualitative findings. The popularity of this activity highlights how marketers consider efficiency improvements most effective to meet the goal of encouraging moderation. Eco-efficiency is a fundamental element in the Dyllick and Hockerts (2002) sustainability model, however, this element of the model has attracted criticism for being flawed (McDonough and Braungart, 1998). Making a destructive system more efficient merely slows down the rate of destruction (Young and Tilley, 2006). Whilst reducing packaging received the most agreement amongst the sample for being effective, it represents a first step towards embracing responsibility.

New product designs and promoting the concept of sustainable consumption are perceived to be the second and third most effective activities and these are more representative of facilitating lasting consumption changes. Improved environmental labelling was considered an effective activity by 67.9% of the sample. This activity helps to empower consumers with information to enable them to make changes to their consumption behaviour (Thøgersen, 2005).

Furthermore, it provides a competitive advantage to those companies already measuring their environmental impact and making this information available to consumers. The results suggest that environmental labelling is an effective activity to encourage consumers to moderate their consumption.

8.1.2 Government Responsibility

The results from the study evidence a strong agreement with government responsibility, particularly among UK respondents. This suggests that marketers support government action to encourage consumers to change their consumption patterns. However, government role is a complex one. It is a delicately balanced role in which government must stimulate and prompt change, particularly after setting greenhouse gas emission targets which need to be met by 2050 (UK Government, 2014) , whilst remaining popular with the voters (the public) and supporting business. This is a difficult balance to achieve given that implementing and enforcing legislation which affects consumers or business will be unpopular. For consumers it represents an infringement on their freedom as a consumer, their consumer sovereignty (Schrader, 2007). For businesses, it can be deemed to be uncompetitive and working against market forces (Sheth et al., 2011). As such the role of government is a precarious one.

“...you could very easily get a customer backlash in the sense that you can’t blinking tell me how many pints of milk I can have a week”

(Direct Interview Respondent)

Throughout the qualitative research, respondents evidenced a varied role for government, ranging from the implementation of tax incentives, education, legislation, targets for business and social marketing. Marketing professionals are clearly supportive of a range of governmental activities beyond a purely legislative approach.

The suggestion of responsibility for encouraging moderation of consumption is somewhat antithetical to the usual priority of governments, which is to stimulate and grow their economies. Sanne (2002) describes economic growth as a “dogma” and suggests that consumers are locked-in to unsustainable

consumption patterns by the economic growth model. Section 7.6 of the results suggests that, if consumers begin to moderate their consumption, a better work-life balance would be likely. In the current economic growth model, this is not feasible as the amount of work performed dictates the level of consumption at both an individual and national level (Sanne, 2002).

Changes to the economic approach by governments in order to provide the structural framework for real changes in consumption is required. Changes akin to the idea of Natural Capitalism, in which balance sheets include eco-systems services and natural capital (Lovins et al., 2007), would fundamentally alter the capitalist progression and have a consequent change in business practise. These changes are most unlikely to occur without strong government support. Likewise, marketing would be influential in such a change, and bringing about reforms to encourage more sustainable consumption through public policy can be considered a marketing goal (Sheth et al., 2011).

8.1.3 Business Responsibility

Business has been accepting responsibility for activities beyond exchange and profit-making for many years. Indeed, there has been a rise in the uptake of CSR initiatives by businesses (Luo and Bhattacharya, 2006). Equally, the amount of research dedicated to corporate sustainability evidences the growing importance of environmental concerns to businesses. Encouraging consumers to moderate consumption represents an activity at the upper end of the corporate sustainability spectrum. A business organisation acting in this way would be extremely committed to the environment, and even willing to forego profit potential in order to meet their perceived social responsibilities. Businesses are not mandated to do this, and in many cases are actually doing the opposite and aggressively producing and selling in order to increase profit.

With this in mind, it is interesting to note how business were ranked uniquely first by 7% of the sample, and when the tied ranks are included this rises to over 12%. This figure evidences a small but growing trend amongst businesses that are practising green management, where ecological, societal and economic concerns are addressed whilst pursuing value-creation (Reichel, 2009). Supporting

sufficiency falls within the remit of green management and the present study affirms the view that business has a responsibility to encourage and support sufficiency from its consumers. However, it cannot be said that all the respondents in the sample who ranked business as most responsible for encouraging moderate consumption work within a business that practises green management. Therefore, it is possible to make the inference that feelings of responsibility are present within all types of businesses and potentially evidences a shifting of values. Management values are an important driver of change and influence ethical decision-making (Ferrell and Gesham, 1985) and views of CSR (Hemingway and MacLagan, 2004).

The qualitative research evidenced how businesses need to be more proactive in terms of inspiring customers to consume more moderately in order to limit government intervention that could undermine the market system.

“...we have a belief that if we don't act and we don't try and get consumers operating through willingness desire excitement... then governments will inevitably do it in ways that are less efficient, less motivating, less productive and will lead to diminution in living standards and un-economic society”.

(Direct Interview Participant)

The qualitative research also highlighted how well-placed businesses are in order to support customers in making changes to their consumption habits. Existing formal customer relationships enable businesses to get a direct message to their customers, which can encourage a change in behaviour. UK supermarkets have already been successful in altering usage of plastic shopping bags. A decrease of 34% has been achieved between 2006 and 2012 (WRAP, 2014). Incentive-like schemes such as green clubcard points, and humorous advertising, both carried out by Tesco, have encouraged consumers to reduce their carrier bag usage. Such examples affirm the ability of business to bring about a change of behaviour, even when that behaviour is ingrained within the consumer.

The number of respondents ranking business as first most responsible actor may also be indicative of a changing role for business. Profit is not “front and centre”

(Assadourin, 2010), as some businesses are making their social missions the priority whilst still achieving financial success. By focusing on the creation of value for the customer, instead of a pure profit focus, businesses can move away from unsustainable marketing practises like aggressive pricing, promotions, hard-selling (Sheth et al., 2011). Stronger customer loyalty and better brand image (Miles and Covin, 2000) are some of the added benefits businesses can gain from encouraging consumers to moderate their consumption.

It is interesting to note how little difference there was between the percentage of respondents who ranked business uniquely first rank (6.9%) and the percentage that ranked marketing first rank (6.6%). Only once the sample is broken down by country does a major difference emerge. US respondents ranked marketing more responsible than business (13.8% and 10.9% respectively) whereas UK respondents ranked business more responsible than marketing (9.6% and 5.8% respectively). The US results suggest that marketing is the correct actor to address the issue of encouraging responsible consumption. UK results, whilst still demonstrating a responsibility for business, seem less reluctant to put that responsibility in the hands of the marketing department. These results are interesting and follow-up research into where environmental initiatives are managed currently within UK and US businesses would help explore these findings further.

8.1.4 Consumer Responsibility

Moderating consumption essentially concerns addressing buying habits and refraining from buying unnecessarily. It also concerns changing consumption patterns and altering the repetitive and unsustainable cycles of spending that many consumers feel locked into (Sanne, 2002). Whilst sustainable consumption is described as consumers making “environmentally-motivated private decisions” (Seyfang, 2004, p3), it may not be entirely fair to leave those decisions solely to the consumer.

Consumption is fundamentally a consumer-controlled phenomenon. Responsibility for changing the rate of consumption and the nature of consumption should ultimately fall to the consumer. Affirming this, the empirical

results found consumers ranked first out of the four loci for responsibility for moderating consumption. However, when the rankings were produced by taking into account the country effect, the UK respondents ranked government as the most responsible ahead of consumers. Likewise in the qualitative research, respondents of the open-ended, free-response questionnaire mentioned government responsibility more than consumer responsibility. This is suggestive of a wider government role.

Some consumers have, for some time, been evidencing voluntary changes to their consumption behaviour in order to reduce the amount they consume. This is motivated by dissatisfaction with contemporary living, hurried pace-of-life and consumption ethics (Shaw and Newholm, 2002 (see section 3.2.4)). Likewise, the recession has also impacted on the advancement of 'thrifty' consumer behaviour. Such behaviour may be explained by the construct '*smart-shopper self-perception*' (Schindler, 1989) which describes how the consumer searches out price-savings and the consequent feeling of winning brings about a positive evaluation of one's competence (Weinerner, 1986). However, for many consumers there remain individual and social barriers to making changes to their existing consumption patterns.

Individual barriers include lack of knowledge, scepticism, distrust in information sources, and the threat of climate change feeling too 'distant' (Lorenzoni et al., 2007). These barriers prevent consumers from making informed and environmentally-motivated consumption changes. The social barriers include lack of political and business action. These two barriers evidence a need for government and business to assume more responsibility for encouraging consumers to moderate their consumption. Therefore, it cannot be said that government and business (and, therefore, marketing) are not culpable. The empirical results find all four actors have a responsibility.

8.1.5 Demographic influence: Country

The results evidenced more agreement with marketing responsibility amongst US respondents than UK respondents: 13.8% and 5.8% respectively. The t-test and chi-square analysis evidenced significant differences between the respondents

from the two countries. There were mixed findings in the literature regarding the differences between US and UK firms in terms of CSR and sustainability initiatives, their uptake and their documentation by organisations (see section 5.1.1.1). Here, the findings affirm greater acceptance by US marketers. These findings support the CSR literature, which posits that US organisations practise CSR more explicitly than the UK, where organisations are more implicit in their approach (Matten and Moon, 2008). US firms are explicit in documenting and articulating their responsibility for various societal interests.

In contrast, UK firms are more implicit and tend more towards describing their role as part of the wider formal and informal institutions for societal interests and concerns. The results suggest that US marketing respondents are more comfortable accepting a larger role in terms of encouraging moderation, which resonates with an explicit style of practising CSR. The much lower agreement by UK respondents is suggestive of a more implicit style. For instance, Matten and Moon (2008) describe how UK organisations tend not to articulate responsibility for CSR but instead operate within the institutional environment, for instance, by the take-up of environmental management systems and meeting legislative requirements that are expected of the organisation by society.

The results for governmental responsibility also support this theory with 46.2% of the UK respondents ranking government uniquely first rank, compared to 29.1% of US respondents. The greater degree of government responsibility for encouraging moderation envisaged by UK respondents may suggest that formal legislative requirements are more important for UK-based organisations. However, the qualitative data do not entirely support this. Two interviews in UK organisations with marketing/CSR directors from two large retail organisations suggested disagreement with this theory. Both interviewees made a point of saying that businesses need to act beyond their legislative requirements and encourage, motivate and inspire customers to start moderating their consumption before government enforce this view. One interviewee felt that more legislation with respect to sustainability would be taking the “nanny state” too far (Section 4.3.1.1).

The nature of the current research and the focus on encouraging moderation rather than CSR makes it difficult to compare the results directly with previous work. However, the results do affirm greater acceptance by US respondents. As the propositions of encouraging moderation of consumption, mindful consumption and sufficiency become more thoroughly researched, it will become possible to draw comparisons between the US and the UK in terms of the acceptance by organisations of their responsibility to support these propositions and the approach they take, be that explicit or implicit.

8.1.6 Demographic Influence: Gender

The results evidenced more agreement amongst male respondents than female respondents with marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption. Whilst the mean scores from the main marketing responsibility item in the survey displayed a modest difference between males and females, this difference was not significantly significant. Therefore, it is not possible to disconfirm the literature which suggests that females are generally more pro-environmental than males (Stern et al., 1993; Zelezny et al., 2000; Clark et al., 2003). However, these studies were undertaken with consumers whereas the respondents in the present study were asked to answer the questions, not in an individual capacity but as a marketer. Literature on gender diversity on corporate boards was positively associated with sustainability (Galbreath, 2011), and Marz et al. (2003) found that gender was influential on managers social orientation, with females evidencing higher social orientation than men.

These studies had a different proposition and research goal and it is not possible to compare directly the findings. However, whilst the empirical results of this study considered a different proposition, and the findings relating to gender were not significant, it would be pertinent to investigate further whether gender plays a role in the acceptance of responsibility for encouraging moderation. As the proposition of moderation becomes more commonplace it will be necessary to understand the influence of gender in order to appropriately structure, train and manage marketers for this task.

8.1.7 Demographic Influence: Education

The empirical results from the survey found evidence to support the influence of education upon the acceptance of marketing responsibility. The mean scores indicated that respondents with the least amount of education had the most agreement with marketing responsibility. The ANOVA showed a modest statistical significance and the Chi-Square test was significant. These results contribute to the existing consumer literature on education and its influence on environmental behaviour. The literature is not clear-cut; both a higher level of formal education (Berkowitz and Luttermann, 1969; Henion, 1972; Van Liere and Dunlap, 1980) and less education (Sandahl and Robertson, 1989; Muncy and Vitell, 1992) are both positively linked to higher environmental and ethical concern. The findings of the present study also indicate a relationship; however, it is clear that more research is needed into the effect of education.

That both lower and higher levels of education contribute to feelings of responsibility suggests that education is important; however, these findings do not provide clear theoretical or practical takeaways. It is possible that those with a lesser amount of formal education may interpret the proposition differently to those with a higher level of education, or (perhaps, more likely), that there are other important constructs which contribute to the relationship between education and responsibility. As Laroche et al. (2001) noted, demographic variables are still important in terms of understanding influence and associations. Marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption is a new proposition, and by understanding relationships and associations surrounding the proposition will enable greater insight and explanations of how it impacts on the work environment.

8.1.8 Demographic Influence: Age

The effect of age upon environmental concern and behaviours has produced conflicting results over the years. Van Liere and Dunlap's (1980) review found that age was negatively correlated with environmental concern. However, Oskamp et al. (1991) and Clarke et al. (2003) both found that there was no correlation between age and environmental concern or behaviours. In contrast, Mintel Market Intelligence (1994) found that school children and teenagers tend to be more environmentally aware, due to environmental initiatives that have been taught in

schools. Older people who lived through World War Two had a more conservative ethos and tended to reuse and hold a respect for resources, whereas 25-55 year olds were the least environmentally concerned and labelled the 'throwaway generation'.

The empirical results cannot be directly compared to the existing consumer-based literature, since the focus of the management research is different. However, it provided a basis upon which to question the importance of age. The findings of the present research found that age was statistically significant to the acceptance of marketing responsibility. In contrast to the Mintel (1994) data, the under 35's and the 35-44's (younger marketers) were in the strongest agreement with marketing responsibility. However, the Mintel report is 20 years old and teenagers at the time of the report, who were assumed to be more environmental due to environmental education in school, will now fall into one of the two categories that were found to be in the strongest agreement with marketing responsibility. This is perhaps suggestive that pro-environmental behaviours learnt during school are positively influencing employees both personally and in the workplace, and their opinions surrounding the responsibilities they have in a work capacity towards the environment.

8.1.9 Implications of Marketing Responsibility

The results contribute to the understanding of this new proposition. From a theoretical point of view, the concept of marketing responsibility for moderating consumption is evidenced to be a legitimate feeling amongst a managerial marketing sample. It contributes to existing constructs, such as mindful consumption and sufficiency, which are essentially consumer-related constructs. However, marketing has a role to play in supporting these constructs and changing consumption patterns. The study affirms the existence of responsibility and this new construct poses new theoretical implications.

Attribution theory posits that when an affect can be attributed to someone or something else, then the cause is discounted (Kelley, 1973). The diffusion of responsibility has a negative effect upon the acceptance of that responsibility. However, this was disconfirmed with the present study. Over half the sample

accepted some degree of responsibility for marketing to encourage moderation of consumption. Furthermore, some marketers ranked marketing the first most responsible out of all four loci of responsibility. These are surprising findings, which clearly indicate a willingness amongst some marketing professionals to assist consumers embrace responsible consumption.

From a practical point of view, feeling responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption is a new and valuable phenomenon, which will likely bring about changes to business and marketing departments. As consumer demands and political pressure continues to mount, marketers are showing willingness to assist the public to make changes. This infers changes at strategy level in which a longer-term view will need to be adopted. At a practical level, aggressive marketing and over-selling strategies may be replaced with better products, more service options and more sustainable messages to consumers. As with the reduction of carrier bag usage, moderation of consumption can be supported by creative marketing strategies that actually result in a tangible change.

8.2 Marketers' Business Motivations to Moderate Consumption

The second group of analyses focused on the reasons why marketers would be motivated to encourage moderation of consumption. The qualitative research discovered six motivations: competitive, cost-saving, ethical, health, resource preservation, and social equity. The first research question concerned which of the marketing motivations were most strongly agreed with.

The empirical results showed that a majority of the sample, made up of marketers, agreed with all six of the motivations to encourage moderation of consumption. Looking specifically at the mean scores on each of the motivations' scales, it was clear that cost-saving was agreed with most strongly. Competitive motivation was agreed with the least strongly, yet the mean score indicated a tendency towards agreement. The results imply that marketers are still strongly motivated by the possible efficiency gains that can be achieved from the implementation of sustainability measures. The concept of 'making more with less' is a recurrent theme in the corporate sustainability literature, and offers a strong incentive for

business to become more efficient and less wasteful (e.g., Gonzalez-Benito and Gonzalez-Benito, 2005). Furthermore, by demonstrating a cost-saving element to shareholders, sustainability measures become easily justifiable.

“Our personal policy has been to reduce packaging by half and improve our production method and system to decrease hours and improve quality...within the last year we supply less product but turn over twice the profit”.

(Quasi-Qualitative Survey Participant)

“The only motivation in this line of business is money, so on this line there has to be financial benefits for the business”.

(Quasi-Qualitative Survey Participant)

With respect to competitive motivation, whilst overall the respondents agreed with this type of motivation, it achieved the lowest means. This possibly suggests that the respondents find competitiveness and the encouragement of moderation as a less comfortable fit. Section 7.6 of the results evidenced how respondents agreed with the statements suggesting moderation of consumption can be compatible with long-term profitability and that it can lead to profitable opportunities. However, respondents also agreed that profitability could be damaged by a business adopting a position of encouraging moderation. Clearly, there are mixed feelings amongst the sample regarding the ability of responsible consumption to enhance the competitiveness of the business.

Interestingly, when the scales measuring each of the six motivations were turned into a ranking variable (and tied rankings were accounted for), ethical motivation was ranked first. This motivation is driven by the belief that encouraging moderation is the right thing to do (Agle et al., 1999; Banerjee, 2001; Wood, 1991). Research indicates that companies can, and do, act out of a sense of responsibility rather than self-interest (e.g., Buchholz, 1991) and the present empirical finding affirm this type of salient motivation on behalf of the marketer.

8.2.1 Influences on Marketers Business Motivations

Hypothesis one posits that corporate environmentalism will influence the marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption. The empirical results evidence how the corporate environmentalism construct explains between 28% and 47% of the variance in the marketers' six business motivations. The influential nature of corporate environmentalism and its explanatory power confirms H1. It is clear that organisations who are already working towards conducting themselves more sustainably will influence the employees who work within that organisation. It is possible to infer that strong corporate environmentalism positively influences each of the marketers' six motivations to encourage moderation.

Corporate environmentalism had the strongest influence over the social equity motivation. Corporate environmentalism refers to "the organisation-wide recognition of the legitimacy and importance of the biophysical environment in the formulation of organisation strategy, and the integration of environmental issues into the strategic planning process" (Banerjee, 2002, p.181). Social equity concerns the intra- and inter-generational equitable distribution of global resources. It incorporates assessments of fairness and justice. This motivation for marketers does not hold the promise of more profit potential or the ability to create more opportunities with respect to market share or competition. It is a motivation that is driven by the assessment that resources need to be shared fairly and equitably, and encouraging moderation of consumption will assist with meeting that goal. Organisations who are already integrating environmental concerns into their strategic plans are demonstrating an assessment of concern, have recognised a responsibility to act more environmentally (for a host of different reasons) and have made the decision to act with a regard for society. This demonstrates an equitable approach to doing business. It is possible that this societal regard is the reason why corporate environmentalism explains a large percentage of the variance in social equity motivation.

To the author's knowledge, corporate environmentalism has not been tested as an explanatory variable in any other studies. However, the construct performed well in this study. The scale reliability was within acceptable levels and the wording of the scale appeared to be clearly understood by the respondents.

Further research into the influence of corporate environmentalism would provide further insight into its influence on the marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption. Specifically, testing the importance of the level of corporate environmentalism (high, medium, low) on the influence of the six motivations, would allow a clearer understanding of the importance of this construct as a driver of the motivations.

Hypothesis two questioned the influence of marketers' personally-held motivations on the acceptance of the six business motivations. Personally-held motivations describe how motivated the respondent is to moderate consumption in their private life (as opposed to the business in which they work). The empirical results evidence how personally-held motivation explains between 52% and 64% of the variance in the marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation of consumption. These results confirm H2. Previous research had found that managers' personal views can influence ethical decision –making (Ferrell and Gesham, 1985) and views of corporate social responsibility (Hemingway and MacLagan, 2004).

This study supplements this research and affirms the influence of managers' personal views on marketers' business motivations to moderate consumption. Personally-held motivations had a larger explanatory power than corporate environmentalism, which suggests that the personal level of motivation towards responsible consumption has a greater influence over the respondents' perception of business responsibility. Clearly, what a business does and how it conducts itself is important. But the personally-held motivations of the marketer are more powerful in influencing the marketer in the work place to encourage moderate consumption.

The findings evidence the importance of encouraging both individuals and businesses to engage with pro-environmental activities. It is possible to infer from the results that this existing environmentalism positively affects the acceptance of other (in this case, more extreme) types of sustainable behaviour. It is suggestive of a snowball effect; perhaps marketers become bolder and more confident as their experience with sustainability and responsible consumption grows, both in

the work place and/or in their personal lives. This suggestion represents an important inference for policymakers. If government can persuade consumers to make small changes in their consumption patterns, this can increase their confidence to change consumption habits and may lead to bigger changes in the future. It may also lead to attitude and motivational changes in the work place, with respect to sustainability and encouraging moderation of consumption.

8.3 Explaining Marketing Responsibility to Encourage Moderation of Consumption

The final research question of the thesis concerned the importance of the variables corporate environmentalism, personally-held motivations and marketers' business motivations in explaining marketing responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption. The analysis addressing this research went through a number of stages and arrived at a final confirmatory regression analysis, which confirmed the importance of external regulation, health, social equity and competitive motivations.

Competitive motivation evidenced the strongest beta value, which is interesting. Whilst marketers agreed with a competitive motivation, it was agreed with the least (see sections 8.2 and 7.3). This suggested that, whilst a competitive motivation is important, other motivations were more important. However, when looking specifically at explaining marketing responsibility to encourage moderation, competitive motivation has the largest beta weight indicating it is the most important construct for explaining marketing responsibility. The results reveal the importance of competitiveness, which was a cornerstone of corporate environmentalism (e.g., Bansal and Roth, 2000). The need to remain competitive is a fundamental part of operating a business within a capitalist economy. As such, it appears the concept of competitiveness is embedded within perceptions of sustainability initiatives, even those that on the surface appear to run contrary to that goal. The need to remain focused on the business prerogative of staying competitive is an important takeaway from the research, and demonstrates the

importance of staying competitive even when implementing environmentally- and socially-driven initiatives.

Nonetheless, this finding is not contradictory to the idea of marketers encouraging consumers to moderate consumption. The analysis in section 7.6 evidenced how a goal of moderation can also be compatible with profit and with creating new opportunities. Furthermore, possible future spending patterns were identified given the premise that consumers who moderated their consumption would potentially have more money to spend elsewhere. These spending shifts indicated possible future opportunities (e.g., in entertainment and leisure services, education and healthcare sectors). Moderation, therefore, has the potential to offer new and possibly more sustainable opportunities for competition, profit and growth.

The confirmatory regression analysis also reveals the influence of personally-held motivations, specifically, the sub-scale external regulation. According to the original scale schema of self-determination theory, developed by Deci and Ryan (2000), external regulation refers specifically to the motivation to participate in an act in order to satisfy an external demand or obtain an external reward, or avoid an external punishment. It is interesting that feelings of responsibility were partly explained by external regulation. It is important to bear in mind these are personally-held motivations and the respondents answered these questions about their personal selves and not in their role as a marketer. The findings suggest external pressure is an important driver of marketing responsibility. The ability to gain recognition, satisfy the expectations of friends and avoid criticism drive feelings of responsibility in the workplace. This is not dissimilar to corporate communications activities, in which organisations seek to improve their image or reputation by demonstrating they are acting legitimately and sustainably (e.g., Hooghiemstra, 2002). The need to be seen to be moderating consumption in a personal capacity drives the feelings of responsibility in the workplace. This evidences the importance of peer-groups, social networks and local community activities or politics. Influencing these networks could be a valuable part of a wider intervention strategy that seeks to embed more responsible consumer behaviour.

Two types of ecological responsibility were identified by Kasia et al. (1999). These were conventional and moral responsibility (see section 3.2.3). Moral responsibility was supported by Kasia and Shimoda's (1999) research, which found that people act ecologically because of a sense of personal obligation to act. This type of responsibility is reminiscent of the personal motivations in the present study, where the intrinsic nature of moderating consumption was explored. Interestingly, it was external regulation which explained marketing responsibility. External regulation is conceptually closer to conventional responsibility, which posits that people will act responsibly because of what others expect one to do and a readiness to accept these social expectations. The findings suggest more consumer-focused research could explore these two types of motivations, which would be useful to the design and implementation of future intervention strategies.

8.4 Research Implications

The theoretical implications of the research begin with the affirmation of a new construct, which specifically describes a newly identified type of marketing behaviour. Responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption is a new proposition, and the acceptance of this responsibility by a majority of the sample affirms the existence of this new construct. The construct extends our understanding of the perceptions of marketers. This is particularly important as more countries and governments make sustainable development (and, consequently, sustainable consumption) a priority. The introduction of this new construct also raises questions and suggests opportunities surrounding the role of the marketing department in the wider sustainability agenda.

The development of this new construct builds upon theoretical work on corporate sustainability. In particular, the drivers of corporate sustainability (competition, efficiency gains, ethics) are all affirmed and extended in the study. The extension pertains to the ability of these motivations to go beyond driving sustainability, and drive marketers' responsibility to encourage moderation. The study also identifies and confirms new motivations which drive feelings of responsibility; social equity, resource preservation and health motivations. The marketers' six business

motivations to encourage moderation of consumption represent a new typology of motivational drivers that the marketer may experience in the work environment.

These motivations are influenced both by the marketers personally-held motivations and by the extent of corporate environmentalism within their organisation. With respect to personally-held motivations, the research confirms the significance of external pressure and expectations from others as a driving force of responsible consumption, and a driving force of marketers feeling responsible for encouraging moderation of consumption. With respect to corporate environmentalism, the research confirmed the importance of an organisation having an existing environmental strategy focus as a driving force to marketers' being motivated to encourage moderation.

The research successfully used the construct of corporate environmentalism as an explanatory variable. The construct has not been used in this way previously, and the results evidence its importance in influencing other behaviour in the work environment. By confirming that corporate environmentalism is influential in explaining marketers' business motivations to encourage moderation, the door is opened to new possibilities for the construct in future research. In particular, understanding how an existing environmental effort by an organisation impacts upon its employees in terms of pro-environmental behaviour, offers interesting and valuable research opportunities which offer the potential for important implications for business and policymakers.

Perhaps the most crucial implication from the research pertains to the indication that marketers' attitudes towards consumption are changing. Acceptance of a responsibility to encourage moderation highlights a changing role for marketers that imply changes for marketing at a strategic, academic and political level. Strategically and practically, the research infers that the role of marketing may change. Current marketing approaches may need to be re-thought in the wake of an organisation adopting some degree of a moderation approach. This may impact the products that are manufactured, sourced and offered to consumers. Suppliers may need to be more transparent with respect to materials sourcing, usage and waste. Pricing strategies could become less aggressive, with a focus

on quality. More servicing, extensions and upgrades to existing products may become more prevalent within the market place and this will undoubtedly impact upon the role of the marketer.

In terms of academic changes, as the responsibility of the marketing department widens, this has important ramifications for the research that is conducted and the way marketing is taught to the next generation of marketers. Politically, the importance of the role of marketing in the effort to combat climate change cannot be over-looked. Marketing is a discipline that is customer-focused and well-versed in communicating effectively with the public. Both politically-driven social marketing, and marketing conducted at company level, represent an engagement that can occur with consumers regarding their consumption habits. As such, the research highlights the importance of marketing to policymakers and governments, especially as sustainable consumption becomes a greater concern in the future.

The final implication of the research concerns the suggestion that, by encouraging moderation of consumption, businesses need not forgo their ability to make profit. The research found that marketers agreed that encouraging moderation from consumers was compatible with long-term profitability. The noted possible shifts in spending highlighted potential future avenues for income. These projective findings were conducted on an entirely exploratory basis at the request of the Retail Research Forum. As such, these findings offer a starting point to begin researching, in a more traditional manner, the impact of encouraging moderation of consumption upon business goals and future strategies.

8.5 Limitations and Extensions

The thesis represents a body of research which has the goal of identifying whether marketers had a responsibility to encourage moderation of consumption. As with all research, there are limitations that occur during the research process, which should be acknowledged in order to interpret the results in an appropriate manner.

Firstly, the research was carried out in the USA and the UK. As such, the research is limited by country-specific effects. The highly industrialised nature of the two countries, from which the sample of marketers were drawn, limits the generalizability of the findings to different populations because of the particularity of the research setting (Hughes and Morgan, 2008). The research was also limited to marketers working within the following sectors: consumer goods manufacturing, retailing, restaurants and other catering (selling primarily to consumers), and utilities (selling primarily to consumers).

These sectors were chosen because they sell directly to consumers and sell physical products. Service-related sectors were excluded. The production and consumption of services undoubtedly use resources, however, it was considered easier for a clear connection to be made between a consumer buying a physical product and the rate this uses up resources. Since the focus of the research concerned the responsibility the researcher felt professionally for this resource usage, it was considered the safest option at this point in the research. Future extensions of the thesis may investigate opinions of marketers beyond the consumer-product sectors.

Secondly, the research was conducted with marketers (in accordance with the research theme), however, there is scope to extend the research and consider the role of marketing from other points of view. Do consumers wish to be encouraged to moderate? Do policymakers envision a wider business/marketing role? The opinions of other actors would supplement the findings and enable a balanced judgement on the role of marketing to encourage moderation of consumption.

Thirdly, the thesis comprised numerous stages of research, as the researcher attempted to gain as much insight, quantitatively and qualitatively, as possible. Nonetheless, the sheer volume of data produced is a limitation in itself. The thesis presents results and discussion on the key research questions and hypotheses but it is acknowledged that the research also raised many different questions and could be analysed in a number of other ways. Thus, more in-depth analysis could be carried in out in specific detail with some of the constructs. For instance, a more detailed look at the relationship between corporate environmentalism and

personally-held motivations would have enabled more understanding about the effect of the work place and the importance of the effect of private lives with respect to responsible consumption. Future work will comprise a more micro-analytical approach to the data, to uncover any surprising findings outside of the central thesis premise.

8.6 Conclusion

When the idea for the research was initially conceived, several peers and colleagues considered the idea to be oxymoronic. Whilst sustainability and pro-environmental behaviour (both organisational and individual) was becoming commonplace, research focusing more specifically on responsible consumption, anti-consumption, sustainable consumption was in its infancy. Even scarcer was empirical research with marketing professionals that considered the responsibility and role of marketing with respect to consumption reduction. This seems hard to believe, considering Feldman's (1971) paper which considered the tensions between boundless individual needs, limited resources and businesses' need for profit. Feldman asserted that marketing had a role in reducing these tensions. Research has more recently begun to evidence the importance of sufficiency, mindful consumption and de-marketing however; still, little empirical research has been conducted to date.

The study evidenced differences between country samples regarding the acceptance of responsibility to encourage moderation and which actors are "most responsible". Factors including institutional differences which affect the market place may be responsible for these differences. The US has a stronger individualist culture which enables individuals within organisations to take responsibility for their own ethical decision-making, CSR activities and environmental initiatives. In the UK and Europe, government are more proactive in terms of creating legislation to mandate organisational commitment to sustainable business practises. These national differences represent one obstacle to managers actually matching their attitudes with their behaviour. In terms of consumers, the so-called "value-action gap" is often explained as a consequence of habit and routine (Hobson, 2003) which impedes consumers from acting upon

their pro-environmental values. Whilst throughout the study, a modest proportion of managers accepted responsibility for marketing to encourage moderation of consumption, this acceptance may not translate into action. Beyond routines and habits, economic business models, enabling infrastructures and the pursuit of growth may all affect the translation of acceptance into action. These conclusions lead back to the importance of a shared responsibility by consumers, business and government (and beyond) to create an environment that is ripe for encouraging change.

Recent work by Crane et al. (2014) highlights that the corporate-centric role of the firm is still predominant in business strategy literature, namely “Creating Shared Value” (CSV) (Porter and Kramer, 2011), even when that literature is purporting to resolve societal problems and widen the opportunities of the firm. The problems identified by Crane et al. (2014) suggest a need to move beyond shared value and more profit, and towards shared responsibility and an acceptance that that may lead to less efficiency and lower profits.

The results of the study demonstrate an acceptance of responsibility to encourage moderation by marketers. This acceptance could represent the beginning of a transformation of the marketing discipline; changing attitudes, changing strategies, changing goals.

It is an exciting yet challenging time to be a marketer. Technology enables a huge wealth of information for business and marketers allowing them to keep up with sustainability best practises. Yet, it also facilitates global scrutiny and external pressure from stakeholder groups and the general public. As marketing meets the challenge of addressing rising consumption whilst assisting business to meet its value-creation goals, the evolution of the marketing discipline will continue to fascinate academics and practitioners alike.

Chapter Nine

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Chapter Ten

Appendices

Appendix A: Direct Interview Guide

1. What motivations, if any, do companies have to encourage moderation of consumption to customers?
2. In what ways can a company balance moderation of consumption with the need to maintain a profitable business?
3. Is it/could it be a responsibility of marketing to encourage moderation in consumption?
 - I. *Is it a responsibility of other departments?*
 - II. *Should marketing maintain its traditional goals whilst other areas of the business move forwards with sustainability?*
 - III. *Where does marketing stand with respect to the CSR agenda?*
4. In what specific ways can marketing contribute to moderation in consumption, while helping maintain business profitability?
 - I. *BOGOF (later) is recent example of a greener marketing promotion. What other activities could marketing pioneer in order to encourage more moderate consumption without compromising long term profitability?*
5. How might cultural change occur – how would this mindset permeate through a company? What factors would be involved in enabling the marketing department to become proactive at moderating consumption?
 - I. *Do you think it would make org more efficient?*
 - II. *What other benefits would this bring about?*

6. Moving away from marketing, who else has responsibility for moderating consumption? Which other actors are involved.
7. If consumers moderated or reduced their consumption, how do you think they would spend the money they saved?
8. What do you think is most important – consumers changing their behaviours or retailers changing behaviours?
9. What are your concluding thoughts about the role of marketing – how do you think the commercial marketing department will look in 5 years time?

Appendix B: Quasi-Qualitative Elicitation Survey (USA)

Selection Requirements for this Sample:

1. People who have worked within the marketing profession for 3 years or more
2. We are interested in marketing practitioners in the consumer products sector. specifically, those who actually market products to consumers, including:
 - a) retailers (online or offline)
 - b) consumer products manufacturers
 - c) utilities providers to consumers.
 - d) restaurants and other caterers to consumers (not hotels, as mostly services)
3. We do NOT want to include the following categories of marketers:
 - a) business-to-business marketers or practitioners, such as marketing services, market research, data miners, marketing or advertising agencies (even if they are involved in the marketing of other companies' products to consumers).
 - b) services only marketers, such as banks, hotels or travel agencies.
 - c) suppliers that do not themselves market to consumers (even if they sell to the companies that do market products directly to consumers).

Sample Numbers and Quotas:

4. Sample of at least 60 in the USA, of whom at least 50% must be from organizations of 1,000 or more employees.
5. While this sample is clearly too small to achieve a truly representative geographical spread in the USA, please aim to have no less than 10 responses from each of the four main US Census regions, namely:

1. Northeast: *Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania.*
2. Midwest: *Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, Wisconsin, Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, North Dakota, Minnesota, South Dakota, Missouri.*
3. South: *Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia, Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, Tennessee, Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, Texas.*
4. West: *Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, Wyoming, Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, Washington.*

Screening questions

S.1 How long have you worked as a marketing practitioner?

Less than 3 years / 3 - 5 years / 5 - 9 years / 10 - 14 years / 15 - 19 years / Over 20 years (If less than 3 years, please terminate session)

S.2. My company sells directly to consumers Yes/No

S.3 My company advertises its brand(s) directly to consumers Yes/No
(If No to both S2 and S3, please terminate session)

S.4 My company sells physical products Yes/No
(If No, please terminate session)

S.5 My company sells only services Yes/No
(If Yes, please terminate session)

S.6 In which of these sectors does your company primarily operate?

- a) Consumer goods manufacturing
- b) Utilities (selling primarily to consumers)
- c) Retailing (online or offline)
- d) Restaurants or other catering (selling primarily to consumers)

- e) Hotel or travel services
- f) Specialist marketing agency
- g) Supplier not marketing directly to consumers
- h) Business-to-business marketing
- i) Logistics and transportation companies
- j) Other marketing activities

(If a, b, c, or d, ACCEPT into sample: if e, f, g, h, i or j, REJECT from sample)

Welcome, you have been selected to join our survey of marketing practitioners in consumer products sectors.

Unlike most other surveys you will have completed, this one leaves you free to express your own views in relation to four key questions. Please consider these four questions carefully and answer from your perspective as a marketing practitioner.

These are the most important questions in this survey and we encourage you to write 30-100 words in response to each. Please write more if you wish, as we greatly value your opinions. Following these open-ended questions, we ask a few structured questions but they will take very little time to complete.

Your responses to all of the questions will be kept entirely confidential and we value your candid and personal opinion.

If you do not have the time (15-20 minutes) to consider the four main questions and write 30-100 words in response to each, please do not enter the survey.

These four questions concern a range of sustainability matters, some relating to consumer businesses in general, some to the marketing profession.

We hope you will find these questions interesting.

Please answer all these four questions, in 30-100 words each.

Response box of appropriate size for 100+ words under each question, expandable if they wish to write more words. Please revise the standard field limits in SPSS to accommodate the much longer replies that might be given.

Q.1 From your point of view, who should take the most responsibility in terms of encouraging consumers to purchase more responsibly – government, business or consumers themselves? Please explain briefly why.

(Prompter question if less than 30 words entered; please record in Q.1P whether prompter needed) Please explain why your choice is more responsible than the other actors mentioned in the question?

Q.2 What are the possible motivations for businesses to encourage consumers to moderate (i.e., reduce) what they consume?

(Prompter question if less than 30 words entered; please record in Q.2P whether prompter needed) You may wish to consider ethical, competitive, cost-saving, social equity, resource preservation or health-related motives?

Q.3 What barriers would prevent businesses from encouraging consumers to moderate their consumption?

(Prompter question if less than 30 words entered; please record in Q.3P whether prompter needed) You may wish to consider barriers that relate to resources, knowledge, senior management/directors' attitudes, etc.

Q.4 How likely is it that encouraging customers to moderate their consumption will become a fundamental part of the marketer's role?

(Prompter question if less than 30 words entered; please record in Q.4P whether prompter needed) Please explain why you think this is the case, for example, changes that are occurring anyway, wider economic forces, resource scarcity, etc.

Finally, just a few questions about you and your company

Gender What is your gender? Male Female

Age What is your age? *(drop down list)*

Under 25 / 25-29 / 30-34 / 35-39 / 40-44 / 45-49 / 50-54 / 55-59 / 60 or Above

Education What is your highest level of education?

(education drop down list)

Some high school / High school diploma / Some college / College degree /
Graduate degree

Income What is your approximate annual income (before deductions)?
(INCOME)

(incomes drop down list)

Under \$35,000 / \$35,000 - \$49,999 / \$50,000 - \$74,999 / \$75,000 - \$99,999 /
\$100,000 - \$129,999 / \$130,000 - \$159,000 / \$160,000 - \$199,999 / \$200,000 or
Over

MDSize Approximately how many people work within the marketing department
at your organization? *(drop down list)*

Under 10 / 10 – 19 / 20 – 29 / 30 – 39 / 40 – 49 / 50 – 59 / 60 – 69 / 70 – 79 / 80
– 89 / 90 – 99 / Over 100

Resp Approximately how many people within your organization are responsible to you (directly or indirectly via less senior management)?

(enter number)

CoSize Approximately how many employees are there in your organization?

(drop down list)

Under 50 / 50 - 99 / 100 - 249 / 250 - 499 / 500 - 999 / 1,000 - 1,999 /
2,000 - 4,999 / 5,000 - 9,999 / 10,000 or more

CoType What type of organization do you work for? *(drop down list)*

Private company

Public company

Family-owned company

Co-operative/ employee-partnership

Other (please specify)

Feedback Please feel free to give us your thoughts about the subject matter of the questionnaire or any feedback you feel is important

(This is optional but your comments will be appreciated)

Box for 200 words (optional)

Thank you for your help with this project.

Appendix C: Questionnaire Instructions and Scales Deployed

Screening questions

PS.1 How long have you worked as a marketing practitioner?

Less than 3 years / 3 - 5 years / 5 - 9 years / 10 - 14 years / 15 - 19 years / Over 20 years (If less than 3 years, please terminate session)

PS.2. My company sells directly to consumers Yes/No

PS.3 My company advertises its brand(s) directly to consumers Yes/No

(If No to both PS2 and PS3, please terminate session)

PS.4 My company sells physical products Yes/No

(If No, please terminate session)

PS.5 My company sells only services Yes/No

(If Yes, please terminate session)

PS.6 In which of these sectors does your company primarily operate?

- a) Consumer goods manufacturing
- b) Utilities (selling primarily to consumers)
- c) Retailing (online or offline)
- d) Restaurants or other catering (selling primarily to consumers)
- e) Hotel or travel services
- f) Specialist marketing agency
- g) Supplier not marketing directly to consumers
- h) Business-to-business marketing
- i) Logistics and transportation companies
- j) Other marketing activities

(If a, b, c, or d, ACCEPT into sample: if e, f, g, h, i or j, REJECT from sample)

All questions in all sections will be answered using a 7 point scale, most ranging from Disagree Strongly to Agree Strongly (as Q1) unless otherwise stated.

SECTION A – CORPORATE ENVIRONMENTALISM

Environmental Orientation

Our firm has a clear policy statement urging environmental awareness in every area

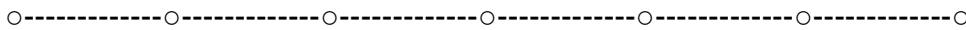
Disagree

Strongly

(please space buttons evenly on all scales)

Agree

Strongly



Environmental preservation is a high-priority activity for our firm

Preserving the environment is a central corporate value for our firm

Environmental preservation is vital to our firm's survival

The financial well-being of our firm does NOT depend on the state of the natural environment (R)

Our firm's responsibility to its customers, stakeholders and employees is MORE important than our responsibility towards environmental preservation (R)

Our firm has a responsibility to preserve the environment

Our firm uses targets and/or bonuses for employees to ensure sustainability is implemented into the business

Environmental Strategy Focus

Our firm has integrated environmental issues into our strategic planning processes

At our firm, we link environmental objectives with our other corporate goals

Environmental issues are always considered when we develop new products

We emphasize the environmental aspects of our products and services in our advertisements

Our marketing strategies for our products and services have been influenced by environmental concerns

In our firm, product and market decisions are always influenced by environmental concerns

SECTION B – PERSONALLY-HELD MOTIVATIONS

Guilt

I feel guilty about consuming as much as I do

I feel ashamed of how little I do to reduce the amount of waste I throw away

I buy more than I need and that makes me feel guilty

When I hear about climate change I feel ashamed that I don't do more to help prevent this

Personal Motivation

I like knowing that I have only bought what I need

I find pleasure in finding new ways to live more sustainably

Reducing the amount I consume is becoming an integral part of my life

Being considerate about the environment is a fundamental part of who I am

It is a good idea to consume only what I need

Moderating (i.e. reducing) the amount I consume is a way I have chosen to contribute to sustainability

Other people would feel upset if I didn't try to live more sustainably

I like to get recognition from others by being considerate about the amount I consume

My friends insist that I consider my impact on the environment

To avoid being criticised, I try not to consume more than I need

SECTION C – PILLARS OF SUSTAINABLE MARKETING

Ethical Motivation

Marketing practitioners should incorporate sustainability into marketing strategy because it is the right thing to

Encouraging moderation in consumption should be driven by marketers' concern for their social obligations

Marketing professionals should encourage their customers to purchase more sustainably because it is ethical to do so

Health Motivation

Marketing practitioners should encourage moderation in consumption for health-related reasons

Marketing practitioners have a role to play in reducing the amount of unhealthy food customers buy

Marketers should NOT interfere with customer freedom to choose less healthy consumption patterns

Consumers should NOT be encouraged to buy unhealthy products in case it leads to over-consumption and negative health implications

Resource Preservation Motivation

Marketing practitioners should encourage their customers to consume more moderately in order to avoid depleting world resources

The environmental value of using natural resources should be included in product price, to account fairly for the cost of using scarce resources

In order to secure the future supply of resources, marketers should reduce the amount of waste in the production and marketing of products

Marketing professionals should encourage consumers to shop sensibly so that over-consumption does not lead to resource depletion

Social Equity Motivation

It makes sense to encourage consumers to be more sustainable so that scarce resources will still be available for future generations

Consumers should moderate what they consume in order to allow global resources to be more fairly divided between countries

Marketing professionals should encourage customers to moderate their consumption to protect resources for future generations

Through corporate sustainability initiatives, there will be a more fair distribution of world resources

Cost-saving Motivation

Sustainability initiatives, such as increasing efficiency during production, are the best way to reduce costs

Transportation costs would be saved if people moderated their consumption of products from distant countries

It is essential that marketers minimise the wastage from marketing expenditures in order to derive cost-saving advantages

People should consume more moderately, as this would ease demand and upwards pressures on the prices of companies' raw materials

Competitive Motivation

By not over-selling, marketers will secure more long-term relationships and greater customer loyalty

Sustainability initiatives provide genuine competitive advantage

Long-term profitability is achievable by encouraging customers to moderate their consumption

Marketing practitioners who push customers to buy excessively risk damaging corporate reputation

Encouraging moderation in consumption will enable marketers to differentiate from competitors

SECTION D – LOCUS OF RESPONSIBILITY

Consumer

Consumers should moderate their consumption

Environmental deterioration is largely due to consumers buying more than they need

Consumers are NOT proactive enough in terms of consuming only what they need

Consumers have a responsibility to moderate what they buy

Government

Our government should encourage consumers to moderate their consumption

Our government is NOT proactive enough in encouraging sustainable consumption by consumers

Our government has a responsibility to encourage consumers to buy more moderately

D3 - Business

Businesses should encourage consumers to moderate their consumption

One of the major reasons for environmental problems is that businesses encourage customers to buy excessively

Businesses have a responsibility to encourage more moderate consumption from their customers

Marketing

It is a role of marketing to encourage customers to moderate their consumption

Environmental deterioration is largely due to marketing practitioners persuading customers to buy much more than they need

Marketing practitioners have a responsibility to encourage customers to buy sustainably

SECTION E – CONSEQUENCES OF CONSUMERS MODERATING THEIR CONSUMPTION

Scenario Question to Explore the Effectiveness of Marketing Actions to Encourage Moderation

Please assume for this question that your company has decided to launch a new sustainability drive, with the goal of encouraging more moderate consumption by consumers. How effective would each of the following actions be in helping to achieve that goal?

- a. Using fewer Buy-One-Get-One-Free (BOGOF) offers

Not Effective (please space buttons evenly on all scales) Highly Effective

○-----○-----○-----○-----○-----○-----○-----○

- b. Improved environmental labelling on the product

- c. New product design which lowers environmental impact

- c(rw).** New product design which incorporates environmental features

- d. Include an environmental cost into pricing decisions (a true reflection of the cost to the environment of consuming the product)

- e. Promoting the concept of sustainable consumption to consumers

- fx.** Reduce packaging

Trade-offs

Moderation of consumption by consumers would inevitably damage company profitability

Disagree Strongly (please space buttons evenly on all scales) Agree Strongly

○-----○-----○-----○-----○-----○-----○-----○

By moderating their consumption, consumers would inevitably reduce their standards of living

Long-term profitability can be compatible with the moderation of consumption

Consumer lifestyles need NOT be compromised by consuming less

Consumers moderating their consumption would create profitable opportunities for companies

Consumer lifestyles would be enriched by consuming less

Future Spending Avenues

If consumers began to moderate their consumption patterns to become more sustainable, in your opinion what would consumers do with the money they might save?

a. Pay off existing debts (credit cards, loans, overdraft, mortgage)

Least Likely (please space buttons evenly on all scales) Most Likely

○-----○-----○-----○-----○-----○-----○-----○

- b. Savings and investments (pension contributions, stock market, property etc.)
- c. More or higher quality education
- d. Better standard of living
- e. Invest in better health (fitness, diet, private healthcare)
- f. Charity, community or religious giving
- g. Household environmental initiatives (solar panels, grey water system, home insulation etc.)
- h. More leisure activities (holidays, cultural activities, eating out, new hobbies)
- i. Invest in better work-life balance (reduce working hours)

SECTION F – CLASSIFICATION INFORMATION

Finally, A Few Questions about You and Your Company

What is your gender?

Male Female

What is your age?

Under 25 / 25-29 / 30-34 / 35-39 / 40-44 / 45-49 / 50-54 / 55-59 / 60 or Above

What is your highest level of education?

UK version Some secondary school / GCSE or equivalent / 'A' level or equivalent / University degree / Post-graduate degree

USA version Some high school / High school diploma / Some college / College degree / Graduate degree

What is your approximate annual income (before deductions)?

UK version Under £25,000 / £25,000 - £34,999 / £35,000 - £49,999 / £50,000 - £64,999 / £65,000 - £79,999 / £80,000 - £99,999 / £100,000 - £124,999 / £125,000 or Over

USA version Under \$35,000 / \$35,000 - \$49,999 / \$50,000 - \$74,999 / \$75,000 - \$99,999 / \$100,000 - \$129,999 / \$130,000 - \$159,000 / \$160,000 - \$199,999 / \$200,000 or Over

Approximately how many people work within the marketing department at your organisation?

Under 10 / 10 – 19 / 20 – 29 / 30 – 39 / 40 – 49 / 50 – 59 / 60 – 69 / 70 – 79 / 80 – 89 / 90 – 99 / Over 100

Approximately how many people within your organisation are responsible to you (directly or indirectly via less senior management)? Free-type box

Approximately how many employees are there in your organisation?

Under 50 / 50 - 99 / 100 - 249 / 250 - 499 / 500 - 999 / 1,000 - 1,999 / 2,000 - 4,999 / 5,000 - 9,999 / 10,000 or more

What type of organisation do you work for?

Private company

Public company

Family-owned company

Co-operative/ employee-partnership

Other (please specify)

Please feel free to give us your thoughts about the subject matter of the questionnaire or any feedback you feel is important

(This is optional but your comments will be appreciated)

Box for 200 words (optional)

Thank you for your help with this project.

Appendix D: Common Latent Factor AMOS Test and Loadings

Figure 10.1: CFA Common Latent Factor Test

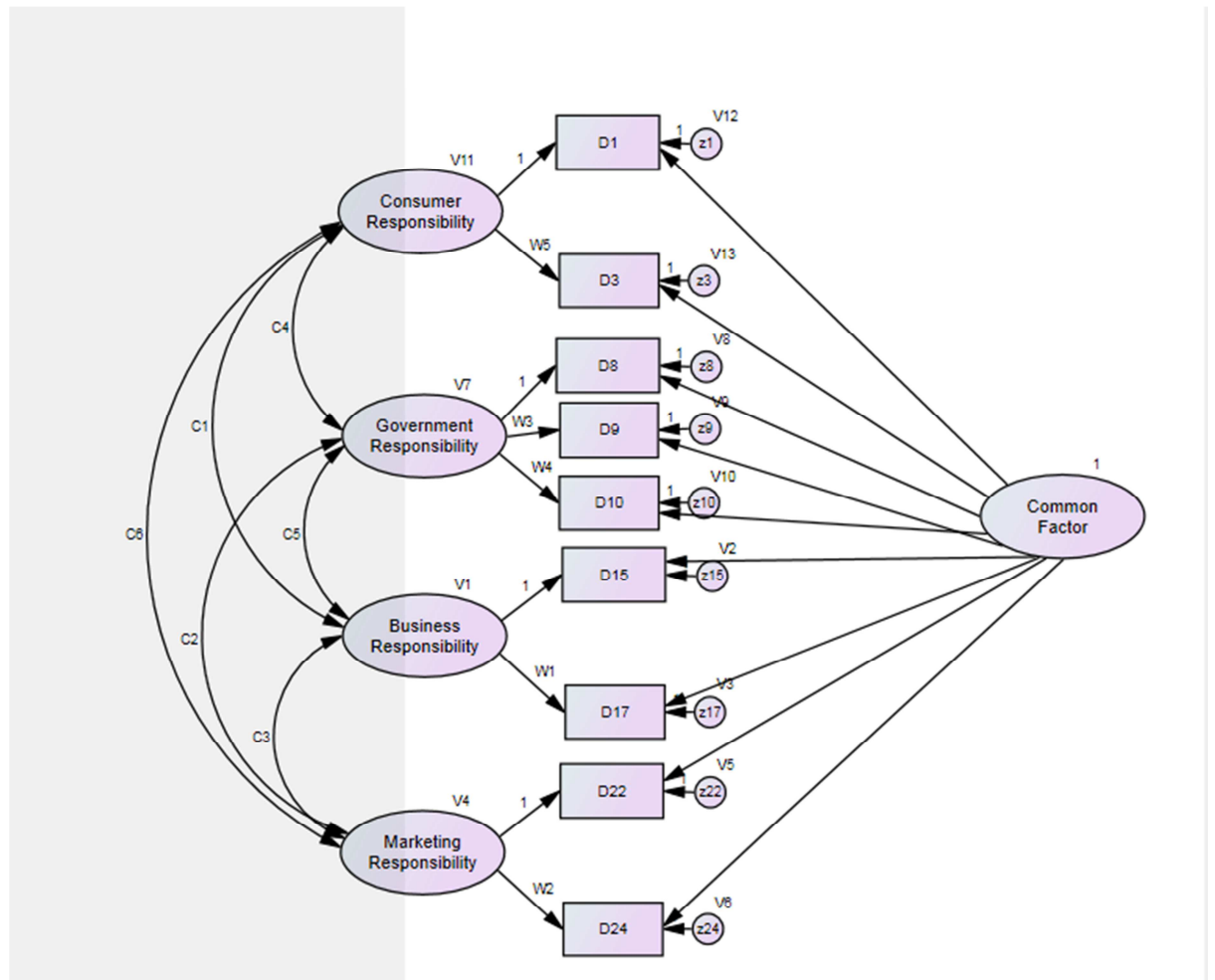


Table 10.1: Standardised Regression Loadings for Common Latent Factor Test

Item	Standardized Regression weight without CLF	Standardized Regression weight without CLF
D15 Business Responsibility	.911	.755
D17 Business Responsibility	.869	.896
D22 Marketing Responsibility	.836	.743
D24 Marketing Responsibility	.897	.803
D8 Government Responsibility	.911	.730
D9 Government Responsibility	.768	.688
D10 Governmnet Responsibility	.923	.931
D1 Consumer Responsibility	.901	.756
D3 Consumer Responsibility	.923	.828

Appendix E: AMOS MODEL AND FACTOR LOADINGS

Figure 10.2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

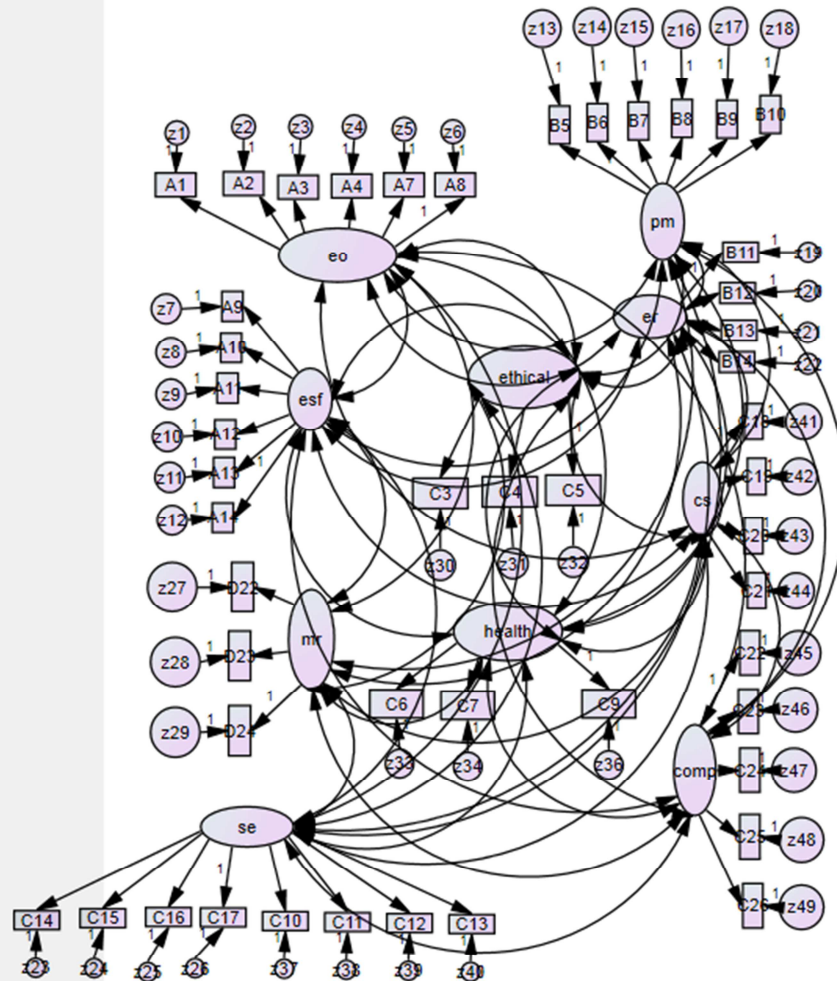


Table 10.2: Factor Loadings, AVE, Delta and CR

Items from the CFA	Factor Loadings	AVE	Delta	CR
A14 <--- esf	0.884	0.884	0.219	0.955
A13 <--- esf	0.886		0.215	
A12 <--- esf	0.895		0.199	
A11 <--- esf	0.879		0.227	
A10 <--- esf	0.884		0.219	
A9 <--- esf	0.876		0.233	
B5 <--- pm	0.519	0.768	0.731	0.900
B6 <--- pm	0.841		0.293	
B7 <--- pm	0.872		0.240	
B8 <--- pm	0.838		0.298	
B9 <--- pm	0.704		0.504	
B10 <--- pm	0.836		0.301	
B11 <--- er	0.737	0.808	0.457	0.883
B12 <--- er	0.873		0.238	
B13 <--- er	0.829		0.313	
B14 <--- er	0.792		0.373	
C17 <--- se	0.738	0.807	0.455	0.882
C16 <--- se	0.872		0.240	
C15 <--- se	0.836		0.301	
C14 <--- se	0.780		0.392	
A8 <--- eo	0.568	0.814	0.677	0.926
A7 <--- eo	0.679		0.539	
A4 <--- eo	0.868		0.247	
A3 <--- eo	0.945		0.107	
A2 <--- eo	0.944		0.109	
A1 <--- eo	0.880		0.226	
D24 <--- mr	0.905	0.834	0.181	0.874
D23 <--- mr	0.761		0.421	
D22 <--- mr	0.835		0.303	
C5 <--- ethical	0.841	0.774	0.293	0.819
C4 <--- ethical	0.774		0.401	
C3 <--- ethical	0.707		0.500	
C13 <--- rp	0.886	0.817	0.215	0.890
C12 <--- rp	0.768		0.410	
C11 <--- rp	0.742		0.449	
C10 <--- rp	0.870		0.243	
C9 <--- health	0.642	0.780	0.588	0.827
C7 <--- health	0.829		0.313	
C6 <--- health	0.870		0.243	
C18 <--- cs	0.626		0.608	
C19 <--- cs	0.741		0.451	
C20 <--- cs	0.721		0.480	

C21	<---	cs	0.800	0.722	0.360	0.815
C22	<---	comp	0.763		0.418	
C23	<---	comp	0.760		0.422	
C24	<---	comp	0.835		0.303	
C25	<---	comp	0.700		0.510	
C26	<---	comp	0.833	0.778	0.306	0.885

