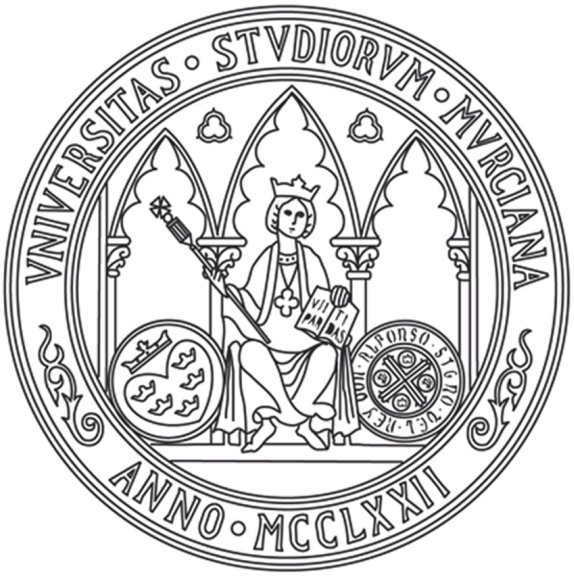


UNIVERSIDAD DE MURCIA

FACULTAD DE ECONOMÍA Y EMPRESA

Personal Social Responsibility: Measurement, Dimensions and Relations with Corporate Social Responsibility

Responsabilidad Social Personal: Medición, Caracterización y Relación con la Responsabilidad Social Corporativa

Dña. Sylvia López Davis

2017

UNIVERSIDAD DE MURCIA

FACULTAD DE ECONOMÍA Y EMPRESA

Programa de Doctorado en Ciencias de la Empresa

Departamento de Comercialización e Investigación de Mercados

*

PERSONAL SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY: MEASUREMENT, DIMENSIONS AND RELATIONS WITH CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPOSNIBILITY

RESPONSABILIDAD SOCIAL PERSONAL: MEDICIÓN, CARACTERIZACIÓN Y RELACIÓN CON LA RESPONSABILIDAD SOCIAL CORPORATIVA

*

Directores:

D. Longinos Marín Rives
D. Salvador Ruiz de Maya

*

Dña. Sylvia López Davis
2017

AGRADECIMIENTOS

El desarrollo de esta tesis doctoral ha venido acompañado de mi desarrollo personal y profesional. He tenido que compatibilizar la investigación con las idas y venidas de la vida, el aprendizaje, los errores, el trabajo y la inestabilidad.

Y en este camino he aprendido a leer mucho para poder escribir algo. He aprendido a observar, a sintetizar. A no dar opiniones, sino datos. A ser rigurosa, crítica, a elegir con consciencia en qué creer. A caerme y levantarme, a perder las fuerzas y recuperarlas, a ser constante, a llegar hasta el final.

En él he conocido a gente maravillosa. Gente que forma parte de mi vida después de todo. De cada uno de vosotros me llevo un tanto para siempre.

Doy las gracias a mis directores, Longinos y Salva. Por vuestro tiempo, generosidad y profesionalidad. Por haber tenido siempre la solución a cualquier problema, por tranquilizarme, por guiarme. Me he sentido muy segura a vuestro lado, sabiendo que si tenía vuestra bendición es que el trabajo estaba bien hecho. Habéis sido un regalo.

A Longinos, por ser el precursor de todo esto. Por descubrirme la RSC, por fijarte en mí y hacerme partícipe de la Cátedra de RSC, que he podido ver nacer y crecer. Por los proyectos emprendidos, las conversaciones, lo compartido. Por hacerme reír y ser el hombro en que llorar. Por tu acompañamiento, protección, consejo y amistad. Por tu pasión y equilibrio, tu transparencia y naturalidad. Por enseñarme tanto de la vida. Por creer en mí.

A Salva, por las innumerables horas de trabajo en tu despacho, cualquier día de la semana a cualquier hora, en cualquier mes del año. Por la paz que me has transmitido todo este tiempo, por tu rigurosidad, por tu capacidad, por tu paciencia y tu manejo de los datos. Por responder a los correos a las cuatro de la mañana, siempre disponible e incansable. Por ir siempre más allá.

A la Cátedra de RSC y a todos los que forman parte de ella. Especialmente a Pedro, compañero, amigo y ángel de la guarda. Gracias a sus patrocinadores Agromediterranea, Aguas de Murcia, Ayuntamiento de Molina de Segura, Disfrimur, Fundación Cajamurcia, Fundación Cepaim, Fundación Diagrama, Grupo Fuertes, Hero

y Grupo Orenes, que no sólo han hecho posible todo lo que hace la Cátedra sino que, además, me han dado de comer todos estos años y han permitido este trabajo.

A todas las personas con las que he compartido el camino. Que me habéis sorprendido, de las que he aprendido. Por enseñarme que en el mundo cabemos todos, por la riqueza de ser todos tan distintos, por haberos tenido cerca.

A mis amigos, por la suerte de que estéis a mi lado. En especial a Marina, María José y María, a las que quiero tanto.

A mis padres. Por vuestro ejemplo, ayuda, consejo y apoyo incondicional. Por haberme regalado una vida llena de amor, por la estructura tan maravillosa que habéis construido con tanto esfuerzo. Por ser mi refugio.

A mis hermanos, con los que siempre he podido contar aunque no cuente demasiado.

A Gabriel. Por haberme enseñado tanto. Por sacarme de mi zona de confort y mostrarme el mundo a través de tus ojos. Por tus palabras exactas. Por tu libertad, tu inquietud y tu sensibilidad. Por tu amor y tu amistad todos estos años. Por haber crecido a mi lado, por haberme ayudado a crecer. Infinitamente gracias por el regalo más grande de la vida: nuestro hijo.

Gracias, Nacho, por cada segundo de cada día. Por ser mi fuerza y mi alegría. Por enseñarme a amar incondicionalmente. Gracias por existir.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INDEX OF FIGURES AND TABLES

FIGURES

TABLES

INTRODUCTION

A national survey to one thousand citizens in Spain concludes that a 49% of the respondents are critical consumers, excluding or boycotting those brands believed to be irresponsible (Fundación Adecco, 2015). The study indicates that citizens are considered, just behind the government and the enterprises, as the third group that has more responsibility towards society. Consumers are not only consumers and consumption has exceeded the limits of a mere economic exchange, thus positioning themselves as principal actors in the development of more responsible or sustainable societies. They –the consumers- are co-responsible, together with organizations, governments and corporations, of the evolution of social life, but one cannot forget that those organizations, governments and corporations are run by people that make decisions in their professional and personal life, what makes individual actions the main focus of our attention.

The individual actions performed by citizens that define the course of the mankind are routinely observed across the decisions of everyday life: taking the car to go to our job or the public transport, the bicycle or just walking, buying what we desire in a certain point of time or just what we need, downloading films from the Internet for a Friday night or, instead, paying for it, acting as an example for our children, families and friends or dedicating one or two hours a week of our spare time to help a social organization of our community, are some examples of decisions that will make the difference on the impacts that our way of life will have on the evolution of the world. Consequently, citizens should be responsible not only of their purchasing choices, but also of the influence that their daily acts and decisions will have on the economic, social and environmental spheres of life. All these reasons lead us to talk about *Personal Social Responsibility* (PSR) as a new construct that not only incorporates what previous works have accepted within the field of ethical or responsible consumption, but also that is determined by different dimensions related to further issues not considered by that previous literature.

Although literature on consumer behavior has correctly addressed new tendencies of ethical consumption during the last decades, analyzed upon different perspectives such as social, ethical, responsible, conscious, sustainable or green (Webster, 1975; Antil and Bennet, 1979; Antil, 1984; Roberts, 1995; Mohr et al., 2001; Uusitalo and Oksanen, 2004; Webb et al, 2007; Ha-Brookshire and Hodges, 2009; Vitell, 2015), there has been almost no research on personal actions that transcend the domain of consumption and that can complement and improve this previous research.

To date, the scope of Consumer Social Responsibility (CnSR) remains narrowly conceived and its inter-linkages with CSR remain under-theorized, constrained by the micro-level legacy in consumer, marketing, and management research (Caruana and Chatzidakis, 2014). Thus, there is still little guidance available on how this consumer behavior evolves and adapts to new social concerns and attitudes, and how this evolution influences corporate decisions and relates with Corporate Social Responsibility programs (Carrigan and Atalla, 2001). Therefore, as one of the major stakeholders of companies are consumers, marketers must begin to account for, manage and understand the breadth of consumer concerns and how the latter translate into new forms of behavior (Binninger and Robert, 2008). Indeed, business responds to consumerism and other forces calling for more responsible marketing action, and management must have a clear understanding of the characteristics of those consumers most likely to respond to appeals to their social consciousness (Webster, 1975).

In this research, we investigate whether a new construct, personal social responsibility, is relevant and achieves an acceptable and appropriate level of theoretical and empirical consistency. Our core thesis is that personal social responsibility stands as a new way of measuring the extent to which citizens are responsible towards societies, in all its dimensions and forms, from a more extended perspective than what previous works on consumer behavior have afforded.

In essence, an overall look at the definitions of related constructs –consumer social responsibility, responsible consumption, ecologically conscious consumer behavior, ethical purchasing or consumption, among others- shows that almost all of them refer, in their meanings, to the consumers' impacts on the society (Webster, 1975; Antil and Bennet, 1979; Antil, 1984; Roberts, 1995; Mohr et al, 2001; Harper and Makatouni, 2002; Uusitalo and Oksanen, 2004; De Pelsmacker et al, 2005; Shaw and Shui, 2002; Fraj and Martínez, 2007; Ha-Brookshire and Hodges, 2009), the environment (Elkington and Hailes, 1989; Roberts, 1995; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Harper and Makatouni, 2002; De Pelsmacker et al, 2005; Shaw and Shui, 2002; Fraj and Martinez, 2007), the influence of certain moral values or ethical beliefs on the consumer's decisions (Vitell and Muncy, 1992; Cooper-Martin and Holbrook, 1993; Hendarwan, 2002; Uusitalo and Oksanen, 2004; De Pelsmaker et al, 2005; Shaw and Shui, 2002; Devinney et al, 2006; Freestone and McGoldrick, 2008; Caruana and Chatzidakis, 2014; Quazi et al, 2015), or their role on the maintenance of a sustainable system (Fisk, 1973; Antil and Bennet, 1979; Antil, 1984). Some of them refer

specifically to values of solidarity or altruism (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Barnett et al, 2005; Miller, 1998; Fazal, 2011), or imply specific purchase decisions affected by the company performance or its responsible behaviors (Mohr et al, 2001; Harrison et al, 2005), while the most recent contributions make specific reference to the relations between the person and those related to him –his surroundings and stakeholders- (Caruana and Chatzidakis, 2014; Vitell, 2015; Quazi et al, 2015).

However, there are other elements and actions that can make people be more responsible towards society and that previous literature has not included, such as those related to the respect of the legality or the economic performance (i.e. not spending more than what one earns or paying the taxes).

If we take a look at the measures and dimensions –not the definitions- that analyze socially responsible consumption behaviors, most of them have at least one dimension (being sometimes the core or even the only factor) directly linked to environmental themes. This dimension goes throughout a wide range of green issues such as environmental concerns, attitudes and knowledge, animal protection, energy conservation, purchase's impacts on the environment, recycling behavior or *deconsumption*, among others (Anderson et al, 1974; Kinnear et al, 1974; Webster, 1975; Tucker et al, 1981; Antil, 1984; Singh, 2009; Roberts, 1996; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Mohr and Webb, 2005; Shanka and Goapalan, 2005; Ismail et al, 2006; Lee, 2008; Webb et al, 2008; Durif et al, 2011; Yan and She, 2011; Ocampo et al, 2014; Quazi et al, 2015). The second factor that has been more widely used by researchers is related to purchase criteria: for instance, buying criteria in support to local businesses, national brands, fair trade products or responsible companies (Mohr and Webb, 2005; Shanka and Goapalan, 2005; Francois-Lecompte and Roberts, 2006; Ismail et al, 2006; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009; Webb et al, 2008; Lee and Shin, 2010; Durif et al, 2011; Yan and She, 2011; Ocampo et al, 2014; Quazi et al, 2015). Other works include social aspects like solidarity or philanthropy (Francois-Lecompte and Roberts, 2006; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009; Durif et al, 2011; Yan and She, 2011; Quazi et al, 2015). And the most recent ones call to an active way of consumerism that incorporates critical attitudes toward business' performance and the protection of consumer's rights (Yan and She, 2011; Ocampo et al, 2014; Quazi et al, 2015). Lastly, various works have considered the influence that company's behaviors can have on consumers' purchase decisions (Mohr and Webb, 2005; Shanka and Goapalan, 2005; Francois-Lecompte and

Roberts, 2006; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009; Webb et al., 2008; Lee and Shin, 2010; Yan and She, 2011; Ocampo et al., 2014).

Based on the literature review on related constructs on the field of consumer behavior and on the results of qualitative research, we delimit and define PSR. Given that there is not an agreement on the dimensionality of CnSR and that PSR stands as a new concept that incorporates further issues not considered before, individual responsibilities have been dimensioned based on Carroll's (1979) model of CSR. This way, in this dissertation PSR has been defined, delimited, dimensioned and analyzed as a new form of individual behavior theoretically based on the extant literature on consumer behavior and practically developed as a parallelism of organizational responsible behaviors through CSR's dimensionality.

More specifically, we predict that PSR is a formative construct composed by the economic, legal, ethical, philanthropic and environmental responsibilities of a person. Additionally, we set a model where certain characteristics of the individual like being more collectivistic (in opposition to individualism), more idealist (in opposition to relativism), behaving under cultural and social norms and perceiving the effectiveness of behaving responsibly lead to higher levels of PSR. And lastly, the model posits that being more responsible helps the individual to reach higher levels of self-esteem, interpersonal relationships and happiness.

To accomplish this goal, we address this issue with three studies that are presented throughout this work as explained below:

In the first chapter we present a theoretical schema to introduce the construct PSR. To do so, a theoretical framework of Consumer Social Responsibility (CnSR) and CSR is presented. We draw on extant research in marketing and consumer behavior to elaborate on the nature of Personal Social Responsibility (PSR). More specifically, we first review the extant literature regarding responsible, socially responsible, green, ethical and social consumption behavior. Then, we provide a brief introduction to the main contributions on the literature of CSR, focusing on a particular model that can be related to the consumer perspective of social responsibility. With those arguments, we proceed to specifically address the proposed construct of Personal Social Responsibility.

The second chapter pursues the development and validation of the construct PSR, focused on its delimitation and dimensionality. Throughout the chapter a conceptual framework of PSR is presented, including a review and analysis of its

dimensionality. We then articulate our conceptual framework that offers propositions regarding the key dimensions of PSR, presenting in the end the Study 1, where we test the first steps of our model. PSR's dimensionality is delimited through five components that include the *economic*, *legal*, *ethical*, *philanthropic* and *environmental* behaviors as the dimensions of PSR.

Chapter three analyzes the nature of the PSR model. The chapter contains a discussion of the characteristics of formative and reflective indicators, and proposes a model with two antecedents and two consequences of PSR in order to test its external and nomological validity. Results of this chapter set the basis for the design and analysis of a complete model of individual behavior, which is developed in the next section.

This complete model of PSR is presented in Chapter four. It includes the validation of PSR as a formative construct and additional measures to validate its external and nomological validity. The model includes four antecedents: *Moral Philosophies* –concretely measures of *Idealism* and *Relativism*-, *Perceived Consumer Effectiveness*, *Collectivism* and *Subjective Norms*. Three variables constitute PSR's consequences: *Self-esteem*, *Interpersonal Relationships* and *Satisfaction with Life*.

We finish this dissertation with a discussion of the findings from the three studies in terms of their theoretical and managerial implications, limitations of the work, as well as an outline of a further research agenda in the area of ethical and responsible consumption behavior.

Overall, this research contributes to the growing literature on responsible behavior and its relationship with Corporate Social Responsibility in several ways. First, based on the literature of ethical and responsible consumption, we explore a new perspective of socially responsible consumption and define a new construct of PSR. Second, we use previous measures on ethical consumer behavior and CSR to translate the main issues that are considered for organizations' performance to the personal behavior of the individuals from a responsible or an ethical perspective. Third, we provide empirical validation of a five dimensions model that contributes to the construction of the PSR scale. Finally, we design and validate a complete model of PSR through a formative index construction, including antecedents and consequences of individual responsible behavior.

Results indicate that PSR stands as a solid measure of a new personality trait formed by dimensions that refer to five responsibilities: economic, legal, ethical,

philanthropic and environmental. Our model also demonstrates that a person who is more collectivist, less relativist, that have a higher perceived consumer effectiveness and that is more influenced by subjective norms will be more socially responsible. In addition, it also proves that a person who is socially responsible will have better interpersonal relationships, higher self-esteem and will be more satisfied with his/her life.

Demonstrating that individual responsible behaviors lead to have a happier society, with citizens that feel better about themselves and that get on better with each other, is a key knowledge for public institutions to implement policies that lead to reach more responsible educational and political strategies. This will not only affect individuals from a personal perspective, but also will transcend to every other fields of one's life, helping to create a better society and, in addition, better managers and leaders.

CHAPTER ONE

CHAPTER ONE

Personal Social Responsibility as approach to Consumer and Corporate Social Responsibility: literature review

1.1. Developing Personal Social Responsibility on the basis of Consumer and Corporate Social Responsibility

1.2. Consumer Social Responsibility

- 1.2.1. The *philanthropic* perspective of consumption.
- 1.2.2. The *social* and *environmental* impacts of consumption.
- 1.2.3. The *ethical* perspective of consumption.

1.3. Corporate Social Responsibility

1.4. Personal Social Responsibility. Conceptual delimitation

- 1.4.1. *Economic* responsibilities
- 1.4.2. *Legal* responsibilities
- 1.4.3. *Ethical* responsibilities
- 1.4.4. *Philanthropic* responsibilities
- 1.4.5. *Environmental* responsibilities

In this first chapter we introduce the construct Personal Social Responsibility (PSR), based on a theoretical framework in which Consumer Social Responsibility (CnSR) and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) are included as key elements to build PSR. We draw on extant research in marketing and consumer behavior to elaborate on the nature of Personal Social Responsibility (PSR). More specifically, we first review the extant literature regarding responsible, socially responsible, green, ethical and social consumption behavior, classifying the previous contributions in the field in four main perspectives of consumption: the philanthropic, the social and/or environmental and the ethical one. Then, a brief introduction to the main contributions on the literature of CSR is provided, focusing on a particular model that can be related to the consumer perspective of social responsibility. With those arguments and the results of qualitative research –a focus group-, the proposed construct of PSR is specifically addressed and conceptually delimitated.

1.1. Developing Personal Social Responsibility on the basis of Consumer and Corporate Social Responsibility

Societies have evolved in the last decades toward better informed citizens that are more aware of the options available in the market and the effects of their behaviors. Organizations of consumers state that consumption represents a fundamental tool for social change at citizens' disposal and that, as consumers and savers, we have the opportunity to use our decision judgment according to our convictions and, therefore, promote, through our purchasing and investment patterns, the construction of a sustainable development (Fundación Ecodes, 2015). It's been conceived by the simple, positive activism of casting our economic vote conscientiously (Hollister et al, 1994). Just as Melé (2009) points out:

> "Taking into account that we are all the market system, if we all change our way of thinking, being, acting and investing our money, the operation and direction that is taking the economic model will change. This is not utopian. The State, the banking and the industry move at the request of the money managed by the individuals, the citizens, the community. Therefore, the power of the citizen does not lie in his/her vote, but in the direction in which his/her money is being directed, his/her way of consuming" (Melé, 2009:43).

A new hope of change is emerging in some groups of consumers that find in their purchase decisions a way of economic power that can control or, at least, have an impact on the way corporations behave. This perspective takes into account the influence and power of consumer decisions on the direction that will guide the evolution of societies, and is considered in many studies about responsible, green or ethical behavior (Webster, 1975; Antil and Bennet, 1979; Antil, 1984; Roberts, 1995; Mohr et al., 2001; Uusitalo and Oksanen, 2004; Ha-Brookshire and Hodges, 2009; Vitell, 2015), although some others provide evidence of discourses that assume that this power is exercised in a reticular, shifting, and productive manner (Valor et al., 2016).

However, a deep look at the existing literature on consumer responsible behaviors sheds light to one fundamental conclusion: there is an excessive focus on consumption patterns and corporate performance and, on the other hand, there is a need to embrace further issues within the concept that involve different fields of an individual's everyday life. Indeed, some authors have pointed to the need of updating the measurement (Webb et al., 2008; Quazi, 2013; Vitell, 2014) and the definitions in response to a full range of social issues, broadening the current narrowly conceived scope of CnSR (Caruana and Chatzidakis, 2014). These measures and definitions should conceptually incorporate the parallelism on the evolution that consumers and corporations are undergoing and, additionally, include other issues that can have an influence on other fields of everyday life and society. As Caruana and Chatzidakis (2014) state:

> "The emergence of consumer social responsibility (CnSR) has meant that the familiar terrain upon which the battle for consumer utility is fought –price, convenience, reliability, and availability- has extended to include social issues of justice, fairness, rights, virtue, and sustainability. This has transformed the nature of corporate-consumer relations, from one forged largely on utility maximization, exchange value, and product efficiency, to a broader and more intricate socio-moral and political relationship (Crane and Matten, 2005)" (Caruana and Chatzidakis, 2014:577).

Therefore, we propose that Personal Social Responsibility (PSR) should refer to the daily life behavior of the individual, as a member of the society –and not only as a consumer-. Our conception of PSR aligns with that of CSR. As CSR describes the

relationship between business and the larger society (Snider et al., 2003), PSR should describe the individual's relationship with the larger society too. That means that similarly to what happens with companies, that pursue better relationships with their stakeholders through their responsible behaviors (Sen et al., 2006), individuals' decisions will be also based on seeking greater relationships with their stakeholders –in this case families, friends, colleagues and the community-.

Accordingly, PSR is going to be defined and analyzed in this research as a different construct from CnSR. In the next sections we analyze the construct of CnSR, widening the concept to bring it closer to the new construct. Then, to conceptually delimit PSR, we will use the concept of CSR and its dimensions, which will be translated from the organizational to the individual fields of action. This will enable us to introduce PSR on the basis of CnSR –on its conceptualization- and CSR –on its dimensionality, developed in the next chapter-, and to establish parallelisms between them.

1.2. Consumer Social Responsibility

In a very wide sense, social responsibility of consumers has been an important concern for researchers, especially since the 70s (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Fisk, 1973). With this long research tradition, literature has used different constructs that refer, in their terminology, to responsible, environmental or ethical attitudes and responsibilities of consumers. However, not all of the nomenclatures are in direct relation with their meanings and descriptions –that is, *green* consumption related to *environmental* issues or *ethical* consumption related to *moral* or *ethical* matters-, what makes necessary to classify the extant literature following a content-schema.

If we focus explicitly on the nomenclature of the constructs, three groups of authors can be identified that make direct allusion to responsible, ethical and environmental consumption. First, some of them specifically used terms related to responsibility of consumers, such as social responsibility (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972), responsible consumption (Fisk, 1973), socially responsible consumption behavior (Antil, 1984; Antil and Bennet, 1979, Roberts, 1995; Mohr et al., 2001; Ha-Brookshire and Hodges, 2009) or consumer social responsibility (Vitell and Muncy,

1992; Devinney et al., 2006; Fazal, 2011; Caruana and Chatzidakis, 2014; Vitell, 2015; Quazi et al., 2015). Some others have focused on the term Ethics and refer to ethical consumption (Miller, 1998; Cooper-Martin and Holbrook, 1993; Harper and Makatouni, 2002; Uusitalo and Oksanen, 2004; Barnett et al., 2005; Fraj and Martinez, 2007; Adams and Raisborough, 2010) and ethical purchasing (Harrison, Newholm and Shaw, 2005), or define the ethically minded consumer (Shaw and Shui, 2002; De Pelsmacker et al., 2005) and the ethical person (Freestone and McGoldrick, 2008). A third group of authors focus on consumers' environmental attitudes and behaviors and refer to green consumerism (Elkington and Hailes, 1989; Hendarwan, 2002), ecologically conscious consumer behavior (Straughan and Roberts, 1999) or, as Webster (1975), socially conscious consumer.

A deeper analysis of the constructs' definitions and contents sheds light to the assumption of consumer responsibilities from different perspectives. In essence, an overall look at the definitions (see Table 1.1 for a summary of the definitions and Table 1.2 for a content schema) shows that almost all of the constructs refer to the consumers' impacts on the society (Webster, 1975; Antil and Bennet, 1979; Antil, 1984; Roberts, 1995; Mohr et al, 2001; Harper and Makatouni, 2002; Uusitalo and Oksanen, 2004; De Pelsmacker et al, 2005; Shaw and Shui, 2002; Fraj and Martínez, 2007; Ha-Brookshire and Hodges, 2009) or the environment (Elkington and Hailes, 1989; Roberts, 1995; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Harper and Makatouni, 2002; De Pelsmacker et al, 2005; Shaw and Shui, 2002; Fraj and Martinez, 2007), to the influence of certain moral values or ethical beliefs on the consumer's decisions (Vitell and Muncy, 1992; Cooper-Martin and Holbrook, 1993; Hendarwan, 2002; Uusitalo and Oksanen, 2004; De Pelsmaker et al, 2005; Shaw and Shui, 2002; Devinney et al, 2006; Freestone and McGoldrick, 2008; Caruana and Chatzidakis, 2014; Quazi et al, 2015), or their role on the maintenance of a sustainable system (Fisk, 1973; Antil and Bennet, 1979; Antil, 1984). Some of them refer specifically to values of solidarity or altruism (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Barnett et al, 2005; Miller, 1998; Fazal, 2011), or imply specific purchase decisions depending on the company performance or its responsible behaviors (Mohr et al, 2001; Harrison et al, 2005). And the most recent contributions make specific reference to the relations between the individual and its stakeholders (Caruana and Chatzidakis, 2014; Vitell, 2015; Quazi et al, 2015).

Table 1.1
Literature review of definitions related to Consumer Social Responsibility

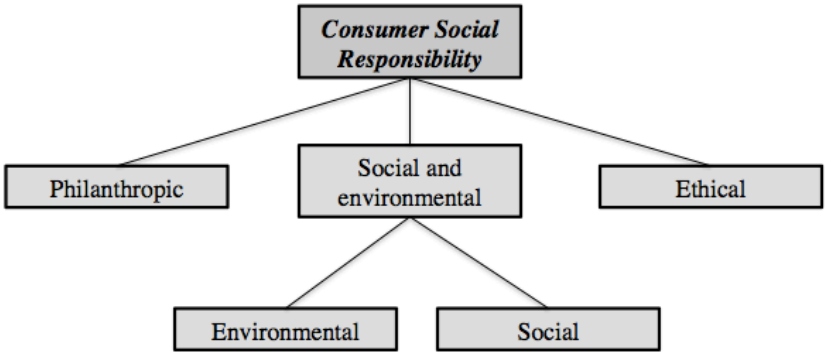
Author(s), year	Construct	Definition
1. The *philanthropic* perspective of consumption		
Anderson and Cunningham (1972)	*Social Responsibility*	Willingness of an individual to help other persons even when there is nothing to be gained for himself
Barnett et al (2005); Miller (1998)	*Ethical Consumer*	All consumer behavior, however ordinary and routine, that is likely to be shaped by diverse values of caring for other people and concern for fairness
Barnett et al. (2005)	*Ethical Consumption*	Any practice of consumption in which explicitly registering commitment to distant or absent others is an important dimension of the meaning of activity of the actors involved
Fazal (2011)	*Consumer Social Responsibility (CnSR)*	To be critical, to act, to care for fellow human beings, to live in peace with the environment, and to join hands and create the solidarity
2. The *social* and *environmental* impacts of consumption		
Webster (1975)	*Socially Conscious Consumer*	A consumer who takes into account the public consequences of his or her private consumption or who attempts to use his or her purchasing power to bring about social change
Antil and Bennet (1979); Antil (1984)	*Socially Responsible Consumption*	Those consumer behaviors and purchase decisions which are related to environmental and resource-related problems and are motivated not only by a desire to satisfy personal needs but also by a concern for the welfare of society in general
Roberts (1995)	*Socially Responsible Consumer*	One who purchases products and services perceived to have a more positive (or less negative) influence on the environment or who patronizes businesses that attempt to effect related positive social change
Harper and Makatouni (2002)	*Ethical Consumer*	The one who buys products which are not harmful to the environment and society
De Pelsmacker et al. (2005); Shaw and Shui (2002)	*Ethically Minded Consumers*	Those who feel a responsibility towards the environment and/or to society, and seek to express their values through ethical consumption and purchasing (or boycotting) behavior
Fraj and Martinez (2007)	*Ethical Consumer*	The one who makes rational use of available information about free trade / corrective solutions to consider the consequences of their purchase practices
2.1. The *social* perspective of consumption		
Mohr et al. (2001)	*Socially Responsible Consumer Behavior (SRCB)*	A person basing his or her acquisition, usage, and disposition of products on a desire to minimize or eliminate any harmful effects and maximize the long-run beneficial impact on society
		The one that would avoid buying products from companies that harm society and actively seek out products from companies that help society
Uusitalo and Oksanen (2004)	*Ethical Consumerism*	The consumer considers not only individual but also social goals, ideals and ideologies
Ha-Brookshire and Hodges (2009)	*Socially Responsible Consumer Behavior (SRCB)*	The behavior of a consumer basing decisions on a desire to minimize or eliminate any harmful effects and to maximize any beneficial impacts on society in one or more consumption steps of the consumption process. This consumption process includes product information search, acquisition, usage, storage, disposal, and post-disposal evaluation.
Vitell (2014)	*Consumer Social Responsibility (CnSR)*	The responsibility to stakeholders and to society
2.2. The *environmental* perspective of consumption		
Fisk (1973)	*Responsible consumption*	Rational and efficient use of resources with respect to the global human population
Elkington and Hailes (1989)	*Green Consumer*	The one who avoids products that might endanger the health of the consumer or others; cause significant damage to the environment during manufacture, use or disposal; consume a disproportionate amount of energy; cause unnecessary waste; use material derived from threatened species or environments; involve unnecessary use or cruelty to animals (or) adversely affect other countries
Straughan and Roberts (1999)	*Ecologically Conscious Consumer Behavior (ECCB)*	The extent to which individual respondents purchase goods and services believed to have a more positive (or less negative) impact on the environment
3. The *ethical* perspective of consumption		
Vitell and Muncy (1992)	*Consumer Social Responsibilities*	The moral principles and standard that guide the behaviors of individual as they obtain, use, and dispose of goods and services
Cooper-Martin y Holbrook (1993)	*Ethical Consumer Behavior*	Decision-making, purchases and other consumption experiences that are affected by the consumer's ethical concerns
Hendarwan (2002)	*Green Consumerism*	That which involves beliefs and values aimed at supporting a greater good that motivates consumers' purchases
De Pelsmacker et al. (2005); Shaw and Shui (2002)	*Ethically Minded Consumers*	Those who feel a responsibility towards the environment and/or to society, and seek to express their values through ethical consumption and purchasing (or boycotting) behavior
Harrison, Newholm and Shaw (2005)	*Ethical Purchasing*	'Ethical purchasing' is a very broad expression embracing everything from ethical investment (the ethical purchasing of stocks and shares) to the buying of fair trade products, and from consumer boycotts to corporate environmental purchasing policies. The authors indicate various elements of concern, such as the product's precedence, the manufacture procedures, oppressive systems, human rights, labor relations, political donations, and experimental use of animals or countries' weapons development.
Devinney et al. (2006)	*Consumer Social Responsibility (CnSR)*	The conscious and deliberate choice to make certain consumption choices based on personal and moral beliefs
Freestone and McGoldrick (2008)	*Ethical Person*	Individual who is likely to conform to accepted standards of social or professional behavior
Adams and Raisborough (2010)	*Ethical Consumption*	Act of discreet and enlightened consumer choice
Caruana and Chatzidakis (2014)	*Consumer Social Responsibility (CnSR)*	The application of instrumental, relational, and moral logics by individual, group, corporate and institutional agents seeking to influence a broad range of consumer-oriented responsibilities
Quazi et al. (2015)	*Consumer Social Responsibility (CnSR)*	The individual and collective commitments, actions and decisions that consumers consider as the right things to do in their interactions with producers, marketers and sellers of goods and services

Table 1.2
Content-schema summary

Author(s), year	Construct	Impact on society	Impact on environment	Altruism and solidarity	Ethical motivations	Sustainability	Company performance	Stakeholders
Anderson and Cunningham (1972)	*Social Responsibility*			✓				
Fisk (1973)	*Responsible consumption*					✓		
Webster (1975)	*Socially Conscious Consumer*	✓						
Antil and Bennet (1979); Antil (1984)	*Socially Responsible Consumption*	✓				✓		
Elkington and Hailes (1989)	*Green Consumer*		✓					
Vitell and Muncy (1992)	*Consumer Social Responsibilities*				✓			
Cooper-Martin and Holbrook (1993)	*Ethical Consumer Behavior*				✓			
Roberts (1995)	*Socially Responsible Consumer*	✓	✓					
Straughan and Roberts (1999)	*Ecologically Conscious Consumer Behavior (ECCB)*		✓					
Mohr et al. (2001)	*Socially Responsible Consumer Behavior (SRCB)*	✓					✓	
Harper and Makatouni (2002)	*Ethical Consumer*	✓	✓					
Hendarwan (2002)	*Green Consumerism*				✓			
Uusitalo and Oksanen (2004)	*Ethical Consumerism*	✓			✓			
De Pelsmacker et al. (2005); Shaw and Shui (2002)	*Ethically Minded Consumers*	✓	✓		✓			
Barnett et al (2005); Miller (1998)	*Ethical Consumer*			✓				
Barnett et al. (2005)	*Ethical Consumption*			✓				
Harrison, Newholm and Shaw (2005)	*Ethical Purchasing*						✓	
Devinney et al. (2006)	*Consumer Social Responsibility (CnSR)*				✓			
Fraj and Martinez (2007)	*Ethical Consumer*	✓	✓					
Freestone and McGoldrick (2008)	*Ethical Person*				✓			
Ha-Brookshire and Hodges (2009)	*Socially Responsible Consumer Behavior (SRCB)*	✓						
Adams and Raisborough (2010)	*Ethical Consumption*							
Fazal (2011)	*Consumer Social Responsibility (CnSR)*			✓				
Caruana and Chatzidakis (2014)	*Consumer Social Responsibility (CnSR)*				✓			✓
Vitell (2014)	*Consumer Social Responsibility (CnSR)*							✓
Quazi et al. (2015)	*Consumer Social Responsibility (CnSR)*				✓			✓

These definitions and their contents lead us to classify the extant literature following a content-schema (as shown in Figure 1.1) with a first section composed by those definitions related to a philanthropic perspective, a second one focusing on the impacts of purchase decisions on the consumer's social and/or environmental contexts and, finally, a third group centered in the ethical perspective.

Figure 1.1
Perspectives of Consumer Social Responsibility



1.2.1. The *philanthropic* perspective of consumption.

Anderson and Cunningham (1972) published one of the first works that addresses social responsibility, although not directly linked to consumption patterns. They refer to *social responsibility* as the "willingness of an individual to help others even when there is nothing to be gained for himself". This definition is closely related to values such as solidarity or altruism, since it considers the individual traits towards the rest of the society from a humane, philanthropic and selfless attitude. The same perspective is later used by Miller (1998) and Barnett et al. (2005) when defining *ethical consumption* as "all consumer behavior, however ordinary and routine, that is likely to be shaped by diverse values of caring for other people and concern for fairness". Barnett et al. (2005) add, in this direction, that the fact of explicitly considering a commitment to distant or absent others is an important dimension of any practice of consumption. More recently, Fazal (2011) describes *consumer social*

responsibility as a way of being critical, acting, caring for fellow human beings, living in peace with the environment, and joining hands and creating solidarity.

This first group of authors understands social and ethical consumption from a humanitarian perspective, placing the consumer as a philanthropist that seeks to help others, to care for other people or to contribute to fairness and solidarity. This positioning conceives the individual as a member of a community and enhances the positive interactions that can result from his/her relationships with others.

1.2.2. The *social* and *environmental* impacts of consumption.

When considering the impacts of consumer purchase decisions, a second group of authors make a direct allusion to the individual impacts on the social and environmental contexts. One of the first works that contributed to the consumer behavior literature from this perspective was Webster (1975), who stated that the *socially conscious consumer* is the one "who takes into account the public consequences of his or her private consumption or who attempts to use his or her purchasing power to bring about social change". Webster (1975) points out the relevance of being conscious of the outcomes of our actions, and considers consumption as a useful tool that may help societies to evolve towards desirable goals. Something similar can be found in Antil's (1984) and Antil and Bennet's (1979) works on *socially responsible consumption*, defined as "those consumer behaviors and purchase decisions which are related to environmental and resource-related problems and are motivated not only by a desire to satisfy personal needs, but also by a concern for the welfare of society in general". This perspective is deeply related to the individual's influences on societies, and makes relevant both social and environmental impacts of consumption and purchase decisions, constituting indeed one of the most crucial perspectives within the field.

Later, Roberts (1995) defined the *socially responsible consumer* as the "one who purchases products and services perceived to have a more positive (or less negative) influence on the environment or who patronizes businesses that attempt to effect related positive social change". This definition specifies the role not only of the consumer, but also of the companies that he supports. Fraj and Martinez (2007) also refer to the *ethical consumer* from the perspective of this consciousness of consequences, indicating that he

will be “the one who makes rational use of available information about free trade / corrective solutions to consider the consequences of their purchase practices”.

Harper and Makatouni (2002) simplify this idea, stating that the *ethical consumer* is “the one who buys products which are not harmful to the environment and society”. More specifically, Shaw and Shui (2002) and De Pelsmacker et al. (2005) refer to the *ethically minded consumers* as “those who feel a responsibility towards the environment and/or to society, and seek to express their values through ethical consumption and purchasing (or boycotting) behavior”.

These definitions are based on the assumption that consumers’ decisions and actions have an impact on their social and natural environments. Additionally to these impacts, they also support the idea that individuals will have both a power to change the world and a responsibility associated to that power. However, constructs and definitions focus their meanings either on the social or on the environmental consequences of consumers’ decisions.

Among the authors that focus specifically on the *social* perspective of consumption, Mohr et al. (2001) refer to the *socially responsible consumer behavior* as the consumer “basing his or her acquisition, usage, and disposition of products on a desire to minimize or eliminate any harmful effects and maximize the long-run beneficial impact on society”. Three years later, Usitalo and Oksanen (2004) stated that *ethical consumerism* exists when “the consumer considers not only individual but also social goals, ideals and ideologies”. Additionally, Ha-Brookshire and Hodges (2009) widen Mohr et al.’s (2001) definition, indicating that *socially responsible consumer behavior* is “the behavior of a consumer basing decisions on a desire to minimize or eliminate any harmful effects and to maximize any beneficial impacts on society in one or more consumption steps of the consumption process”, specifying that this consumption process “includes product information search, acquisition, usage, storage, disposal, and post-disposal evaluation”.

Recently, Vitell (2014) used one of the simplest conceptions on the field, defining *consumer social responsibility* as “the responsibility to stakeholders and to society”. For the first time, the term stakeholders is considered within the individual domain of action, taking into account the consumer’s relationship and trait towards not only the society in general, but also towards stakeholders of the companies he consume products from.

The authors that focus specifically on the *social* perspective of consumption perceive social, responsible and ethical consumption from the perspective of the consumers' impacts on societies, excluding the environmental sphere of action. They consider consumers' responsibilities as the way that their impacts contribute to the evolution of the social structures where they belong, maximizing the benefits and minimizing any harm derived from their individual performance.

Secondly, among those authors that refer to environmental issues, Elkington and Hailes (1989) define the *green consumer* as "the one who avoids products that might endanger the health of the consumer or others; cause significant damage to the environment during manufacture, use or disposal; consume a disproportionate amount of energy; cause unnecessary waste; use material derived from threatened species or environments; involve unnecessary use or cruelty to animals (or) adversely affect other countries". This is not a real definition, but rather enumerates explicit actions that a person can accomplish to be responsible towards the environment. From a more simplistic perspective, Straughan and Roberts (1999) refer to the *ecologically conscious consumer behavior* as "the extent to which individual respondents purchase goods and services believed to have a more positive (or less negative) impact on the environment".

Not directly linked to the impacts of consumption, but specifically to green issues and sustainability matters, Fisk (1973) refers to *responsible consumption,* as everything related to the environment, natural resources or pollution, defined as "the rational and efficient use of resources with respect to the global human population". This definition is in line with that of *sustainable development* given by the Brundtland Commission (1987), almost two decades later, where the terms *environment* and *development* were taken together for the first time. In its paper *Our Common Future*, sustainable development is defined as "the kind of development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs". Therefore, Fisk (1973) considers responsible consumption from the perspective of one's contribution to sustainability.

This perspective is exclusively focused on the impacts of consumption on the maintenance of a sustainable system, considering the preservation of the environment as its fundamental pillar.

1.2.3. The *ethical* perspective of consumption.

In addition to all the aforementioned constructs and their associated definitions, the most common characteristic throughout the literature of responsible consumption is the focus and attention on the ethical and moral reasons to perform a particular behavior. Vitell and Muncy (1992) defined *consumer social responsibilities* as "the moral principles and standard that guide the behaviors of individuals as they obtain, use, and dispose of goods and services". One year later, Cooper-Martin and Holbrook (1993) established that *ethical consumer behavior* refers to the "decision-making, purchases and other consumption experiences that are affected by the consumer's ethical concerns". More recently, Hendarwan (2002) indicated that *green consumerism* is the one that "involves beliefs and values aimed at supporting a greater good that motivates consumers' purchases".

The impact of social goals, ideals and ideologies, that in the end conform the ethical schema under which societies behave and operate, is also considered by Usitalo and Oksanen (2004) in their conception of *ethical consumerism*, just as Freestone and McGoldrick's (2008) original argument sustains. Indeed, the latter authors define the *ethical person* as an "individual who is likely to conform to accepted standards of social or professional behavior".

The influence of accepted standards of behavior, but considered from a particular or individual point of view, constitutes the base of Devinney et al.'s (2006) definition of *consumer social responsibility:* "the conscious and deliberate choice to make certain consumption choices based on personal and moral beliefs". De Pelsmacker et al. (2005) and Shaw and Shui (2002) also refer to the *ethically minded consumers* as those that seek to express their values through ethical consumption and purchasing (or boycotting) behavior. Additionally, Caruana and Chatzidakis (2014) make reference to the application of moral logics by individuals to influence consumer responsibilities; and Quazi et al. (2015) consider the choice of "the right things to do" towards the individual's stakeholders as a key characteristic of *consumer social responsibility*.

Although they do not directly mention ethical or moral values, Adams and Raisborough (2010) defined *ethical consumption* as an "act of discreet and enlightened consumer choice". This definition implies that the consumer will be well-informed,

educated and aware of the impacts of her purchasing choices and, therefore, considers consumption as an act that will be in accordance to her good sense and judgment.

Lastly, Harrison et al. (2005) considered *ethical purchasing* as a performance that embraces "everything from ethical investment (the ethical purchasing of stocks and shares) to the buying of fair trade products, and from consumer boycotts to corporate environmental purchasing policies". This definition is directly linked to the ethical performance of companies, specifying particular elements of concern, such as the product's precedence, the manufacture procedures, oppressive systems, human rights, labor relations, political donations, and experimental use of animals or countries' weapons development. In this case, ethical purchasing stands as an individual reaction to organizational performance.

This third perspective is composed by authors that conceive social, responsible, ethical and even green consumption as the one that is influenced by the consumer's moral principles and standards, ethical concerns, beliefs and values. This assumption focuses on the congruence of the personal actions with respect to their individual and social ethical standards.

1.3. Corporate Social Responsibility

Although Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) rises in the scientific literature as a discipline framed within the Management field and addresses different issues related to the general spheres of the company, its enthusiasm has also been echoed in the marketing literature (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004). During the last decades this concept has been analyzed from the perspective of consumers' responses to CSR policies (Brown and Dacin, 1997; Sen and Bhattacharya, 2001), the outcomes derived from the application of social actions (Maignan et al., 1999), the strategies to communicate the activities related to CSR (Drumwright, 1996; Vanhamme, 2004) and the influence and effectiveness on consumers of pro-social positioning strategies (Osterhus, 1997). Additionally, research has also analyzed other related concepts such as cause related marketing (Varadarajan and Menon, 1997) and the protection of the environment (Banerjee et al., 1995; Manrai et al., 1997).

References to a concern for social responsibility have a long and varied history, appearing during the 130s and the 1940s (Carroll, 1999) (Table 3). They include 'The Functions of the Executive of Chester Barnard' (1938), 'Social Control of Business' by J. M. Clark (1939), and 'Measurement of the Social Performance of Business' written by Theodore Kreps (1940). However, the first author that refers to the concept of CSR more specifically as we know and understand it today is Bowen (1953), who has been considered in the literature as the "Father of Corporate Social Responsibility" (Carroll, 1999). He refers to the "obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society".

Later, CSR was studied by various authors such as Davis (1960), Frederick (1960), Eells and Walton (1961), Friedman (1962) or Mcguire (1963), who stated that social responsibility implies that an organization has not only economic and legal duties, but also certain responsibilities towards the society that go beyond the first and traditional ones. Backman (1975) supported this statement, declaring that CSR refers to the goals and motives that go beyond the economic performance of enterprises.

It is in this decade of the 70s when the concept of CSR becomes an organization's voluntary performance (Manne and Wallich, 1972). This new perspective, which emphasizes motivations above actions, understands CSR as a system of social responsiveness (Ackerman and Bauer, 1976). Since this decade, CSR places its orientation towards the stakeholders' satisfaction.

Carroll (1979) developed one of the most important attempts to classify different stages or dimensions of the social responsibility performance, becoming one of the most influential authors of this research area. He proposed a conceptual model in which three different aspects or corporate social performance should be articulated and interrelated: (i) a basic definition of social responsibility, (ii) an enumeration of issues for which a social responsibility exists, and (iii) a specification of the philosophy of response (responsiveness). For Carroll, social responsibility of businesses "encompasses the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary expectations that society has of organizations at a given point of time". These four dimensions build the map of responsibilities that a company should undertake to be considered a responsible organization, being any of its responsibilities or actions motivated by one of them.

The first dimension or component of social responsibility is the *economic* one, based on the natural role of businesses in society.

> "Before anything else, the business institution is the basic economic unit in our society. As such it has a responsibility to produce goods and services that society wants and to sell them at a profit. All other business roles are predicated on this fundamental assumption" (Carroll, 1979:500).

This is the most important responsibility for the author, and requires the company to be efficient providing goods and services, implying the need to produce or to offer services with high quality, to develop innovations in its product and procedures, to achieve satisfactory levels of productivity within its human resources or to be able to respond adequately to its consumers' complaints, among others.

This economic function and performance is expected to be fulfilled within the *legal* framework. This means that enterprises should obey the law, the "basic rules of the game" in which they are expected to operate. Then, the *legal* dimension represents the second part of the social responsibilities that businesses must embody.

The *ethical* responsibilities are composed by practices that go beyond the law, but nevertheless are expected by society. They encompass the way of behaving and the norms that societies expect companies to follow behaviors and activities that go beyond what is mandated by law, codes of conduct considered morally correct. Some examples could be the application of a code of ethical business conducts for employees, to facilitate or provide the maximum possible information about the product, the avoidance of dangerous or injurious substances, and the transparency of the management and administration of corporate finances.

Finally, the fourth group is called *discretionary* (or philanthropic) responsibilities. These are voluntary and not expected as the ethical ones, and "left to individual managers' and corporations' judgment and choice". They are "guided by businesses' desire to engage in social roles not mandated or required by law and not expected of businesses in an ethical sense, but which are increasingly strategic". Driven by social norms, they are constituted by activities which aim is helping society and thus include voluntary, altruist or philanthropic activities of social action, guided by a desire of belonging to better societies. Some examples could be donations to projects of

development in third-world countries, contributions to or partnerships with NGOs, the sponsorship of social, sporting or cultural events, or the support for the disadvantaged.

However, it has always been thought that the economic component refers to what the company does for itself, while the other three responsibilities define what the company does for others. Thus, the economic responsibility would not be part of the "social" components of responsibility. Nevertheless, Carroll (1999) defends the idea that what companies do in this sense is also good for society, since it consists in providing good and services, something that can be done better or worse, with greater or lesser efficiency, quality, security, etc.

Carroll's contribution has been an important basis for later research and its definition still has validity, being the reference for many other authors in the literature (Wartick and Cochran, 1985; Aupperle et al., 1985; Carroll, 1999; Maignan et al., 1999). For example, regarding the social responsibilities, responsiveness and issues included in Carroll's (1979) model, Wartick and Cochran (1985) introduced them into a framework of principles, processes and policies. These authors proposed an extended model in which "social responsibilities of companies should be thought of as *principles*, social responsiveness should be thought of as *processes* and the social issues management as *policies*".

In addition, Aupperle, Carroll and Hatfield (1985) operationalized the four-part definition of CSR of Carroll's (1979) model and separated the economic component from the legal, ethical and discretionary. They did so because the economic dimension was thought to be the main purpose of the company ("concern for economic performance") while the other three components represented the "concern for society".

1.4. Personal Social Responsibility. Conceptual delimitation

The translation from consumer to personal social responsibilities needs to consider further spheres of individual action beyond the consumption. The specification of the domain of PSR has been addressed through the results of a qualitative research,

Table 1.3.
CSR's conceptual background

Author(s), year	Definition
Bowen (1953)	Obligations of businessmen to pursue those policies, to make those decisions, or to follow those lines of action which are desirable in terms of the objectives and values of our society
Davis (1960)	Social responsibilities of businessmen need to be commensurate with their social power
Frederick (1960)	Public posture toward society's economic and human resources and a willingness to see that those resources are used for broad social ends and not simply for the narrowly circumscribed interests of private persons and firms
McGuire (1963)	A corporation has not only economic and legal obligations, but also certain responsibilities to society which extend beyond these obligations. Corporations must take an interest in politics, in the welfare of the community, in education, in the 'happiness' of its employees and, in fact, in the whole social world. Therefore, business must act 'justly' as a proper citizen should.
Davis and Blomstrom (1966)	A person's obligation to consider the effects of his decisions and actions on the whole social system. Businessmen apply *it* when they consider the needs and interests of other who may be affected by business actions. In so doing, they look beyond their firm's narrow economic and technical interest
Walton (1967)	Recognizing the intimacy of the relationships between the corporation and society and realizing tht such relationships must be kept in mind by top managers as the corporation and the related groups pursue their respective goals
Johnson (1971)	Four propositions of SR: (i) A socially responsible firm is the one whose managerial staff balances a multiplicity of interest. Instead of striving only for larger profits for its stockholders, a responsible enterprise also takes into account employees, suppliers, dealers, local communities and the nation; (ii) business carry out social programs to add profits to their organization; (iii) the prime motivation of the business is utility maximization, and the enterprise seeks multiple goals rather than only profit maximization; (iv) "lexicographic view": the goals of an enterprise, like those of the consumer, are ranked in order of importance and that targets are assessed for each goal. These target levels are shaped by a variety of factors, but the most important are the firm's past experience with these goals and the past performance of similar business enterprises; individuals and organizations generally want to do at least as well as others in similar circumstances.
Steiner (1971)	Attitude of the way a manager approaches his decision-making task, rather than a great shift in the economics of decision-making. It is a philosophy that looks at the social interest and the enlightened self-interest of business over the long run as compared with the old, narrow, unrestrained shor-run self-interest. Businesses have the social responsibilities to help society achieve its basic goals, and the larger a company becomes, the greater are these responsibilities.
Manne and Wallich (1972)	A condition in which the corporation is at least in some measure a free agent. To the extent that any of the foregoing social objectives are imposed on the corporation by law, the corporation exercises no responsibility when it implements them.
Davis (1973)	Firm's consideration of, and response to, issues beyond the narrow economic, technical and legal requirements of the firm. It begins where the law ends.
Eilbert and Parket (1973)	The commitment of a business to an active role in the solution of broad social problems (e.g. racial discrimination, pollution, transportation or urban decay). They refer to a 'good neighbourliness', which implies two phases: (i) not doing things that spoil the neighborhood, and (ii) voluntary assumption of the obligation to help solve neighborhood problems.
Votaw (1973)	It means something but not always the same thing, to everybody: legal responsibility or liability, socially responsible behavior in an ethical sense, charitable contribution, socially conscious, synonym for 'legitimacy', fiduciary duty imposing higher standards of behavior on businessmen than on citizens at large.
Eells and Walton (1974)	Concern with the needs and goals of society that goes beyond the merely economic. Insofar as the business system as it exists today can only survive in an effectively functioning free society, the CSR movement represents a broad concern with business's role in supporting and improving that social order.
Backman (1975)	Objectives or motives that should be given weight by business in addition to those dealing with economic performance (e.g. employment of minority groups, reduction in pollution, greater participation in programs to improve the community, improved medical care…).
Sethi (1975)	Three-stages model, being (i) *social obligation* the corporate behavior in response to market forces or legal constraints (economic and legal); (ii) *social responsibility* that implies bringing corporate behavior up to a level where it is congruent with the prevailing social norms, values and expectation of performance; and (iii) *social responsiveness* as the adaptation of corporate behavior to social needs.
Post and Preston (1975)	Referred more to a 'public responsibility' as a vague and highly generalized sense of social concern that appears to underlie a wide variety of ad hoc managerial policies and practices.
Fitch (1976)	The serious attempt to solve social problems caused wholly or in part by the corporation
Carroll (1979)	It encompasses the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary expectations that society has of organizations at a given point in time
Jones (1980)	The notion that the corporations have an obligation to constituent groups in society other than stockholders and beyond that prescribed by law or union contract, indicating that a stake may go beyond mere ownership
Carroll (1983)	It involves the conduct of a business so that it is economically profitable, law abiding, ethical and socially supportive. Being socially responsible means that profitability and obedience to the law are foremost conditions to discussing the firm's ethics and the extent to which it supports the society in which it exists with contributions of money, time and talent. Thus, *it* is composed of four parts: economic, legal, ethical and voluntary or philanthropic

Table 1.3. (cont)
CSR's conceptual background

Author(s), year	Definition
Murray and Montanari (1986)	To accomplish and be perceived to accomplish the desired ends of society in terms of moral, economic, legal, ethical and discretionary expectations
Epstein (1987)	To achieve outcomes from organizational decisions concerning specific issues or problems which (by some normative standard) have beneficial rather than adverse effects on pertinent corporate stakeholders
Reder (1994)	*It* refers to both the way a company conducts its internal operations, including the way it treats its work force, and its impact on the world around it
Hopkins (1998)	*It* is concerned with treating the stakeholders of the firm ethically or in a socially responsible manner. Stakeholders exist both within a firm and outside. Consequently, behaving socially responsibly will increase the human development of stakeholders both within and outside the corporation
Kilcullen and Kooistra (1999)	The degree of moral obligation that may be ascribed to corporations beyond simple obedience to the laws of the state
World Business Council for Sustainable Development (1999)	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
Khoury, Rostami and Turnbull (1999)	The overall relationship of the corporation with all of its stakeholders. These include customers, employees, communities, owners/investors, government, suppliers and competitors. *Its* elements include investment in community outreach, employee relations, creation and maintenance of employment, environmental stewardship and financial performance
Woodward-Clyde (1999)	'Contract' between society and business, wherein a community grants a company a license to operate and, in return, the matter meets certain obligations and behaves in an acceptable manner
World Business Council for Sustainable Development (2000)	The continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as the local community and society at large
Foran (2001)	The set of practices and behaviors that firms adopt towards their labor force, towards the environment in which their operations are embedded, towards authority and towards civil society
Van Marrewijk (2001)	To integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interactions with their stakeholders, demonstrating openly their triple P performances
McWillians and Siegel (2000)	Actions that appear to further some social good, beyond the interests of the firm and that which is required by law
Van der Wiele et al. (2001)	The obligation of the firm to use its resources in ways to benefit society, through a committed participation as a member of society, taking into account the society at large, and improving welfare of society at large independently of direct gains of the company
Commission of the European Communities (2002)	*It* is about companies having responsibilities and taking actions beyond their legal obligations and economic/business aims. These wider responsibilities cover a range of areas but are frequently summed up as social and environmental-where social means society broadly defined, rather than simply social policy issues. This can be summed up as the triple bottom line approach: i.e. economic, social and environmental
Hopkins (2003)	Treating the stakeholders of the firm ethically or in a responsible manner, a manner deemed acceptable in civilized societies. *Its* aim is to create higher and higher standards of living, while preserving the profitability of the corporation, for peoples both within and outside the corporation
Antal and Sobczak (2007)	*It* includes cultural and socioeconomic concepts
Dahlsrud (2008)	*It* includes environmental, social, economic, stakeholder and voluntariness
Matten and Moon (2008)	*It* reflects social imperatives and social consequences of business success. These consist of articulated and communicated policies and practices of corporations that reflect business responsibility for societal good deeds
Gjolberg (2009)	*It* cannot be separated from contextual factors
Aguinis (2011)	Context-specific organisational actions and policies that take into account stakeholders' expectations and the triple bottom line of economic, social, and environmental performance"
Vitell (2014)	A CSR-focused business is best defined as one that proactively offers social benefits or public service, and voluntarily minimizes practices that harm society, regardless of any legal requirements.
Steenkamp (2017)	Corporate social responsibility (CSR) refers to voluntary actions—that is, actions not required by law—that attempt to further some social good, counter some social ill, or address the externalities of their operating in the world

developed through a focus group, and the review of the extant literature on consumer social responsibilities –ethical, philanthropic, environmental and social perspectives of consumption- and corporate social responsibilities –economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic spheres of organizational action (Carroll, 1979)-, finding out that there seems to be a gap between them that can be fulfilled by the new construct.

The focus group was implemented in May of 2015 with eight citizens of different socio-demographic characteristics. It lasted one hour and a half and the concept of PSR and its possible dimensions were introduced and discussed by the group.

Results of the literature review indicate that some aspects of individual actions are not considered in previous works on consumer responsible behavior, but nevertheless are identified as crucial by the researchers and the citizens interviewed. Specifically, literature on responsible consumption behavior does not make direct allusion to the *economic* responsibilities of the individual –related to economic, environmental and social impacts of the way one spends his/her money- or the wide range of responsibilities given by a certain society that are delimited by law –that is, *legal* responsibilities-, such as happens when we consider the corporate social responsibilities (see Figure 1.2). Indeed, adding them as individual's responsibilities towards society appears to have a core sense, given the nature of the crisis that we have been going through for the last years.

Additionally, not all of the nomenclatures used through the different constructs are in direct relation with their meanings and descriptions –that is, *green* consumption related to *environmental* issues or *ethical* consumption related to *moral* or *ethical* matters-, what makes essential to align and focus a single construct that properly addresses its nomological content.

Social responsibilities of organizations have been studied during the last decades, constituting a reference for the application of the dimensions that make an organization responsible to the individual sphere. Rest (1986) presented a theory of individual ethical decision-making that can easily be generalized to organizational settings. This implies the perception of organizations as individuals in the ethical sphere and, therefore, allows the inclusion of organizational considerations to the personal trait. Accordingly, having delimited and accepted the concept of CSR, it would be interesting to test whether the dimensions attached to the organizational concept could be translated

to individuals. Indeed, some authors have indicated that what is interesting about the rise of CSR, and the discussions around the nature of civil society, is the extent to which it skirts almost completely the role played by the everyday individual as a worker, consumer, or simply interested or uninterested bystander (Devinney et al, 2006). In addition, results of the focus group showed that citizens identify these dimensions as crucial to consider a citizen responsible towards societies.

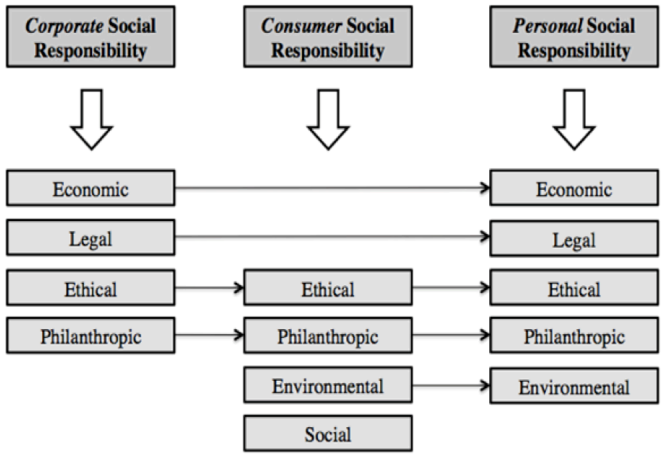
This way, PSR has been delimited and defined based on past research of related constructs, and distinctively dimensioned through the inclusion of the different aspects that both CnSR and CSR have embraced. Among them, ethical and philanthropic spheres of action have been incorporated in responsible behaviors of individuals (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Vitell and Muncy, 1992; Cooper-Martin y Holbrook, 1993; Miller, 1998; Hendarwan, 2002; Barnett et al, 2005; De Pelsmacker et al., 2005; Shaw and Shui, 2002; Harrison, Newholm and Shaw, 2005; Devinney et al, 2006; Freestone and McGoldrick, 2008; Adams and Raisborough, 2010; Fazal, 2011; Caruana and Chatzidakis, 2014; Quazi et al, 2015) and companies (Carroll, 1979). The environmental perspective of behavior, characteristic of responsible consumption behavior (Fisk; 1973; Webster, 1975; Antil and Bennet, 1979; Antil, 1984; Elkington and Hailes, 1989; Roberts, 1995; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Harper and Makatouni, 2002; Shaw and Shui, 2002; De Pelsmacker et al., 2005; Fraj and Martinez, 2007), has been included because of its presence in the extant literature and its importance in daily life and consumption. Two additional aspects of responsible behavior were included, which were part of organizational behavior (Carroll, 1979) although not specifically addressed from an individual perspective. These are the legal and economic responsibilities, that were decided to be incorporated to PSR for two reasons: first, the results of the qualitative research, in which interviewees agreed to identify these spheres of action as fundamental pillars for a person to be considered socially responsible; and, second, because they were part of the CSR's most used dimensionality (Carroll, 1979; Carroll, 1999). As Participant 6 of the focus group stated:

> *"For me, to be responsible means that I do things well towards society. I mean, that I don't harm it. And not harming the society means that I contribute in the way I'm expected to contribute and that I don't participate in generalized 'bad' behaviors. For example, I'm not a corrupt because I don't avoid my legal obligations, I pay decent salaries to my employees, I'm productive at work and I don't have debts with banks.*

Apart from that, I could go walking to work or I could buy ecological food, but for me that would be an 'extra'."

Therefore, our definition of Personal Social Responsibility refers to "*the individual orientation towards minimizing the negative impact and maximizing the positive impact on his/her social, environmental and economic environments in the long run through economic, legal, ethical, philanthropic and environmental actions"*.

Figure 1.2
Corporate, Consumer and Personal Social Responsibility



1.4.1. *Economic* responsibilities

In the organizational context, the *economic responsibilities* are considered by Carroll (1979) as "the first and foremost social responsibilities of business in nature". As the author states, "before anything else, the business institution is the basic economic unit in our society. As such it has a responsibility to produce goods and services that society wants and to sell them at a profit. All other business roles are predicated on this fundamental assumption" (Carroll, 1979:500). Translated to the individual context, they could embody different actions like not having debts, being productive at work and being able to organize and afford the family economic structure adapting it to the current circumstances. As Participant 2 of the focus group stated:

"I think that I am economically responsible. At home I manage to hobble along every month. We are five and I don't work at the moment, so we only have my husband incomes. We have organized everything in detail to make ends meet. I can't have luxuries but I live well… Well, I'd like to eat prawns more often but I also like chicken (she laughs)*".*

These responsibilities refer to the extent to which people purchase or consume only what they need. This means not only purchasing what they need or what they will use later (in a real and specific context an irresponsible action in this sense would be having to throw away food because it has past its use-by date), but also not spending more than what they earn. The following quote from Participant 4 is illustrative of the relevance of this dimension of PSR:

"In the last years, due to the economic crisis, we have listened several times that we, as a society, have been living beyond our means… and I personally think that this is true. We have bought things that we didn't need or even things that we couldn't pay. Now we all have huge debts. This wouldn't have happened if we'd been economically responsible".

This *economic* dimension is directly related to what previous authors have identified as *reducing* (Francois-Lecompte and Roberts, 2006), *limiting* (D'Astous and Legendre, 2009), *moderating* (Yan and She, 2011) and *decreasing* (Ocampo et al., 2014) consumption, or *deconsumption* behavior (Durif et al. (2011).

1.4.2. Legal responsibilities

Second, the *legal* responsibilities are composed by those ground rules under which people are expected to operate, just as Carroll points out for enterprises:

"Just as society has sanctioned the economic system by permitting business to assume the productive role, as a partial fulfillment of the "social contract", it has also laid down the ground rules –the laws and regulations- under which business are expected to

operate. Society expects business to fulfill its economic mission within the framework of legal requirements.*"* (Carroll, 1979:500).

For Participant 1 in the focus group, "law is what organizes and regulates societies, in the end is what puts us together, and being responsible is behaving in a way that is accepted by everyone. And the only thing that can be accepted by everyone is law". Participant 3 also stated:

"Being a responsible person towards society, that is, being a responsible citizen, means to comply with the basic and common social rules"

More specifically, Participant 6 added that "the legal responsibilities should focus on two core ideas: complying with the law and paying the taxes. This means not defrauding or cheating the State". These two first responsibilities, the economic and legal ones, have been identified and adapted from Corporate to Personal Social Responsibility (Carroll, 1979).

1.4.3. Ethical responsibilities

The influence of certain moral values or ethical beliefs on the consumer's decisions has been widely taken into account in previous literature of consumer behavior (Vitell and Muncy, 1992; Cooper-Martin and Holbrook, 1993; Hendarwan, 2002; Uusitalo and Oksanen, 2004; De Pelsmaker et al, 2005; Shaw and Shui, 2002; Devinney et al, 2006; Freestone and McGoldrick, 2008; Caruana and Chatzidakis, 2014; Quazi et al, 2015)**.** In the context of PSR, the *ethical* responsibilities represent the way ethics is included in a person and his/her family's life. For Participant 8,

"Personal Social Responsibility requires the existence of coherence between what I expect from others, and what I actually do. To be responsible towards society a person has to be morally coherent".

In addition, she argued that education is the most important ethical responsibility:

> *"I think that education is one of the most important issues that people can do to improve our society. Being responsible also means to educate and teach the incoming citizens how to live and how to do things and, of course, to act as a constant example of cohabitation, honesty and respect".*

Carroll (1979) defined these responsibilities for companies as those "societal defined expectations of business behavior that are not part of formal low but nevertheless are expected of business by society's members". As the author describes these responsibilities:

> *"*Although the first two categories embody ethical norms, there are additional behaviors and activities that are not necessarily codified into law but nevertheless are expected of business by society's members. Ethical responsibilities are ill defined and consequently are among the most difficult for business to deal with. In recent years, however, ethical responsibilities have clearly been stressed –though debate continues as to what is and is not ethical. Suffice it to say that society has expectations of business over and above legal requirements*"* (Carroll, 1979:500).

In the case of PSR, ethical responsibilities also include those additional behaviors and activities that go beyond strict legality and pertain to actions determined as "fair" and "moral" (Accar et al, 2001).

1.4.4. Philanthropic responsibilities

Philanthropic responsibilities, also known as *discretionary* responsibilities, are composed by those individual actions performed to help others, that is, the extent to which people dedicate time, effort or money to helping others (i.e., collaborating with NGOs, donations or support to social activities). The inclusion of this dimension is consistent with previous definitions of related constructs in the context of consumer

behavior (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Barnett et al, 2005; Miller, 1998; Fazal, 2011) and the content and some of the conclusions of the focus group, in which most of the participants agreed to include as one of the major personal responsibilities towards society all the voluntary activities carried out to helping others. As Participant 7 mentioned:

> *"Being responsible towards society means that a person must do an exercise to be aware of the society's needs. It doesn't mean that you have to solve all the problems of your community, but as part of it, it is responsible trying to help in those issues that are in your hands. This might be being a volunteer in an NGO, respecting your neighbor or sorting the trash for recycling".*

Carroll (1979) defined this dimension for businesses as those activities that comprise "purely voluntary actions, guided by a desire to engage in social roles not mandated, not required by law, and not even generally expected of citizens in an ethical sense". The basis of this kind of responsibilities is that if an individual does not participate in them is not considered unethical per se (Carroll, 1979:500), but he will be considered more responsible if he is engaged in these activities. As the author asserts for businesses, "they are left to individual judgment and choice", and "perhaps it is inaccurate to call these expectations responsibilities because they are at business's discretion; however, societal expectations do exist for businesses to assume social roles over and above those described so far" (Carroll, 1979:500).

1.4.5. Environmental responsibilities

The *environmental* responsibilities, which are specifically addressed in the literature of consumer behavior (Elkington and Hailes, 1989; Roberts, 1995; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Harper and Makatouni, 2002; De Pelsmacker et al, 2005; Shaw and Shui, 2002; Fraj and Martinez, 2007), are also a key factor in corporate performance –transversally considered in all its dimensions-. They include those personal actions driven by a desire to have a more positive (or less negative) impact on the environment

(Roberts, 1996; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Freestone and McGoldrick, 2008). For Participant 5, PSR in general includes:

> *"The way my actions affect the environment or my local surroundings"*

In the focus group, Participant 4 stated, addressing these responsibilities, that:

> *"Having environmental responsibilities means that a person must take into account the way companies are concerned and act for the environment. For example, the way they present and sell their products. People should choose those products that use fewer plastics, carton or packages in general".*

These responsibilities have placed as the core issues of analysis when defining the ethical consumer from the 70's (Anderson et al, 1974; Kinnear et al, 1974; Webster, 1975; Tucker et al, 1981; Antil, 1984; Singh, 2009; Roberts, 1996; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Mohr and Webb, 2005; Shanka and Goapalan, 2005; Ismail et al, 2006; Lee, 2008; Webb et al, 2008; Durif et al, 2011; Yan and She, 2011; Ocampo et al, 2014; Quazi et al, 2015), and include a wide range of green issues like environmental concerns, attitudes and knowledge, animal protection, energy conservation, purchase's impacts on the environment, recycling behavior or *deconsumption*, among others.

Examples of this behavior could be using energy-efficient light bulbs, sharing the car to go to work or using a bicycle, the public transport or just walking; buying products with low impact on the environments or ecological products and being careful in the use of resources like water or energy.

In conclusion, PSR is presented as a new construct that widens the previous conceptualization of CnSR, and includes further issues that go beyond those actions and behaviors directly related to consumption patterns. This new construct and its dimensionality are classified on the basis of CSR performances adapted to the individual behavior, applying on theory and practice what has been developed in social responsibility of organizations to the citizen.

CHAPTER TWO

CHAPTER TWO

Personal Social Responsibility (PSR): dimensionality and development of a new scale

Along the second chapter we develop, delimit and dimension the construct PSR. We present a conceptual framework, including a review and analysis of the dimensionality of the construct. The conceptual framework, that offers propositions regarding the key factors of PSR, is articulated within the first study of the scale development, where we test the first steps of the model. PSR's dimensionality is delimited and concludes on a five dimensions model that includes the *economic*, *legal*, *ethical*, *philanthropic* and *environmental* behaviors as the dimensions of PSR.

2.1. Introduction

Past research has addressed consumer behavior upon different perspectives such as ethical (Miller, 1998; Cooper-Martin and Holbrook, 1993; Harper and Makatouni, 2002; Uusitalo and Oksanen, 2004; Barnett et al., 2005; Fraj and Martinez, 2007; Adams and Raisborough, 2010), responsible (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Fisk, 1973; Antil, 1984; Antil and Bennet, 1979, Roberts, 1995; Mohr et al., 2001; Ha-Brookshire and Hodges, 2009; Vitell and Muncy, 1992; Devinney et al., 2006; Fazal, 2011; Caruana and Chatzidakis, 2014; Vitell, 2015; Quazi et al., 2015), conscious (Webster, 1975), sustainable or green (Elkington and Hailes, 1989; Hendarwan, 2002), developing some of these investigations measures of socially responsible consumption. Indeed, this concept has been analyzed within different research fields like psychology, management, sociology, philosophy, marketing or economics, sometimes transcending the consumer sphere and being analyzed from new perspectives, such as business ethics, corporate social responsibility or sustainable development (Newholm and Shaw, 2007).

A particularly interesting new line of research in consumer ethics has emerged related to who is or what implies being a socially responsible consumer (Ocampo et al., 2014). Yet, no previous research is an up-to-date measure of consumer behaviors in response to a full range of social issues (Webb et al., 2008). Earlier research has primarily focused on environmental or philanthropic issues, ignoring other important dimensions surrounding personal responsible behaviors such as the respect to the legality or the individual economic sustainability. Although green or environmental behaviors were placed as the core issues of analysis when defining the ethical consumer from the 70's (Anderson et al, 1974; Kinnear et al, 1974; Webster, 1975; Tucker et al, 1981; Antil, 1984; Singh, 2009; Roberts, 1996; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Mohr and

Webb, 2005; Shanka and Goapalan, 2005; Ismail et al, 2006; Lee, 2008; Webb et al, 2008; Durif et al, 2011; Yan and She, 2011; Ocampo et al, 2014; Quazi et al, 2015), social concerns have evolved during the last decades, indicating that there might be other personal components and characteristics that can have an influence on the advancement of responsible societies.

Since the economic system is heavily dependent on the social and environmental systems, other elements that interact with consumption must be seriously considered because they significantly affect economic development (Fisk, 1973:24). These other elements should represent different perspectives concerning everyday decisions and actions, within a very thin line that may no longer separate citizen and consumer performance with respect to the social and environmental sustainable development. Regular actions like paying the taxes, avoiding counterfeit consumer goods, or not taking out a loan that one cannot afford are some examples of legal and economic individual behaviors that have an effect on the society and that have neither been considered nor measured in past research. These circumstances, in which the societal, political, environmental and economic forces are in continuous interaction, allows us to propose a new construct concerning the individual or the personal responsibilities of citizen, going beyond what previous literature on consumer responsibilities has analyzed. Examples of actions that have been afforded before include recycling behavior, helping the community or buying to local or national brands, among others. Consequently, *Personal Social Responsibility* stands as a new concept that places a mayor emphasis on other issues not considered in previous literature of consumer behavior, and goes far beyond what has been previously researched.

The main purpose of this chapter is to develop and validate a measure of Personal Social Responsibility (PSR), focusing on its delimitation and dimensionality. Such effort is particularly relevant since marketers must understand the characteristics of those consumers most likely to respond to appeals to their social consciousness (Webster, 1975), and how these consumers' behaviors evolve. Considering personal behaviors from a more global perspective will help to a better comprehension of societies and to a deepening analysis of consumer concerns and duties. In addition, taking into account Corporate Social Responsibility as a major basis of analysis when developing and delimiting the construct's domain and dimensionality will contribute to enhance the company-consumer identification in the social responsibility field.

Overall, this study contributes to the growing research on responsible consumption and its relationship with Corporate Social Responsibility, mainly through the translation the principal issues that are considered for organizations' performance to the personal behavior of the individuals from a responsible or an ethical perspective. We also provide empirical validation of a five dimensions model that contributes to the construction of a new scale of PSR. Finally, this study helps to set the basis for the design of a complete model that incorporates antecedents and consequences of PSR that will be exposed in chapters 3 and 4.

In the following sections, we present a conceptual framework of PSR. We draw on extant research in marketing and consumer behavior to elaborate on its nature. We then articulate our conceptual framework that offers propositions regarding the key factors of PSR. Next, we present an empirical study to delimit PSR's dimensionality and, finally, we conclude with a discussion of the theoretical and managerial implications of our findings.

2.2. Dimensionality of Personal Social Responsibility

According to the specification of the dimensionality of constructs related to PSR, all of the investigations developed from the beginning of the 70s to the early 90s that centered on *green* behavior found the scales to be one-dimensional. Results of this scales, which focus mainly on environmental attitudes, knowledge and concerns of consumers in the United States, can be found in Kassarjian (1971), McEvoy (1972), Tognacci et al. (1972), Kinnear and Taylor (1973), Hounshell and Liggett (1973), Kinnear et al. (1974), Arbuthnot (1977), Leftridge (1977), Buttel and Flinn (1978), Van Liere and Dunlap (1981), Vining and Ebreo (1990) and Roper Organization (1992).

At the same time, other scales were developed in order to measure consumer social responsibility (see Table 2.1 for further details). In the decades of the 50s and 60s, studies on the field tried to profile the sociodemographic characteristics and the personality of the socially responsible person. The first attempt –and one of the most influential in the literature of responsible consumption- to measure it was accomplished by Berkowitz and Lutterman (1968), who developed the one-dimensional *Social Responsibility Scale* (SRS) to measure the individual's traditional social responsibility. This model of responsibility was mainly centered on philanthropic actions and attitudes

towards society. It analyzed the attributes and profiled the socially responsible consumer within a theoretical framework based on previous works developed by Berkowitz and Daniels (1964), Harris (1957) and Gough et al. (1952). These studies profiled the socially responsible person of North America in sociodemographic terms (age, gender, social class, educational level, type of habitat and political ideas), concluding that the responsible person is more conservative, defending traditional values of social behavior (Berkowitz and Lutterman, 1958:168).

Later, Anderson and Cunningham (1972) used this scale to describe the socially conscious consumer, and considered the 8-item scale of the SRS to measure and define the profile of this kind of consumer based on demographic and socio-psychological variables. Although they included psychographic variables to the original scale (they specifically added the variables *alienation*, *dogmatism*, *conservatism*, *status consciousness*, *personal competence* and *cosmopolitanism*), they maintained its one-dimensionality. The authors found that, in general, socioeconomic status, occupation and age of the household head provided significant discriminators of social consciousness. Additionally, the same happened with the socio-psychological variables of dogmatism, conservatism, cosmopolitanism and status concern. As the authors stated referring to previous works:

> "Briefly, the image of the socially conscious consumer that emerged from their research was that of a pre-middle age adult of relatively high occupational attainment and socio economic status. He is typically more cosmopolitan, but less dogmatic, less conservative, less status conscious, less alienated, and less personally competent than his less socially conscious counterpart" (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972:30).

However, they inferred that a responsible personality did not imply a socially responsible behavior. This means that, although certain variables were linked to higher scores on the SRS, it did not necessarily lead to an effective behavior, since some of the results were indeed contradictory. This situation invited the coming researchers to deepen in the attitudes and motivations of socially responsible consumers.

Kinnear et al. (1974) developed a new scale based on Anderson and Cunningham's (1972) previous work on the SRS, incorporating behavioral and attitude measures related to socially conscious purchasing patterns, and identified the profile of ecological concerned consumers. The main objective of their study was to differentiate buyers with regard to the extent to which they were concerned about ecology. They

identified two theoretical dimensions within the concept of ecological concern, although the measure was treated as a one-dimensional construct: an expressed concern for ecology by the buyer's and a purchasing behavior consistent with the maintenance of the ecology system. They examined twenty different variables as possible predictors of scores on the ecological concern index, seven being socioeconomic variables, twelve being standard personality scales and the final predictor, Perceived Consumer Effectiveness. They defined the profile of the ecologically concerned consumers as follows:

> "They tend to score high in perceived consumer effectiveness against pollution; they are high in openness to new ideas (tolerance); high in their need to understand the workings of things and satisfy intellectual curiosity (understanding); and they are moderately high in their need to obtain personal safety (harm avoidance)" (Kinnear et al, 1974:22).

It is noticeable that the authors are focusing their profiling efforts on personality attributes, rather than on the consumer's socioeconomic characteristics. Indeed, and contrary to Anderson and Cunningham's findings, Kinnear et al. did not find demographic measures to be statistically significant in relation to the ecological concern index, with only higher incomes resulting a tendency of this kind of behavior.

Leigh et al. (1988) also used the SRS developed by Berkowitz and Lutterman. Following Murphy and Enis' (1975) conceptualization that related socially conscious consumption tendencies to product differentiation parameters, they designed a specific product-related context. They measured seven criteria within the context of three different products: a nondurable good, a durable good and a service. These criteria ranked in terms of their long-run societal welfare, and included ecological and societal impacts, as well as the product extension, information, design and embellishment, being all of the criteria adapted to the characteristics of each of the tested products. The authors also concluded that the SRS was a one-dimensional construct but found a marginal level of internal consistency and criterion group validity, thus indicating the need of additional research for refinement and testing (Leigh et al, 1988:17).

Additional one-dimensional scales can be identified in the literature, such as the *Environmental Responsible Citizen Scale* (Tucker et al., 1981) -including items related to environmental concern and consumer social responsibility-, and the *Life Style Analysis Scale* (Belch, 1982) that based the responsible consumption as associated to the life style of consumers.

However, some other cases of multi-dimensional constructs arise in previous works. For instance, we can find as two-dimensional the following constructs: *Socially and Ecologically Concerned Consumers Scale* (Anderson et al., 1974) that includes responsible consumption based on environmental concerns, and social and psychological aspects; the *Social Involvement Model* (Webster, 1975) that takes into account social and environmental factors, as well as the consumers' perceptions of big businesses' decision-making; the *Environmental Consumerism and Purchasing Behavior Scale* (Ismail et al., 2006), which differentiates between micro and macro factors (dimensions associated to fair trade and environmental aspects, respectively) related to responsible consumption; or the scale used by Lee and Shin (2010), which included purchase intentions and perceptions of CSR.

Antil (1984) placed socially responsible consumption as a prerequisite to successful voluntary conservation programs, and developed the Socially Responsible Consumption Behavior (SRCB) scale, a 40-items scale that focused fundamentally on environmentally responsible behaviors and attitudes. The author found that socially responsible consumers were more likely to live in urban areas and tended to be involved in community activities. In addition, he described this group of consumers as being more liberal (not in a radical way), tending to see themselves as being influential in their neighborhoods (not pushing their values upon others), being critical of business and government and with a positive self-concept.

This scale was later used by Roberts (1996), who related it with demographic variables and Shanka and Goapalan (2005), whose use and analysis yielded in two factors: *societal* –looking at matters that impact on society and the environment at large, mainly focused on buying-related decisions-; and *personal* -aspects that tended to reflect individual responsibilities, centered on recycling behaviors-. These authors relate it just with demographic variables, having no dependent variables with a significant level and finding age as the only one having an effect on the societal dimension.

In 1999, Straughan and Roberts replicated Roberts' (1996) research on *Ecologically Conscious Consumer Behavior* (ECCB), including altruism to determine its role in profiling the ECCB (in addition to the measures used by Roberts such as liberalism, PCE and environmental concern). Results showed that all these psychographic variables and the demographic variables age, sex and classification were significantly correlated with ECCB when considered individually.

More recently, Webb et al. (2008) developed the Socially Responsible Purchase and Disposal (SRPD) scale, which yielded in three factors: *purchase based on the firm's CSR performance*, *consumer recycling behavior* and *avoidance and use reduction of products based on their environmental impact*. Evidence of external validity was provided by correlations with Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (PCE), CSR-CA Beliefs and Collectivism.

Based on the SRC behaviors scale developed by Lecompte and Florence (2006), which consisted in five dimensions related to *company behavior*, *buying cause-related products*, *buying in small businesses*, *locally made products* and the *amount of consumption*, D'Astous and Legendre (2009) analyzed the consumers' justifications for unethical behavior. They developed the *Consumer Reasons for Unethical Behavior* (CRUB) identifying three main arguments used by consumers: economic rationalization, the reality of economic development and government dependency. In addition, the authors used other variables to contrast the model, such as the knowledge of SRC, consumer involvement in SRC and PCE.

Later, Durif et al. (2011) developed a scale of *Socially Responsible Consumption* based on declared past behavior. After the principal component analysis, they found eight factors: *citizen behavior, behavior focusing on protection of the environment, recycling behavior, composting behavior, local consumption behavior, behavior taking into account animal protection, deconsumption behavior* and *sustainable transport behavior*, all of them directly related to environmental or economic issues. After a cluster analysis, the authors identified personal image, health and environmentalism as the main motivations for behaving ethically, while they pointed out as the main impediments the lack of information, time and efficacy.

In 2014, Ocampo et al. provide a deep review of measures on Consumer Social Responsibility published in high impact journals, and propose a new construct's dimensionality in which they identify eight different factors to be measured: (i) Perceived Consumer Effectiveness, (ii) CSR performance, (iii) Ecologically Conscious Consumption, (iv) Environmental Concern, (v) support to national businesses or origin of products and services, (vi) claim and demand of consumers' rights, (vii) decrease of consumption and, finally, (viii) support to small businesses (SMEs). The author's proposal is theoretically exposed, leaving its empirical validation to future research.

Table 2.1
Dimensionality of constructs related to responsible consumer behavior

Author(s), year	Construct	Dimensionality characterization
Berkowitz and Daniels (1964); Berkowitz and Lutterman (1968); Anderson and Cunningham (1972), Leigh et al. (1988)	*Social Responsibility Scale* (SRS)	One-dimensional construct (responsible consumption associated to sociodemographic and psychological factors)
Anderson et al. (1974)	*Socially and Ecologically Concerned Consumers Scale* (SECC)	1. Responsible consumption (focused on environmental concerns) 1. Social and psychological aspects
Kinnear et al. (1974)	*Ecological Concern* (EC)	One-dimensional construct (although two theoretical dimensions within the concept of ecological concern are identified: an expressed concern for ecology by the buyer's and a purchasing behavior consistent with the maintenance of the ecology system).
Webster (1975)	*The Social Involvement Model* (SIM)	1. Social and environmental factors 2. Perceptions of big businesses
Tucker et al. (1981)	*Environmental Responsible Citizen Scale* (ERC)	One-dimensional construct (compares the ecologically concerned consumer with the common consumer, using 9 items of an environmental responsibility scale + 22 items of consumer social responsibility)
Belch (1982)	*Life Style Analysis Scale* (LSA)	One-dimensional construct (using 20 items based on responsible consumption associated to the life style of consumers)
Antil (1984), Singh (2009)	*Socially Responsible Consumption Behavior Scale* (SRCB)	1. Social responsibility 2. Environmental concern 3. Perceived Consumer Effectiveness
Roberts (1996)	*Ecologically Conscious Consumer Behavior* (ECCB)	1. Perceived Consumer Effectiveness 2. Environmental Concerns 3. Liberalism
Straughan and Roberts (1999)	*Ecologically Conscious Consumer Behavior Scale* (ECCB) + demographic variables	1. Ecologically Conscious Consumer Behavior (ECCB) 2. Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (PCE) 3. Environmental Concern (EC)
Mohr and Webb (2005)	*Social Responsible Purchase and Disposal Scale* (SRPD)	1. CSR Performance 2. Recycling 3. Traditional purchasing criteria 4. Environmental impact purchase and use criteria
Shanka and Goapalan (2005)	*Socially Responsible Consumer Behavior* (SRCB)	1. Societal (buying-related items) 2. Personal (recycling behaviors)
Francois-Lecompte and Roberts (2006)	*Socially Responsible Consumption* (SRC)	1. Corporate Responsibility 2. Country of origin preferences 3. Shopping at local or small businesses 4. Purchasing cause-related products 5. Reducing one's consumption
Ismail et al. (2006)	*Environmental Consumerism and Purchasing Behavior Scale* (ECPB)	1. Micro-factors of responsible consumption (associated with fair trade) 2. Macro-factors of responsible consumption (related to relevant environmental aspects of consumption)
D'Astous and Legendre (2009)	*Engage in SRC Behaviors*	1. Taking into account the company behaviors 2. Buying cause-related products 3. Trying to buy to small businesses 4. Buying locally-made products 5. Limiting the amount of consumption

Table 2.1 (cont)
Dimensionality of constructs related to responsible consumer behavior

Author(s), year	Construct	Dimensionality characterization
Lee (2008)	(No named)	1. Social influence 2. Environmental attitude 3. Environmental concern 4. Perceived seriousness about environmental problems 5. Perceived environmental responsibility 1. Perceived environmental behavior effectiveness
Webb et al. (2008)	*Socially Responsible Purchase and Disposal* (SRPD)	1. CSR performance 2. Consumer recycling behavior 3. Traditional purchase criteria
Lee and Shin (2010)	(No named)	1. Purchase intentions 2. Corporate Social Responsibility
Durif et al. (2011)	*Socially Responsible Consumer* (SRC)	1. Citizen behavior (behavior in support of organizations with social convictions) 2. Behavior focusing on protection of the environment 3. Recycling behavior 4. Composting behavior 5. Local consumption 6. Behavior taking into account animal protection 7. Deconsumption behavior 2. Sustainable transport behavior
Yan and She (2011)	*Socially Responsible Consumption Behavior Scale* (SRS)	3. Environmental protection 4. Animal protection 1. Energy conservation 2. Support to small businesses 3. Support to national brands 4. Following-up inadequate behaviors and claim of consumer's rights 5. Moderate consumption 6. Support to socially responsible businesses 7. Oriented social progress
Ocampo et al. (2014)	*Consumer Social Responsibility* (CSR)	1. Perceived Consumer Effectiveness 1. CSR performance 2. Ecologically Conscious Consumption 3. Environmental Concern 4. Support to national businesses or origin of products and services 5. Claim and demand of consumers' rights 6. Decrease of consumption 7. Support to small businesses (SMEs)
Quazi et al. (2015)	*Consumer Social Responsibility* (CnSR)	1. Social impacts 2. Solidarity 3. Critical appraisal 4. Supporting business growth 5. Environmental impacts 6. Action

One of the most recent works is the new scale of Consumer Social Responsibility developed by Quazi et al. (2015). Their research focuses primarily on the conceptualization of CnSR and the different facets that it comprises. They define CnSR as the "individual and collective commitments, actions and decisions that consumers consider as the right things to do in their interactions with producers, marketers and sellers of goods and services" (Quazi et al., 2015:2), and identify six different dimensions or responsibilities: (i) *supporting business growth*, which is considered as the core responsibility of consumers; (ii) *critical appraisal*, related to the consumer's responsibility to appraise any irresponsible business behavior; (iii) the translation of this critical appraisal into *action*, exercising the buying power to get a fair deal in the marketplace and accepting the outcomes of the decision; (iv) being conscious of and minimizing their *social impacts* on the community, as well as their (v) *environmental impacts*, which is materialized through the priority of environmentally friendly products; (vi) and finally, being committed towards *solidarity*.

Such as Ocampo et al. (2014) conclude:

> "The literature review on Consumer Social Responsibility and its measurement show a dynamic concept and a continuous evolution from the 60s. Consumer Social Responsibility has been defined as a multidimensional construct (…) in relation to dimensions that are linked to environmental and social issues, and that particularly reflect people's attitudes and behaviors when they recognize that their consumption has different levels of social responsibility" (Ocampo et al., 2014:298).

In summary, all of the measures that analyze socially responsible consumption behaviors have at least one dimension (being sometimes the core or even the only factor) directly linked to environmental themes, which go throughout a wide range of green issues such as environmental concerns, attitudes and knowledge, animal protection, energy conservation, purchase's impacts on the environment, recycling behavior or *deconsumption*, among others. The second factor that has been more widely used by researchers is related to purchase criteria that involve the way consumers consume: for instance, buying criteria in support to local businesses, national brands, fair trade products or responsible companies. Other works include social aspects like solidarity or philanthropy, and the most recent ones call to an active way of

consumerism that incorporates critical attitudes toward business' performance and the protection of consumer's rights.

Businesses' Corporate Social Responsibility performance is not specifically addressed as a dimension of CnSR until the last decade and, since then, various have been the works that have included the influence that company's behaviors can have on consumers' purchase decisions (Mohr and Webb, 2005; Shanka and Goapalan, 2005; Francois-Lecompte and Roberts, 2006; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009; Webb et al., 2008; Lee and Shin, 2010; Yan and She, 2011; Ocampo et al., 2014) or the effects of CSR on consumers' satisfaction with the brand (Rivera et al., 2016). The link between CSR and CnSR has always been treated from the perspective of this influence, in which consumers might take into account the available information about businesses' engagement in socially responsible behaviors, rewarding or punishing them through their purchasing decisions as a result of these actions.

However, CSR policies imply business' performances in various scenarios or dimensions, some of them being less popular or known to the casual observer. One of the most influential authors that set and delimited these corporate responsibilities towards society was Carroll (1979). He stated that for a company to be considered a responsible organization, it should comply not only with its *economic* –given by nature- or *legal* –established rules to operate in a certain political and social context- responsibilities, but also with its *ethical* and *discretionary* ones. The ethical responsibilities refer to those "business behaviors that are not part of formal low but nevertheless are expected of business by society's members", which means the way that societies expect companies to behave. Finally, discretionary responsibilities are "purely voluntary actions, guided by a desire to engage in social roles not mandated, not required by law, and not even generally expected of citizens in an ethical sense". They are also known as philanthropic responsibilities. Not being philanthropically active does not make a business unethical, but being so makes it more responsible. On the contrary, those behaviors that pertain to the ethical dimension and that are not met by a certain organization indeed make it unethical and, consequently, less responsible towards society.

These responsibilities have been later simplified and adapted to the enterprise's operations through three general dimensions (economic, social and environmental) that conform the known *triple bottom line* of which organizations periodically report. Actually, international sustainability and CSR reports have been structured following

this dimensional schema, which can be found in globally accepted guides and standards that enable companies to communicate with their stakeholders about performance and accountability beyond just the financial bottom line, like those of the Global Reporting Initiative (Willis, 2003). These dimensions have also been the basis of a recently developed scale to measure consumer's perceptions of corporate social responsibility (Alvarado-Herrera et al., 2017).

Table 2.2
Parallelism between corporate and personal dimensions of responsible behavior

	Company behavior (Carroll, 1979)	**Personal behavior**
Economic	Before anything else, the business institution is the basic economic unit of our society. As such it has a responsibility to produce goods and services that society wants and to sell them at a profit. All other business roles are predicated on this fundamental assumption	Economic, environmental and social impacts of the way one spends his or her money. More specifically, the extent to which people purchase or consume only what they need
Legal	Ground rules –the laws and regulations- under which business is expected to operate. Society expects business to fulfill its economic mission within the framework of legal requirements	Ground rules under which people are expected to operate
Ethical	Societal defined expectations of business behavior that are not part of formal low but nevertheless are expected of business by society's members	The way ethics is included in a person and his/her family's life. They include those additional behaviors and activities that go beyond strict legality and pertain to actions determined as "fair" and "moral" (Accar et al, 2001)
Discretionary	Purely voluntary actions, guided by a desire to engage in social roles not mandated, not required by law, and not even generally expected of citizens in an ethical sense	Individual actions performed to help others, that is, the extent to which people dedicate time, effort or money to helping others
Environmental	*Transversally considered by the author among the rest of dimensions*	Personal actions driven by a desire to have a more positive (or less negative) impact on the environment (Roberts, 1996; Straughan and Roberts, 1999)

Nonetheless, Carroll's (1979) contribution has been the basis of subsequent research for the last thirty years, cited in almost ten thousand publications, and it has been assumed in the literature as the origin and basis of CSR's dimensionality. These dimensions, which accomplish a general and complete range of issues that make an organization responsible towards the environment, the society and the future generations, could be applied to individual behavior. We believe that being economically sustainable, respecting the law, getting involved in the community and

behaving under ethical standards, are not matters that concern only to organizations, but to the general society and particularly the individuals as citizens. Therefore, we propose that personal responsibilities could be categorized as the organizational ones. This parallelism and some examples of actions representing the dimensions are shown in tables 2.2 and 2.3.

Table 2.3
Examples of equivalences between specific individual and organizational socially responsible behaviors

	Company behavior*	**Personal behavior****
Economic	To continually improve the quality of products Being successful at maximizing profits Striving to lower the operating costs	Having success at work or being a hard worker Not buying what one does not need
Legal	The products meet the legal standards The managers try to comply with the law	Paying the taxes Complying with the law
Ethical	Having a comprehensive code of conduct Following professional standards	Following exhaustive codes of conduct at home Educating children based on ethics and values
Discretionary	Encouraging employees to join civic organizations that support the community Giving adequate contributions to charities	Encouraging family and friends to participate in volunteering activities Collaborating with an NGO

* Examples of company responsible behaviors are taken from the Economic, Legal, Ethical and Discretionary Citizenship scales, available in Maignan et al. (1999)

** Examples of personal responsible behaviors are taken from the results of the qualitative research –in depth interviews and focus group-

Although environmental issues are embedded in the rest of dimensions within the corporate context, specifically in the philanthropic dimension defined by Carroll (1979), in this case they are taken out and compose a single dimension because (1) this behavior is different to those related to solidarity, philanthropy, ethics, legality and economy, and (2) literature in ethical consumer research has showed that the green factors associated to the individual's everyday life play a leading role.

Given this parallelism, the main purpose of this chapter is to test whether these *economic*, *legal*, *ethical*, *philanthropic* and *environmental* dimensions can be theoretically identified and practically tested in people's personal behavior. Thus, our hypothesis is that:

H1: Personal Social Responsibility includes individual's *economic*, *legal*, *ethical*, *philanthropic* and *environmental* behaviors.

2.3. Study 1: scale development

2.3.1. Research methodology

In this study, we follow the first steps of Churchill's (1979) methodology for the scale development that include the specification of the domain of the construct, the generation of items from the literature review and the qualitative research, the data collection and the purification of the scale (stages 1 to 4 of Figure 2.1).

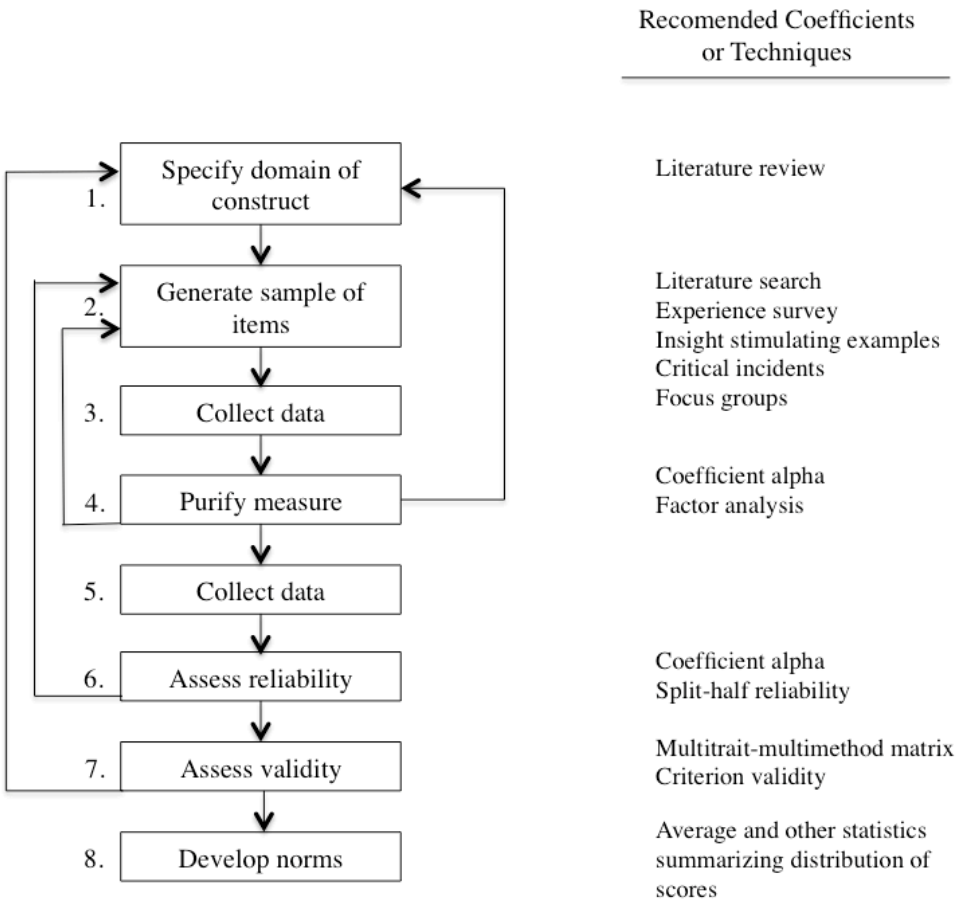
After the examination of the dimensionality of related constructs and the summary of previous empirical studies that specifically address issues related to responsible or ethical consumer behavior, in what follows we review the general approaches to socially responsible consumption as a basis that will guide us to introduce the PSR. Then, we focus on specifying the domain of PSR within the context of its relation with CSR.

2.3.2. Specification of the domain of the construct

Consumption is not only an economic phenomenon, but also an ethical culture phenomenon (Ricky, 2007). Indeed, consumer behavior has been analyzed during the last decades upon different perspectives such as ethical, responsible, conscious, sustainable or green. Ethical consumerism has evolved over the last twenty-five years from an almost exclusive focus on environmental issues to a concept that more broadly incorporates matters of conscience (Devinney et al, 2006). From the 1960s ecology movement focusing on pollution and energy conservation, to the recent use of environmental issues as a source of competitive advantage in business and politics,

individual and societal concerns over environmental issues have become increasingly apparent to the casual observer (Straughan and Roberts, 1999). Such renewed sensitivity to the environment and social consciousness –unlike the 1960s and 1970s, when emphasis was largely on political solutions to environmental and social ills- focuses on consumer purchasing behavior (Roberts, 1996).

Figure 2.1
Steps of the scale development defined by Churchill (1979)



One of the first authors that provide a definition related to the responsible behaviors of the consumer is Fisk (1973:24), which refers to *responsible consumption* as "the rational and efficient use of resources with respect to the global human population". Although this definition is given under the term *responsible* and not *green*, it references directly the individual's environmental concerns. This "green consumerism" was later identified by Elkington and Hailes (1989) as a multifaceted behavior, considering the avoidance of products endangering health, consuming a

disproportionate amount of energy or waste, or causing significant damage to species or environments during manufacture, use or disposal, among other particular elements.

This behavior is characterized by a consumer who makes an effort to get informed about fabrication procedures or product's uses and effects on the environment, and implies a willingness to invest time or money to make an ethical decision. Indeed, regarding these kind of 'green' or 'ethical' consumers, Coin Campbell (2004) points out:

> "These individuals are most certainly concerned with the 'common good' –which is a defining feature of the citizenship role. However unfortunately it is also clear that such people are really good citizens who have effectively carried their civic and humanitarian concerns over into their consuming. (…) In most respects, they are actually 'bad consumers', that is they are failing in their duty to select the best product and service at the lowest cost to themselves. Instead they are in many cases effectively paying an 'ethical premium' (in time, money, or both) for possessing a conscience".

The green consumerism evolves and further incorporates matters of moral decisions and conscience. This concept is known as *ethical consumer,* and refers to the decision-making, purchases and other consumption experiences that are affected by the consumer's ethical concerns (Cooper-Martin and Holbrrok, 1993), or the one who makes rational use of available information about free trade/corrective solutions to consider the consequences of their purchase practices (Fraj and Martinez, 2007). This means that consumers are not only concerned about the way their consumption affects their natural environment, and they are also incorporating additional elements related to the moral or ethical aspects of the purchase. In this sense, the ethical consumerism becomes a more broaden and complex concept than the green consumerism, since the ethical consumer is supposed to take into account environmental concerns (Shaw and Shiu, 2002). Nevertheless, these two types of consumption are indeed subsumed to a more general sphere that would incorporate all the social aspects that have an influence on consumption decisions (Ocampo et al., 2014). This is the case of socially responsible consumption, and includes not only the aspects related to the consumer's environmental concerns or the ethical or moral aspects of the purchase, but also the effects on his or her social domains.

In 1975, Webster widens the construct to the *socially conscious consumer*, which he defines as a consumer "who takes into account the public consequences of his

or her private consumption or who attempts to use his or her purchasing power to bring about social change". This definition refers to a sustainable behavior, in which not only the personal needs are met, but also one where satisfaction takes into account the own behavioral consequences on others. *Socially responsible consumption* is later developed in this same line of thought, defined as those consumer behaviors and purchase decisions which are related to environmental and resource-related problems and are motivated not only by a desire to satisfy personal needs, but also by a concern for the welfare of society in general (Antil, 1984; Antil and Bennet, 1979). Both definitions identify the consumer's responsibility and power that have an impact on society, considering the act of consuming as an influential tool of social change.

In this line of consciousness and active behavior, Straughan and Roberts (1999) define the *Ecologically Conscious Consumer Behavior* (Roberts, 1996b) as the one that measures the extent to which individual respondents purchase goods and services believed to have a more positive (or less negative) impact on the environment. Barnett et al. (2005:28) indicate that consuming ethically is understood in both theory and practice to depend on processing knowledge and information, and on explicit practices of acknowledged commitment.

Subsequently, *Socially Responsible Consumer Behavior* (SRCB) was later defined as a person basing his or her acquisition, usage, and disposition of products on a desire to minimize or eliminate any harmful effects and maximize the long-run beneficial impact on society (Mohr et al., 2001).

More recently, Devinney et al (2006) have defined *Consumer Social Responsibility* (CnSR) as the conscious and deliberate choice to make certain consumption choices based on personal and moral beliefs. This idea returns to a simplified assumption that reflects previous concepts of ethical consumption, mentioning the ethical aspects of the exchange. As Miller's original argument sustains, "all consumer behavior, however ordinary and routine, is likely to be shaped by diverse values of caring for other people and concern for fairness" (Miller, 1998).

So far, we can conclude that three different lines of thought can be identified if we analyze the literature related to Personal Social Responsibility: the first one focuses on social and green issues and is specified by the power of consumption to obtain a positive *social* change or *environmental* impact; the second one includes not only the consumption's effects on the ecosystem, but also the *ethical* and moral aspects of the

purchase; and finally, other contributions concern the *philanthropic* aspects of individual action.

All these definitions, although precise and complete (see Tables 1.1 and 1.2 on Chapter One for a definition and its contents' review), do not always imply the relation between the consumer as part of the economic system and the corporate system, as its supplier, nor the parallelism on the evolution that consumers and corporations are undergoing. They neither include other issues that are not directly related to consumer behavior but that can be complementary, since consumption can have an influence on other fields of everyday life and society, and vice versa. For example, certain actions of consumption and citizenship like trying always to comply with the law, not wasting more that what one earns, trying not to consume more than what is necessary, or supporting with time or money social and cultural activities have a parallelism with corporate behavior from an individual position.

Additionally, there is a need to update the measures (Webb et al., 2008) and the definitions in response to a full range of social issues, and not only those related to environmental or ethical behaviors, as well as the ones derived from the consumer's response to the company performance. For example, making efforts to reduce personal expenses or trying to save money thinking in the long-run, being efficient at work, buying products that meet the legal standards, being trustworthy or honest with others and promoting social justice with our personal behavior. Nevertheless, the appropriateness of the aforementioned definitions separately is the main reason why we propose the Personal Social Responsibility (PSR) as a merger of suitable denotations, being "*the individual orientation towards minimizing the negative impact and maximizing the positive impact on his/her social, environmental and economic environments in the long run through economic, legal, ethical, philanthropic and environmental actions"*.

2.3.3. Item generation

The second step of the scale development consisted in two parts: the identification of items included in related scales from the literature review, and the the use of qualitative methods (in-depth interviews, group discussion and a panel of experts).

We identified a total of 232 items from the review of the literature. They were taken from previous scales related to the socially responsible consumer (Antil and Bennett, 1979; Antil, 1984; Durif et al, 2011; Roberts, 1996), consumer's ethical justifications (D'Astous and Legendre, 2009), consumer's responses to enterprise's ethical behaviors (Deng, 2011), ethical ideologies (Forsyth, 1992), corporate citizenship (Maignan and Ferrell, 2001), the perceived role of ethics and social responsibility (Singhapakdi et al, 1996), green consumer behavior (Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Roberts, 1996), corporate social responsibility (Turker, 2009; Boal and Peery, 1985) and environmentally responsible consumers (Stone et al, 1995).

After the literature review, we conducted in-depth interviews with four researchers, a focus group interview (with 6 members) with a convenience sample of consumers and a panel of experts. The objective of the qualitative research was to (1) help in the process of defining the dimensions of the construct, (2) generate new items, (3) perform a thorough evaluation of the item wording and (4) eliminate any redundant, ambiguous, or poorly worded items.

Each of the in-depth interviews lasted between 30 and 45 minutes, and the focus group one hour and a half. In all of them initial questions were related to what behaviors of the participants or others they believed to be considered as "personal social responsibility towards society or responsible consumption behaviors" (i.e., local purchasing, the use of public transport, environmental criteria or anti-consumption patterns, between others). Next, they were requested to focus on responsible behaviors related to each of the five dimensions considered. Then, we showed to both the participants in the interviews and the group of discussion the PSR definition and the list of items. They were encouraged to provisionally group the items in the five dimensions. Finally, they were asked to add any item they thought could be considered as PSR and not included in the aforementioned items.

Overall, 246 items were generated from the literature review and the interviews. We then submitted these items to a panel of expert judges (marketing professors specialized in consumer behavior research) in order to assess its content validity. The panel of experts checked the scale items for ambiguity, clarity, triviality, sensible construction and redundancy, as well as to make sure that the items reflected the definition of PSR. Items were eliminated if two of the three experts (1) agreed they did not represent the dimension they belonged to or a different one, (2) those that the experts did not agree about their importance or belonging to the construct, or (3) those

that presented doubts. In addition, they eliminated those redundant, ambiguous, difficult to understand or interpret and/or too specific items. After these analyses 180 "not representative" items were eliminated, remaining 66 items the experts agreed that suitably represented the five dimensions. Then, we used the revised scale of PSR to design a questionnaire, with the 66 items ranging from 0 "strongly disagree" to 10 "strongly agree".

2.3.4. Sample and data collection

Following the procedure by Milne and Culnan (2004), early data collection for item refinement was undertaken with administration staff, professors and students of a southeastern university in Spain. We conducted the survey by email, and the message did not describe the purpose of the study. It just invited each receiver to participate by filling in the attached e-questionnaire. The units of analysis in this study were individuals older than eighteen years old, who were requested to respond to the questionnaire based on their behavior. Surveying by email has numerous advantages over conventional interviewing methods, offering a more efficient and convenient form of data collection (Best and Krueger, 2002).

After the elimination of observations with missing data, 138 observations remained in our database. This sample size exceeded the conventional requirement of around five observations per scale item to conduct factor analysis (Hair et al., 1998; Stevens, 1996). There were the same amount of men and women; the 51,1% were under 30 years old, a 24,5% were between 30 and 45 years old and the rest 24,4% were above 45; a 13% had finished primary education, a 42,1% high-school or professional training and a 44,9% had finished or was studying at University; a 38,3% were employed and a 7,8% self-employed, a 10,4% were unemployed and the rest 43,5% were students.

Convenience samples are considered valid under two conditions: if the study is exploratory in nature, and if the items on the questionnaire are pertinent to the respondents who answer them (Ferber, 1977). This study satisfies both of them. This is the first attempt to develop a new scale of Personal Social Responsibility that includes matters related to other responsibilities that were not considered in previous studies of consumer behavior, so the study can be considered exploratory. Also, all the questions included in the scale are common to all individuals, which make the scale items relevant to the respondents.

2.2.5. Results

Results of the initial exploratory, principal component factor analysis using varimax rotation yielded the five dimensions previously identified in the literature. Items were retained if (1) they loaded 0.50 or more on a factor, (2) did not load more than 0.50 on two factors, and (3) if the reliability analysis indicated an item to total correlation of more than 0.40 (Hair et al., 1998). Overall, 47 items were eliminated. As shown in Table 2.5, final exploratory analysis yielded the five dimensions accounting for a total of 69.44% of the variance. Factor loadings ranged from 0.86 to 0.56. Coefficient alpha had acceptable levels ranging from 0.89 to 0,73 (Nunnally and Bernsteins, 1994). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.82, indicating that the variables belong together (Malhotra, 2004).

Table 2.4
Items retained based on exploratory factor analysis (Study 1)

Code	Item	PHIL	ENV	ETH	LEG	ECO*
PHIL_01	I collaborate with an NGO	,827				
PHIL_02	I support social and cultural activities with money or time	,820				
PHIL_03	I encourage my friends and family to participate in charitable activities	,803				
PHIL_04	I make donations to charities that support social and environmental causes	,763				
PHIL_05	I dedicate effort and money to helping others	,679				
ENV_01	I pay attention to the environmental protection in daily life and consumption		,859			
ENV _02	I make personal sacrifices to reduce pollution		,838			
ENV _03	I do not buy products that potentially harm the environment		,823			
ENV _04	I have stopped buying certain products for environmental reasons		,753			
ETH_01	Ethics has been essential for me to do right in life			,844		
ETH _02	I educate my children (or I would do so if I had them) considering ethics			,824		
ETH _03	In our family, all members are educated to be honest with others			,682		
ETH _04	I have never harmed others, although I could have benefited from it			,559		
LEG_01	I meet my legal obligations				,824	
LEG _02	I always pay my taxes				,795	
LEG _03	I always try to follow the law				,770	
ECO_01	I do not consume more than necessary					,820
ECO _02	I buy products that I know that I will use later					,803
ECO _03	I do not spend more than what I earn					,766

* PHIL = *Philanthropic responsibility*; ENV = *Environmental responsibility*; ETH = *Ethical responsibility*; LEG = *Legal responsibility*; ECO = *Economic responsibility*

The first dimension that measures the PSR scale was the one related to the "philanthropic responsibility" of the consumer (PHIL, α=0,88). This factor explained 29,93% of the variance and consisted of five items that referred to the discretional or philanthropic behaviors of the individual (i.e., collaborating with NGOs, donations or

support to social activities). The second dimension, "environmental responsibility" (ENV, α=0,89), consisted of four items accounting for 13,94% of the variance. The items referred to the extent to which individual respondents purchase goods and services believed to have a more positive (or less negative) impact on the environment (Roberts, 1996; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Freestone and McGoldrick, 2008). The third dimension was the one composed of the "ethical responsibility" (ETH, α=0,77). The ethical dimension consisted of four items accounting for 10,54% of the variance, and represented the way ethics is included in a person and their family's life. The forth dimension, accounting for 7,68% of the variance was the "legal responsibility" (LEG, α=0,73), and it was composed by those behaviors considered to be ruled or regulated by a certain society. The fifth and the last dimension was the one that represented the "economic responsibility" (ECO, α=0,74), which accounted for 7,35% of the variance. The three items composing it referred to the extent to which people purchase or consume only what they need.

2.3. Discussion

This chapter has undertaken the first stages proposed by Churchill (1979) for the scale development. First, the domain of PSR has been specified based on the literature review and the results of qualitative research. Second, a sample of items has been generated and, after the first data collection, the measure has been purified through the coefficient alpha and the factor analysis. This purified measure has helped us to determine, specify and classify the different dimensions of PSR, which contributes to complete the specification of the domain of the construct.

In essence, the first dimension referred to the *philanthropic responsibility* of the individual is composed of items measuring the extent to which people dedicate time, effort or money to helping others. This result is consistent with the content and some of the conclusions of the focus group, in which all of the participants agreed to include as one of the major personal responsibilities towards society all the voluntary activities carried out to helping others. As Carroll (1979) defined this dimension for businesses, these activities comprise "purely voluntary actions, guided by a desire to engage in social roles not mandated, not required by law, and not even generally expected of

citizens in an ethical sense". The basis of this kind of responsibilities is that if an individual does not participate in them is not considered unethical per se (Carroll, 1979) but he will be considered more responsible if he is engaged in these activities. It is specifically composed of all the voluntary actions made by an individual to improve its social environment, such as the collaboration with a non-profit organization, the support and investment of time or money to cultural and social activities and, in general, any other active and philanthropic attitudes and behaviors. In addition, during the in-depth interviews, all of the interviewees agreed that these items represented the philanthropic dimension. As one of the participants said: "Being responsible towards society means that a person must do an exercise to be aware of the society's needs. It doesn't mean that you have to solve all the problems of your community, but as part of it, it is responsible trying to help in those issues that are in your hands. This might be being a volunteer in an NGO, respecting your neighbor or sorting the trash for recycling".

The *environmental responsibility* include personal awareness of environmental issues, personal efforts carried out to reduce pollution and the choice and purchase of products taking into account environmental reasons (it is composed of active purchase actions such as buying products that do not harm the environment and stop buying those believed or known to have a negative impact on it). The environmental dimension of the PSR scale was added to the four adapted from the CSR of companies for two reasons: the first one is the traditional focus of the ethical or responsible consumption on green issues in the literature and, the second one, its importance in daily life and consumption. The "green" consumer has been defined in previous literature as "the one that avoids products that might endanger the health of the consumer or others; cause significant damage to the environment during manufacture, use or disposal; consume a disproportionate amount of energy; cause unnecessary waste; use material derived from threatened species or environments; involve unnecessary use or cruelty to animals (or) adversely affect other countries" (Elkington and Hailes, 1989:235). For one of the participants in the focus group, "having environmental responsibilities means that a person must take into account the way companies are concerned and act for the environment. For example, the way they present and sell their products. People should choose those products that use fewer plastics, carton or packages in general". For a different participant, the personal social responsibilities in general include "the way my purchase actions affect the environment or my local environment".

The items that compose the third dimension, *ethical responsibility*, reflect how ethics has contributed to a person's success, if a person includes ethics in the education of his or her children, the way honesty is educated within the members of a family or whether one has ever harmed others or not. For one of the interviewees, "Personal Social Responsibility requires the existence of coherence between what I expect from others, and what I actually do. To be responsible towards society a person has to be morally coherent". In addition, one participant argued that education is the most important ethical responsibility: "Education is one of the most important issues that people can do to improve our society. Being responsible also means to educate and teach the incoming citizens how to live and how to do things and, of course, to act as a constant example of cohabitation, honesty and respect". Carroll (1979) defined these responsibilities for companies as those "societally defined expectations of business behavior that are not part of formal low but nevertheless are expected of business by society's members". In the case of PSR, ethical responsibilities also include those additional behaviors and activities that go beyond strict legality and pertain to actions determined as "fair" and "moral" (Accar et al, 2001). Contrary to the philanthropic responsibilities, the ethical ones are expected by society in general: people expect others to act in an ethical manner, to educate their children taking into account ethics or to respect others. An ethical person is an individual who is likely to conform to accepted standards of societal or professional behavior (Freestone and McGoldric, 2008), which means that if a person does not fulfill his/her ethic responsibilities he can be considered less responsible towards society. Accar et al. (2001) classify ethical and philanthropic responsibilities as the only ones that are "non-required".

The fourth dimension, *legal responsibility*, includes meeting one's legal obligations, trying to follow the law and paying the taxes, which can be broadly the ground rules under which people are expected to operate. For one of the participants in the focus group "being a responsible citizen means to comply with the basic and common social rules". More specifically, she added that "the legal responsibility should focus on two core ideas: complying with the law and paying the taxes. This means not defrauding or cheating the State".

Lastly, the *economic responsibility* refers to those behaviors that are related to not only purchasing what a person needs or what he/she will use later (in a real and specific context an irresponsible action in this sense would be having to throw away food because it has past its use-by date), but also not spending more than what he/she

earns. The following quotes from the focus group are illustrative of the relevance of such dimension and the items that represent it: “When I hear responsible consumption I think of not buying what I do not need, buying products that have been produced in my local context and not far away, or having interest and getting informed about the production processes”; “In the last years, due to the economic crisis, we have listened several times that we, as a society, have been living beyond our means… and I personally think that this is true. We have bought things that we did not need or even things that we could not pay. Now we all have huge debts. This wouldn’t have happened if we had been economically responsible”. This *economic* dimension is directly related to what previous authors has identified as *reducing* (Francois-Lecompte and Roberts, 2006), *limiting* (D’Astous and Legendre, 2009), *moderating* (Yan and She, 2011) and *decreasing* (Ocampo et al., 2014) consumption, or *deconsumption* behavior (Durif et al. (2011).

In summary, five dimensions of PSR were identified, which means that individual responsibilities are composed by different aspects of life: being economically responsible, respecting the legality, actively helping the community, contributing to maximize the positive impacts on the environment and behaving under ethical standards contribute to consider a person as responsible towards society.

CHAPTER THREE

CHAPTER THREE

Personal Social Responsibility: conceptualization and measurement

3.1. Introduction

3.2. Conceptualization of PSR

3.3. Study 2

- 3.3.1. Research model: constructs, measures and hypothesis
  - a. Dimensions as formative indicators of Personal Social Responsibility
  - b. Collectivism and Perceived Consumer Effectiveness as antecedents of Personal Social Responsibility
  - c. Self-esteem and Satisfaction with Life as consequences of Personal Social Responsibility
- 3.3.2. Research methodology
- 3.3.3. Incorporation of the second order construct through the *two-step approach*
- 3.3.4. Evaluation of the measurement model
- 3.3.5. Evaluation of the structural model

3.4. Discussion

Chapter Three determines the nature of PSR and tests its external and nomological validity. This is developed through the Study 2, which centers on the measurement of personal responsible behavior based on formative indicators. The chapter contains a discussion of the characteristics of formative and reflective indicators, and proposes a model with two antecedents and two consequences of PSR in order to test its external and nomological validity. Results of this chapter set the basis for the design and analysis of a complete model of individual behavior, which will be developed in the next chapter.

3.1. Introduction

Consumer Social Responsibility (CnSR) has received limited attention by researchers and practitioners, and some authors have called for advancement on research, particularly in empirical terms (e.g. Quazi, 2013; Vitell, 2014). Indeed, empirical studies on the field of ethical consumption are widely present in the literature, but nonetheless focus almost all the attention in certain areas that might be outdated. A deep analysis of the dimensionality of related constructs gives rise to a wide range of issues, which have been developed from an almost exclusive attention on environmental concerns to other points of question such as the corporate performance, the support of local or national brands or a consumer's active behavior to enhance ethical brands.

However, a widespread lack of renovating scales adapted to a contemporary range of social concerns emerges when we consider previous scales. For example, a recent survey conducted in Spain by the Sociological Research Centre[1] indicates that, after unemployment, corruption and fraud appear to be the second most important problems within the citizen's social concerns for the 47.5% of the respondents (CIS, 2016). In the same way, the third place is occupied by problems of an economic nature. These two matters are indeed in accordance to the *legal* and *economic* responsibilities delimited and defined in the previous Chapter, which particularly contribute to a more general and comprehensive framework of personal social responsibilities. Durif et al. (2001) point out this deficiency of the extant literature as follows:

[1] *Centro de Investigaciones Sociológicas* (CIS) on its spanish naming. Source: http://www.cis.es/cis/export/sites/default/-Archivos/Indicadores/documentos_html/TresProblemas.html

> "Several scales of measurement designed to track or estimate population trends regarding SRC have been developed. These scales nonetheless suffer from many shortcomings and do not allow for exhaustive, consistent measurements of responsible consumption behavior. One of the leading shortcomings of existing scales of measurement is that these scales do not make allowance for the multidimensional aspect of the concept" (Durif et al., 2011:216).

The weakness of these concepts and their associated measures is solved through the presented conceptualization of PSR, since it considers a wide range of issues that affect it. Personal Social Responsibility is defined as "*the individual orientation towards minimizing the negative impact and maximizing the positive impact on his/her social, environmental and economic environments in the long run through economic, legal, ethical, philanthropic and environmental actions"*. Examples of these behaviors could be paying attention to the environment in daily life and consumption, recycling, helping others, supporting with time or money social and cultural activities, considering ethics essential in children's education, paying the taxes, buying products that one knows that he/she will use or consume, being efficient at work or not spending more than what one earns.

After the development of these five dimensions that determine the construct presented in Chapter Two, the main goal of this chapter is to continue on the elaboration of an index that considers PSR as a formative construct. To do so, we discuss the appropriateness of the followed methodology and we subsequently test its measurement abilities. Results show that, in effect, PSR is a multidimensional formative construct formed by the *economic*, *legal*, *ethical*, *philanthropic* and *environmental* responsibilities of an individual.

Additionally, prior research in consumer behavior has shown that consumers´ responsible, ecologically or conscious behaviors are strongly related to Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (Kinnear et al., 1974; Webster, 1975; Antil, 1984; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Webb et al, 2007; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009) or Collectivism (McCarty and Shrum, 2001; Webb et al, 2007), among others. Accordingly, the second objective of this study is to analyze the influence of Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (PCE) and Collectivism on PSR. Our model confirms that these variables, two basic antecedents of responsible consumption, have a significant and positive influence on PSR. Finally, two additional measures are analyzed as outcomes of this kind of

behavior, being also demonstrated that PSR leads to a better self-esteem and satisfaction with life.

Results of this chapter validate PSR as a solid measurement instrument, and set the basis for the design of a complete model that incorporates not only antecedents, but also consequences of PSR. This complete model will be exposed in Chapter Four.

In the following sections, we proceed to determine the nature of PSR through a discussion centered on the characteristics of both reflective and formative indicators. Then, we explain the research methodology followed to validate the new measure proposed, including a brief description of the formative indicators of PSR and the variables used in this study to test its external and nomological validity. We expose the main results based on the evaluation of the measurement and the structural model, and we finally discuss the main contributions of our findings.

3.2. Conceptualization of PSR

Much has been said during the last years about the application of either reflective or formative measurement models. Although reflective measures have long tradition in social sciences and are directly based on classical test theory (Lord and Novick, 1968), formative measurement is gaining interest (Cadogan et al, 2008; Diamantopoulos et al, 2008; Cao and Duan, 2014). This has been indicated by journal issues devoted to the advancement of formative measurement (Diamantopoulos et al, 2008) and prescriptive articles suggesting that formative measurement should be more widely used or adopted in management research (Diamantopoulos et al, 2006; Law and Wong, 1999; MacKenzie et al, 2005; Podsakoff et al, 2006).

Curtis and Jackson (1962) introduced for the first time formative models, calling into question the fact of having positively correlated measures, a necessary condition for reflective measurement models. From their contribution, a new and alternative measurement perspective was developed (Blalock, 1964, 1968, 1971; Land, 1970) that has been increasingly used by researchers, especially in the fields of psychology, management and marketing. Some examples of the application of formative measurement models can be found in consumer behavior, management or marketing literature, concerning customer perceived value (Lin et al., 2005), e-commerce customer satisfaction (Giovanis, 2013), organizational networking (Thornton et al., 2014),

customer equity management (Bruhn et al., 2008), employees' response to Corporate Social Responsibility (Farooq et al., 2013), consumers' commitment towards retailers (Sánchez-Pérez and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2004), firm's reputation (Dowling, 2004; Helm, 2005), identity and culture (Witt and Rode, 2005) or quality of market-oriented behaviors (Cadogan et al., 2008), among others.

Classical test theory and formative measurement models differ in their assumptions regarding the relationship between a latent variable and its indicators (Cadogan et al, 2008), the direction of its causality, and the procedures associated with the measure development (see e.g. Diamantopoulos et al., 2006; Diamantopoulos et al., 2008; Jarvis et al., 2003). The main reason to use reflective or formative measurement models should be primarily theoretically or conceptually driven and, depending on the direction of causality between the indicators and the construct, a conventional development guideline (e.g. Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2016; Netemeyer et al., 2003; Spector, 1992) or an index construction strategy (Diamantopoulos and Winkhofer, 2001) should be applicable.

From the perspective of measuring the Personal Social Responsibility of individuals, a reflective model would have some shortcomings that a formative measurement model could overcome. As Cadogan et al. (2008) indicate, reflective measurement models -in which traditional scale development would be applicable- assume unidimensionality, and should contain only items that correlate positively with one another. Second, the items are inter-changeable and their exclusion or inclusion from the scale will have no impact on the meaning of the scale.

Nevertheless, Personal Social Responsibility is a multifaceted concept, with likely trade-offs between the different facets. For example, some authors have considered, for socially responsible consumption, the way consumers take into account the company's behaviors and engage in corporate responsibility policies (Mohr and Webb, 2005; Shanka and Goapalan, 2005; Francois-Lecompte and Roberts, 2006; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009; Webb et al., 2008; Lee and Shin, 2010; Yan and She, 2011; Ocampo et al., 2014). Some others focus their attention on the protection of the environment and their green or sustainable behavior, like recycling (Mohr and Webb, 2005; Shanka and Goapalan, 2005); Webb et al., 2008; Durif et al., 2011), the limitation or reduction of one's consumption (Francois-Lecompte and Roberts, 2006; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009; Yan and She, 2011; Durif et al., 2011; Ocampo et al., 2014) or different facets like protecting and being conscious of one's impacts on the

environment, environmental attitudes and concerns, composting, the animal protection or the use of sustainable transport (Lee, 2008; Webb et al., 2008; Durif et al., 2011; Ocampo et al., 2014; Quazi et al., 2015). Additional indicators related to the way citizens consume and contribute with their "purchasing power" to a better economy and society have also been identified through the purchase of cause-related products (Francois-Lecompte and Roberts, 2006; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009) and the support to national, local or small businesses (Francois-Lecompte and Roberts, 2006; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009; Durif et al., 2011; Yan and She, 2011; Ocmapo et al., 2014). More recently, Ocampo et al. (2014) and Quazi et al. (2015) call to an active way of consumption that involves the claim and demand of consumer's rights and a critical appraisal of business' performances, indicating that consumers have the power and responsibility to stand as a leading actor that can contribute to enhance transparency and justice within the social and economic contexts.

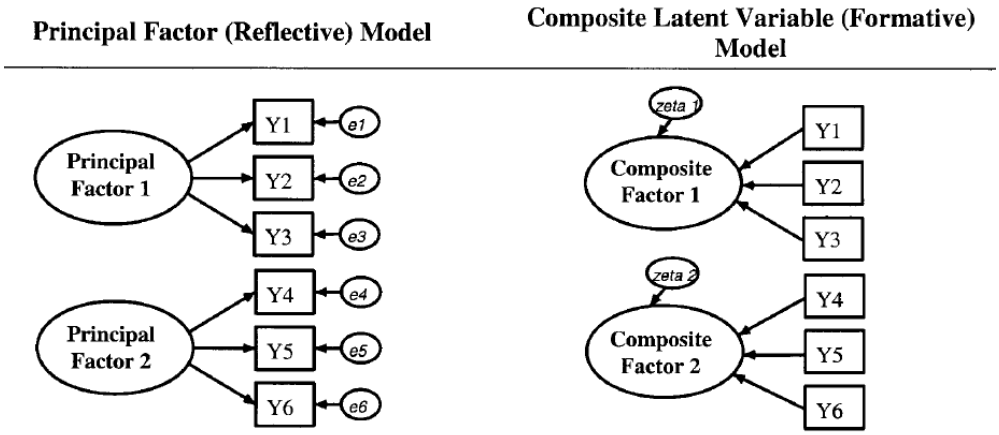
All this means that, in spite of the traditional conception of ethical and responsible consumption as a reflective measure, in fact it can be composed by various and different behaviors that do not necessarily correlate positively and that, indeed, will have an opposite operational performance with respect to reflective indicators.

Concretely, in *reflective* measures the (unobservable) construct gives rise to its (observable) indicators (Fornell and Bookstein, 1982). That is, changes in the manifested latent variable are reflected in changes in the observable indicators, being therefore the direction of the relationship from the construct to the measures. More specifically, as it was pointed before, reflective measures are assumed to represent a single dimension (Edwards, 2011) and imply that (i) the items (measures) are conceptually interchangeable, (ii) that they keep a high intercorrelation between them and (iii) that removing any of them does not alter the meaning of the construct (Bollen and Lennox, 1991; MacKenzie et al., 2005; Podsakoff et al., 2006).

On the other side, *formative* measurement models, which are practically applied through index construction procedures, view the indicators as defining characteristics of the construct (Rossieter, 2002; Jarvis, 2003). In this case the direction of causality comes from the measures to the construct, that is, the indicators are *forming* or *causing* the latent variable. This implies that changes in the indicators are expected to cause changes in the construct, whereas changes in the construct are not expected to cause changes in the indicators (Jarvis et al., 2003). Formative models operate within multidimensional constructs, which "consist of a number of interrelated attributes or

dimensions and exist in multidimensional domains. In contrast to a set of interrelated unidimensional constructs, the dimensions of a multidimensional construct can be conceptualized under an overall abstraction, and it is theoretically meaningful and parsimonious to use this overall abstraction as a representation of the dimensions" (Law et al., 1998:741).

Figure 3.1
Reflective and formative's visual representation



Source: Jarvis et al. (2003)

MacKenzie et al. (2005) reduced to five the conditions that should prevail for a construct to be considered as having formative indicators. Based on these conditions, we propose a first order reflective and second order formative measurement model of PSR (that is the Type II designed by Jarvis et al. in 2003) for the following reasons (Giovanis, 2013):

a) The formative indicators of the five first order subdimensions are defining characteristics of the second order construct (Dickinger and Stangl, 2013). This means that the *economic*, *legal*, *ethical*, *philanthropic* and *environmental* responsibilities established by a person's individual behavior define their Personal Social Responsibility behavior.
b) Changes in any of the indicators are expected to cause changes in PSR. The construct relates to an overall summative assessment by consumers based on

their personal behaviors about its five subdimensions. Thus, the direction of causality flows from the indicators to the construct.

c) The indicators do not necessarily share a common theme. The subdimensions of PSR indeed imply various scenarios in which a person can be socially responsible, which are not necessarily correlated but that, altogether, conform the construct of analysis.
d) Eliminating an indicator may alter the conceptual domain of the construct. This condition is especially relevant in our model, since we are using CSR literature translating the dimensions provided for organizations to the individual behavior. Getting rid of any of them would nullify our conceptual background and main proposition, altering the construct's meaning.
e) Finally, the first order constructs are not expected to have the same antecedents and consequences. Additionally, the five first-order components are not antecedents of PSR, but rather are integral parts of it.

Given that the five conditions for formative construct development are met, in the next sections we proceed to describe the constructs, measures, hypotheses and methodology that test whether PSR can be treated as a formative measurement instrument. We finish the chapter with an exposure of the main results and a discussion of the findings.

3.3. Study 2

3.3.1. Research model: constructs, measures and hypothesis

The research proposes a higher-order construct composed by first order reflective and second order formative indicators, in which the first order reflective measures conform the dimensions (also named *lower-order components* –LOC-) that will formatively define the main construct: Personal Social Responsibility (or *higher-order component* –HOC-). We identified a number of constructs and their associated measures in order to test concept of PSR.

First, PSR is a new construct of which measures have been developed and classified in Chapter 2. It includes the *economic*, *legal*, *ethical*, *philanthropic* and

environmental responsibilities of a person, each of them reflectively measured and including items of a previously purified scale (see Table 2.3 of Chapter Two for further details).

Second, we performed external validity assessment as an additional step in order to evaluate the nomological validity for the conceptualization of PSR. This step examines how well the index relates to measures of other variables (Bagozzi, 1994). This implies the correlation of the index with external measures, in this case of both antecedents and consequences of PSR. The four measures (two antecedents, two consequences) were identified from the literature of CSR and responsible consumption, and have the main provisional contribution of assessing the validity of the formative measurement and the structural model. In Study 3 of Chapter 4, additional variables are considered for further analysis in order to give rise to a complete model of Personal Social Responsibility.

As Edwards (2011) asserts, to identify the model there is a need of either use direct reflective measures of the construct, or introduce at least two additional reflective variables as its outcomes. As the author states:

> "When choosing outcome measures to identify models (…), there are certain advantages to using direct reflective measures of the construct rather than measures assigned to outcomes of the construct (Howell et al., 2007; Jarvis et al., 2003). (...) Direct reflective measures are also useful when the theory underlying the model treats [the construct] as a final criterion with no further outcomes, in which case the model can be identified without adding outcomes that would be considered inappropriate or irrelevant from a conceptual standpoint. Direct reflective measures of [the construct] can usually be developed provided that the construct represented by [the construct] can be defined in critical realist terms and is conceived separately from the dimensions (Edwards, 2011:283,384)".

In the case of PSR, the construct has not been measured itself because of possible misinterpretations by the respondent. This means that asking for a general believe of our own social responsibility would be difficult to interpret in terms of the construct's entire domain, and not only of the traditional associations with, for example, environmental or philanthropic issues. Additionally, PSR is not a final criterion without further outcomes, because behaving in a certain manner has consequences on one's life and it is not therefore a goal on itself. However, PLS does not admit non-measured

latent variables (Sánchez, 2013; Aldás-Manzano, 2015), thus leading to the inclusion of further variables to identify the model through the utilization of one of the approaches proposed in the literature, called the *two-step approach*.

Therefore, to achieve the identification of the model in this case when direct reflective measures of the construct are not included, it must be supplemented with at least two reflective measures specified as direct or indirect outcomes of the construct (Bollen and Davis, 2009; Edwards, 2001; MacCallum and Browne, 1993). Concretely, the methodology calls to the inclusion of *outcomes* of the construct. This means that, in our case, including two *antecedents* of PSR to test whether the construct is suitably developed is not strictly necessary. Nevertheless, literature in consumer ethics has mainly used reflective measures and therefore focuses on the identification and the definition of the characteristics of a responsible consumer, but not on the consequences of this kind of behavior. This is why, in addition to the two outcomes required, we also include two antecedents based on the literature review. These four variables will be further detailed in the next chapter, leaving the results of the current study to the analysis of the development of the measure.

In the following subsections, we provide a definition and a broad explication of the measures considered in the higher-order model that will be tested, including the formative dimensions of the construct, two antecedents and two consequences, constituting the rest of the hypothesis of the chapter. As PSR is a partially new research construct and there are few previously empirically validated structural models (none of them considering formative indicators nor including both antecedents and consequences of this kind of behavior), we develop it based on the literature of responsible consumption and Corporate Social Responsibility. The constructs and their indicators employed in this second research –that will be extended in the next chapter- are summarized in Table 3.1.

a. Dimensions as formative indicators of Personal Social Responsibility

We identified five dimensions through the literature review and the initial exploratory, principal component factor analysis. This indicates that five subdimensions compose the construct of PSR, being specifically: (a) *economic responsibilities*, which refer to the personal economic performance and include three items related to the extent to which people purchase or consume only what they need; (b) *legal responsibilities*

imply two simple and concrete ideas that are obeying the law and paying the taxes, which can be broadly defined as acting in respect of the norms and rules mandated by a certain society; (c) *ethical responsibilities* represent the way ethics is included in a person and his/her family's life, and its items reflect how ethics has contributed to a person's success, if a person includes it in the education of his/her children, the way honesty is educated within the members of a family or whether one has ever harmed others or not; (d) fourth, p*hilanthropic responsibilities* comprise five items measuring the extent to which people dedicate time, effort or money to helping others, and it is specifically composed of all the voluntary actions made by an individual to improve its social environment, such as the collaboration with a non-profit organization, the support and investment of time or money to cultural and social activities and, in general, any other active and philanthropic attitudes and behaviors; (e) lastly, the *environmental responsibilities* include personal awareness of environmental issues, personal efforts carried out to reduce pollution and the choice and purchase of products taking into account environmental reasons (it consists of active purchase actions such as buying products that do not harm the environment and stop buying those believed or known to have a negative impact on it).

As it was already explained in the previous chapter, (a) to (d) responsibilities were established by Carroll (1979) to determine social responsibilities of enterprises, being the environmental responsibilities later added based on the literature review, the results of the qualitative research and its importance on consumer's everyday decisions and actions. We expect that all of them contribute to the PSR construct, being therefore its formative indicators.

Given that the conditions to consider a construct having formative indicators described by MacKenzie et al (2005) and specified by Giovannis (2013) are all met in the case of PSR, first order reflective and second order formative indicators are proposed, leading to the first hypothesis:

H1: Personal Social Responsibility is a multidimensional formative construct made up of five dimensions, related to the:

a) economic (*Eco*),

b) legal (*Leg*),

c) ethical (*Eth*),

d) philanthropic (*Phi*), and

e) environmental (*Env*) responsibilities of a person.

b. Collectivism and Perceived Consumer Effectiveness as antecedents of Personal Social Responsibility

We identified antecedents of PSR on previous literature on CnSR. Two of the most used variables to test the validity of related constructs are Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (Kinnear et al., 1974; Webster, 1975; Antil, 1984; Roberts, 1996; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Webb et al, 2007; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009; Lee, 2008; Singh, 2009; Ocampo et al., 2014) and Collectivism (McCarty and Shrum, 2001; Webb et al, 2007).

Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (PCE) is defined in the literature as the consumers' perception that their actions can make a difference and may help to solve different ethical problems (Kinnear et al., 1974). That is, the belief that individuals can positively influence on resolving social and environmental problems (Straughan and Roberts, 1999). Prior research in consumer behavior shows that consumers´ responsible, ecologically or conscious behaviors strongly relate to it (Kinnear et al., 1974; Webster, 1975; Antil, 1984; Roberts, 1996; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Webb et al, 2007; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009; Lee, 2008; Singh, 2009; Ocampo et al., 2014).

We expect that people who believe that they can positively change the world with their individual actions will tend to behave more socially responsible, thus leading to the second hypothesis:

H2: Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (*PCE*) will positively influence the level of Personal Social Responsibility (*PSR*).

Additionally, Collectivism *(Col)*, which has traditionally been analyzed in contrast to individualism, measures the extent to which a person is willing to make personal sacrifices on behalf of the good of the group, and it relates positively to responsible consumer behavior (McCarty and Shrum, 2001; Webb et al, 2007). In the case of PSR, we expect that being a collectivist person –in contrast with an individualist attitude-, that is being more aware of the group, has a positive and significant effect on the level of personal responsibility, leading to the following hypothesis:

H3: Collectivism (*Col*) will positively influence the level of Personal Social Responsibility (*PSR*).

c. Self-esteem and Satisfaction with Life as consequences of Personal Social Responsibility

When formative constructs are not directly measured, they must be related to –at least- two dependent variables to have an acceptable external validity. This means that we need two consequences of PSR to test the measurement model. However, literature on ethical and responsible consumption analyzes models in which almost only independent variables were included. This is primarily because previous research has focused on the *reasons* why a person behaves in a certain way, but not in the *consequences* that this behavior can have on someone's personal life. In addition, none of the models implies formative measures, and consequently outcomes have not been needed.

Within the organizational context, research on CSR has tried to demonstrate the effects of this corporate policies and strategies on the internal and external organizations' benefits. For example, previous literature concludes that the application of CSR programs to the enterprise contribute to generate long-term profitability (Burke and Logsdon, 1996; Lantos, 2001; Husted, 2003; Windsor, 2001; Greenfield, 2004), reputation (Du et al., 2007), and stakeholders loyalty and satisfaction (Anderson et al., 1994; Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Nguyen and Leblanc, 2001; Ismail et al., 2006; Isa, 2011), among others. Based on these findings, as well as on our model conceptualization, that gives an imperative position to CSR to delimit PSR's dimensionality, we believe that the main CSR's outcomes can be directly translated to the personal behavior. Concretely, in the current study we propose that PSR can have a positive influence on the self-esteem of a person and, moreover, on the satisfaction with respect to his/her life, leading to the next two hypotheses:

H4: Personal Social Responsibility will positively influence the level of individual Self-esteem (*SEst*).

H5: Personal Social Responsibility (*PSR*) will positively influence the level of Satisfaction with Life (*SWL*).

We use the variable *Satisfaction with Life* of a person (as a measure of happiness or subjective well-being) as a parallelism to the *Profitability* of an organization, considering satisfaction or happiness as the main goal that a person can pursue (H4). Second, we translate the *Reputation* of an enterprise to the *Self-esteem* of an individual, since both of them contribute to the internal and external image of the subject (H5). Therefore, the current study uses Satisfaction with Life (*SWL*) and Self-esteem (*SEst*) as the main consequences that derive from the individual's responsible behavior.

Lastly, as well as *reputation* has been demonstrated to have a significant effect on *profitability* (Roberts and Dowling, 2002), we propose as our final research question the effect of *Self-esteem* on *Satisfaction with Life.* This contributes to set the sixth hypothesis of Study 2, considering the relation between the aforementioned consequences:

H6: Self-esteem (*SEst*) will positively influence the level of Satisfaction with Life (*SWL*)

3.3.2. Research methodology

The unit of analysis of this second study is the individual older than eighteen years old. We collected the data through a structured questionnaire, undertaken within the members of a southeastern university in Spain. We designed the e-questionnaire and delivered it by email, with the aim of collecting data about their PSR and the rest of the variables included to test the formative measures in three different blocks. The first one represented the consequences of PSR, that is how satisfied the respondents were with their life and, second, the level of Self-esteem or how they felt about themselves. Measures of Satisfaction with Life were taken from the scale developed by Pavot and Diener (1993) and Self-esteem from Rosenberg (1965). The second block included the 19 items that resulted from the purified scale of the first study (developed in Chapter Two), and considered the individual behavior's regarding with his/her economic, legal, ethical, philanthropic and environmental responsible behaviors. Finally, we collected

measures of the level of Collectivism, including four items based on Webb et al. (2007), and Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (PCE) on, based on Straughan and Roberts (1999) and Ellen (1994). Table 3.1 reports all of the items and their supporting references.

After the elimination of missing data, 212 observations remained in our database. The sample included a 42% of males and a 58% of females; the 36,8% of them had finished high school, the 4,7% professional training, the 32,1% university studies and the 26,4% had a master degree or a PhD. Regarding their socio-economic status, 2,4% of the sample declared having low-medium family incomes, 18,4% had medium incomes, almost half of the sample (47,2%) had medium-high incomes and the rest of the respondents (32,1%) declared a high level of family incomes. Finally, almost the 40% of the sample was between 18 and 23 years old, 20,8% between 24 and 30, 11,8% were between 31 and 40, 20,3% were between 41 and 54, 7,5% above 55 and under 65, and only a 0.5% was above 65 years old, something that would not be weird if we take into account that we are having as our principal sample students and workers.

We used partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) based on survey data to empirically test the hypotheses. PLS-SEM is recommended to be well-suited for research situations where theory is less developed (Chung et al., 2003, Gefen et al, 2011; Hair et al, 2013, Wetzles et al, 2009) and formatively constructs are part of the structural model (Becker et al, 2012; Hair et al, 2013). Indeed, the increasing need in modeling formative constructs, especially in marketing and management/organizational research, has stimulated great interest in its application (e.g. Diamantopoulos and Winkhofer, 2001; Jarvis et al, 2003; MacKenzie et al, 2005). Thus, PLS-SEM appeared to be appropriate for the present study to conceptualize and empirically test the proposed measure. In the following section, we outline the instrument development, validation and dissemination processes.

Table 3.1

Constructs and indicators of the higher-order model

Constructs	Indicators	Supporting reference
Satisfaction with Life (SWL)	In most ways my life is closed to my ideal (SWL_01) The conditions of my life are excellent (SWL_02) I am satisfied with my life (SWL_03) So far I have gotten the important things I want in life (SWL_04) If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing (SWL_05)	Pavot and Diener (1993)
Self-esteem (SEst)	I feel important (SEST_01) I have a high self-esteem (SEST_02) I feel that others need me (SEST_03) I feel good about myself (SEST_04)	Rosenberg (1965)
Philanthropic responsibilities (Phi)	I collaborate with an NGO (PHI_01) I support social and cultural activities with money or time (PHI_02) I encourage my friends and family to participate in charitable activities (PHI_03) I make donations to charities that support social and environmental causes (PHI_04) I dedicate effort and money to helping others (PHI_05)	*Chapter 2*
Environmental responsibilities (Env)	I pay attention to the environmental protection in daily life and consumpt (ENV_01) I make personal sacrifices to reduce pollution (ENV_02) I do not buy products that potentially harm the environment (ENV_03) I have stopped buying certain products for environmental reasons (ENV_04)	*Chapter 2*
Ethical responsibilities (Eth)	Ethics has been essential for me to do right in life (ETH_01) I educate my children (or I would do so if I had them) considering ethics (ETH_02) In our family, all members are educated to be honest with others (ETH_03) I have never harmed others, although I could have benefited from it (ETH_04)	*Chapter 2*
Legal responsibilities (Leg)	I meet my legal obligations (LEG_01) I always pay my taxes (LEG_02) I always try to follow the law (LEG_03)	*Chapter 2*
Economic responsibilities (Eco)	I do not consume more than necessary (ECO_01) I buy products that I know that I will use later (ECO_02) I do not spend more than what I earn (ECO_03)	*Chapter 2*
Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (PCE)	It is worthy to make efforts to reduce pollution (PCE_01) When I buy products, I try to consider how my use of them will affect the environment and other consumers (PCE_02) What every individual does for the environment will be useful to change the world (PCE_03) Each consumer can have a positive effect on society by purchasing products sold by socially responsible companies (PCE_04)	Kinnear et al. (1974), Webster (1975), Antil (1984), Ellen et al. (1991) and Ellen (1994), Roberts (1996), Straughan and Roberts (1999), Carrigan and Attalla (2001), Kim and Choi (2005), Webb et al. (2007), D'Astous and Legendre (2009)
Collectivism (Col)	It is very important to work hard for the goals of a group, even if it does not result in personal recognition (COL_01) It is very important to do what is good for most of the people in the community, even at a personal cost (COL_02) It is very important to help others in the community who are in need (COL_03) One should never intentionally harm another person (COL_04)	McCarty and Shrum (2001), Webb et al. (2007), adapted from Forsyth (1980)

3.3.3. Incorporation of the second order construct through the *two-step approach*

PSR is a higher order, multidimensional construct, measured through its five dimensions and it has no manifest variables connected to it –that is, it has not been measured itself because of possible misinterpretations by the respondent-. In this situation, four different possible solutions are given in the literature of PLS: (a) the most popular approach when estimating higher order constructs in PLS-PM is the *repeated indicators approach* (Sánchez, 2013), also known as the *hierarchical component model* or the *superblock approach* (Wold, 1980; Sánchez, 2013; Aldás-Manzano, 2015); (b) the *two-step* or *two-stage approach*, also known as the *patch approach* (Hair et al., 2014; Sánchez, 2013; Aldás-Manzano, 2015); (c) the *build-up approach* (Aldás-Manzano, 2015), also considered as a second version of the *two-step approach* but with a different procedure; and the (d) *hybrid* or *give-away approach* (Sánchez, 2013).

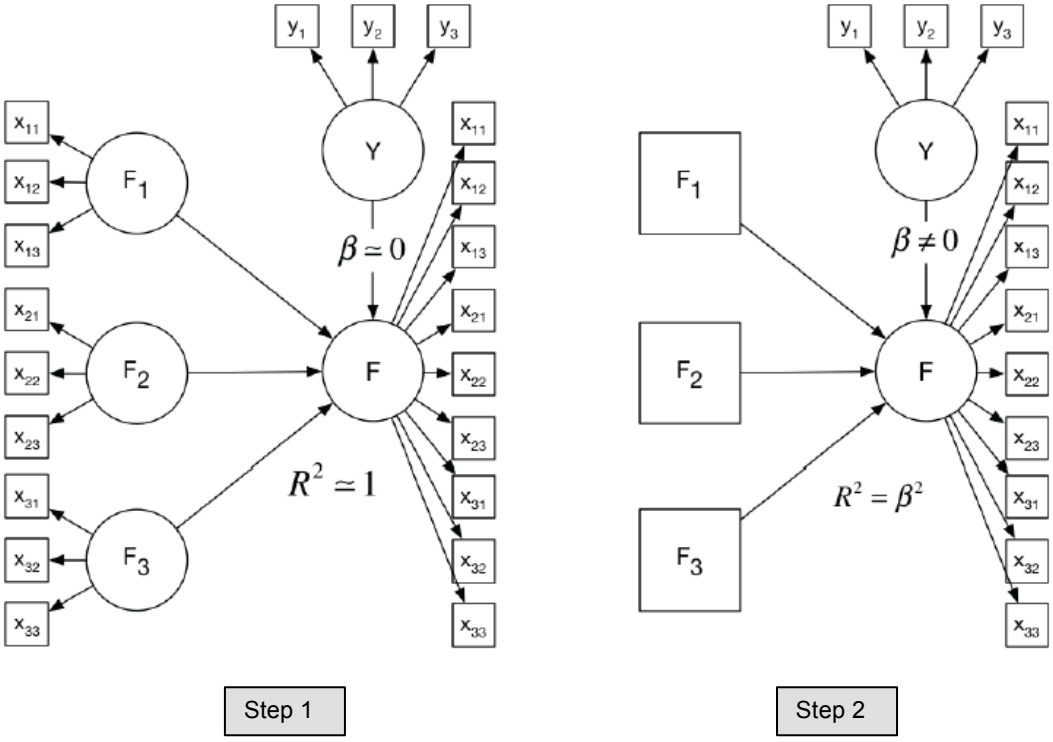
We applied *the two-step approach* for various reasons: (i) not all the manifest variables of the LOC and the HOC are treated in a reflective way, which is a prerequisite for solution (a); we are not willing to sacrifice some of the indicators in the LOC to use them as indicators in the HOC, that is procedure (d), which would imply getting rid of some indicators of the dimensions and using them to measure PSR; and finally, we use the principal component analysis of the five indicators to measure PSR rather than eliminating the construct of the model –solution (c)-, thus utilizing solution (b). Moreover, the *two-step approach* offers advantages when estimating higher-order constructs with formative indicators (Sánchez, 2013).

This method is mainly applied to second order constructs when the relation between the dimensions and the principal construct is formative (Aldás-Manzano, 2015), and consists of advancing on the *repeated indicators approach* through the following steps (see Figure 3.2 for a general illustration of the procedure):

1. The model is first estimated repeating the indicators of the five dimensions (*economic*, *legal*, *ethical*, *philanthropic* and *environmental*) in the construct PSR. In this phase, the value of the R^2 associated to the construct is equal or almost equal to 1, leaving no possibilities to other constructs to have significant relations with it (see Figure 3.3).
2. In the second step, the *principal component analyses* (PCAs) scores of the five lower-order constructs (dimensions of PSR) are subsequently used as new indicators for the higher-order construct on a separate path model, considering

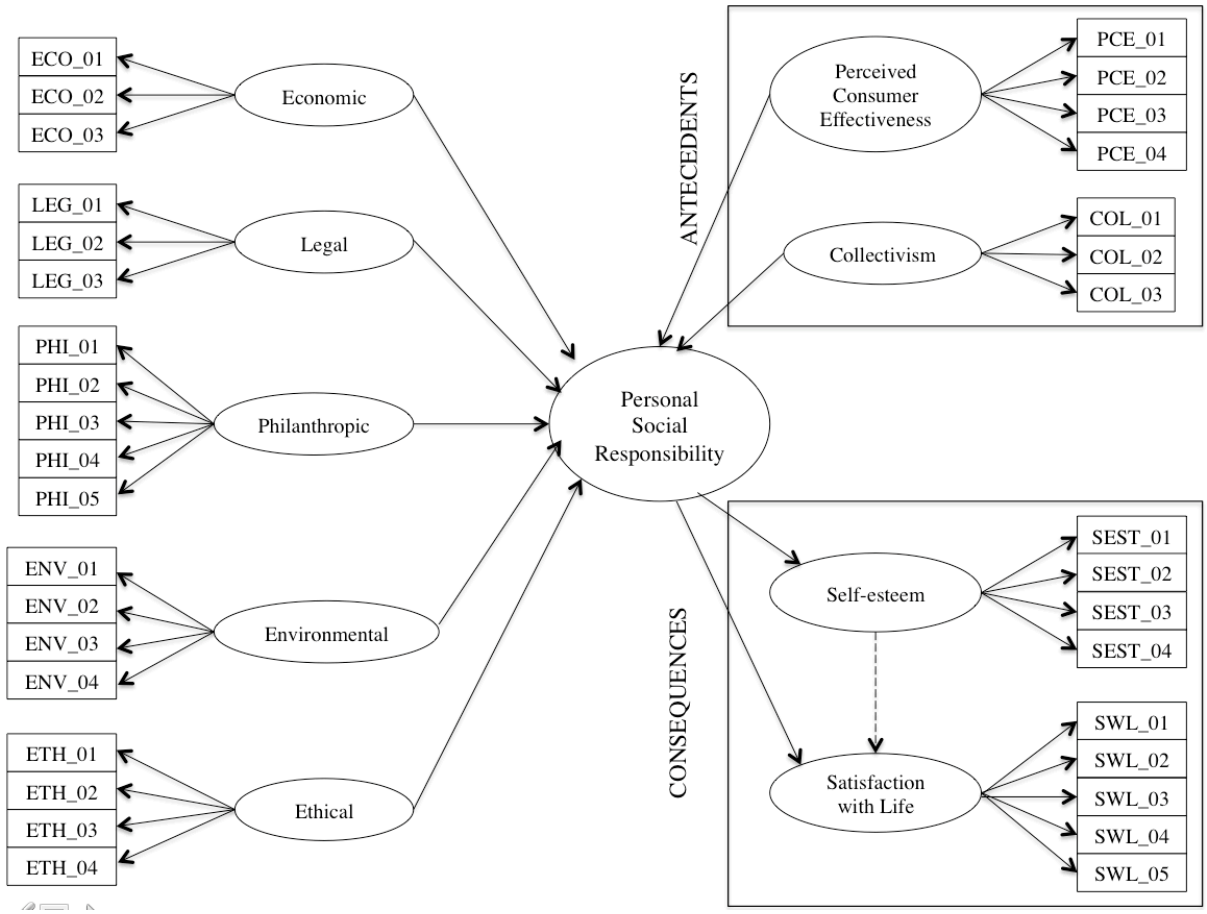
them as its manifested variables. It should be noticed that, in this point of the analysis, the value of R^2 associated to PSR is no longer equal to 1 (0.34) and the paths coming from the Collectivism (ß=0.36) and the Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (ß=0.34) constructs are different to zero (see Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.2
Evolution of a model through the *two-step approach*



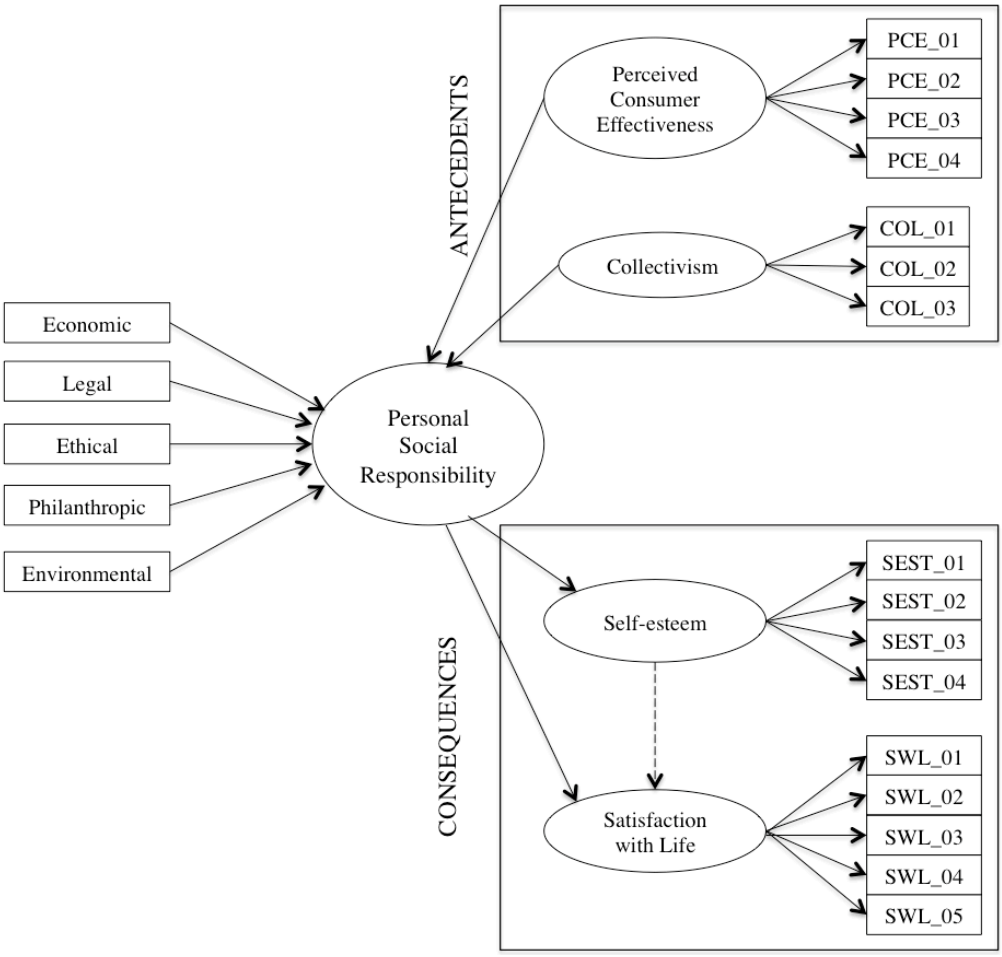
Source: Aldas-Manzano (2015)

Figure 3.3
Proposed research model. First step of the *two-step approach*



After the application of the *two-step approach*, which gives rise to a model that includes the new measure of Personal Social Responsibility –with its PCAs scores as its manifested variables, that is the *Economic*, *Legal, Ethical, Philanthropic* and *Environmental* dimensions in Figure 3.4-; its relation with measures of Collectivism and Perceived Consumer Effectiveness as antecedents of this behavior; and Satisfaction with Life (as a measure of the level of happiness or subjective well-being of a person) and Self-esteem as its consequences, we proceed in the following sections to provide empirical validation of the measurement and structural model.

Figure 3.4
Final research model. Second step of the *two-step approach*



3.3.4. Evaluation of the measurement model

We examined the internal consistency and reliability, as well as the discriminant and the convergent validity, to assess the adequacy of the first order reflective measures of the model (including *Perceived Consumer Effectiveness*, *Collectivism*, *Satisfaction with Life* and *Self-esteem*). We used PLS to test these analyses, including measures of composite reliability, average variance extracted, Cronbach alphas, indicators' loadings and HTMT ratios.

Following Aldás-Manzano (2015), measurement validity for reflective indicators must meet the following requirements:

a) To test internal consistency and reliability, composite reliability (CR) and Cronbach alphas must be higher than 0.70 (Nunally, 1978).

b) In order to verify convergent validity, indicators' loadings must be significant and greater than 0.70, and the average variance extracted (AVE) should be above 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

Table 3.2 shows that all the measures exceed the minimum levels required. First, composite reliability (CR) for all constructs are greater than 0.88 and the Cronbach alphas of the constructs are greater than 0.79, indicating the existence of an adequate internal consistency and reliability (Nunally, 1978). Second, discriminant validity is adequate when constructs have an average variance extracted (AVE) greater than 0.5, which means that at least fifty percent of the measurement variance is captured by the construct (Chin, 1998). In our case, all AVEs are at least greater than 0.66, and item loadings are significant at a 99% level of confidence interval, showing a strong support for convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

Table 3.2
Reliability and convergent validity of the measurement model (Study 2)

Latent Variable	Indicator	Loading	Weight	Lower limit	Upper limit	Cronbach α	AVE	CR
Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (Pce)	PCE_01	0.78**		0.551	0.869	0.83	0.67	0.89
	PCE_02	0.89**		0.839	0.921			
	PCE_03	0.86**		0.794	0.904			
	PCE_04	0.73**		0.606	0.825			
Collectivism (Col)	COL_01	0.82**		0.701	0.883	0.79	0.71	0.88
	COL_02	0.91**		0.860	0.935			
	COL_03	0.79**		0.717	0.843			
Self-Esteem (Sest)	SEST_01	0.87**		0.805	0.905	0.89	0.75	0.92
	SEST _02	0.93**		0.907	0.948			
	SEST _03	0.79**		0.660	0.838			
	SEST _04	0.87**		0.753	0.905			
Satisfaction with Life (SWL)	SAT_01	0.89**		0.854	0.911	0.86	0.66	0.90
	SAT_02	0.77**		0.681	0.831			
	SAT_03	0.87**		0.796	0.901			
	SAT_04	0.80**		0.697	0.855			
	SAT_05	0.71**		0.613	0.783			
Personal Social Responsibility (Psr)	Economic	0.62**	0.23**	0.118	0.310	N/A	N/A	N/A
	Ethical	0.76**	0.40**	0.337	0.486			
	Philanthropic	0.59**	0.30**	0.227	0.399			
	Legal	0.67**	0.29**	0.208	0.365			
	Environmental	0.67**	0.28**	0.183	0.383			

Note: Lower and upper limits at the 99% bca confidence interval; CR = Composed Reliability; AVE = Average Variance Extracted; N/A = Not Applicable; **$p < 0{,}01$; *$p < 0{,}05$

Additionally, to test the discriminant validity for reflective indicators, the square root of the AVE of a particular latent variable must be higher than the highest correlation between that variable and the rest of the variables of the model, as well as

the HTMT ratios should be under 0.90. Table 3.3 shows that all the correlations between the different latent variables (in the lower half of the matrix) are lower than the square roots of shared variance between the constructs (in bold along the diagonal), and the HTMT ratios (in the upper half of the matrix) are all under 0.90, ranging from 0.100 to 0.716, thus supporting first order constructs' discriminant validity.

Table 3.3
Discriminant validity of the measurement model (Study 2)

Latent Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Perceived Consumer Effectiveness	**0.818**	0.452	0.519	0.118	0.100
2. Collectivism	0.373	**0.841**	0.661	0.308	0.228
3. Personal Social Responsibility	N/A	N/A	N/A	0.480	0.406
4. Satisfaction with Life	0.100	0.256	N/A	**0.810**	0.716
5. Self-esteem	0.073	0.188	N/A	0.635	**0.865**

[a] Square Root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) is reported in bold along the diagonal; [b] Correlations between latent variables are reported in the lower half of the matrix; [c] Heterotrait-Heteromethod/Monotrait-Heteromethod (HTMT) Ratios are reported in the upper half of the matrix; N/A = Not Applicable

This way, all reflective measures comfortably meet the standard requirements, indicating an adequate internal consistency and reliability, and a great convergent and discriminant validity.

On the other hand, validating the measurement of formative constructs has a different procedure, since its indicators should not be correlated and certain values –as the Cronbach alpha or the composite reliability- are not applicable. In this case, two steps must be followed: a) evaluating whether there might be a problem of multicollinearity between the indicators, that could cause an overestimation of the standard errors (Hair et al., 2014), and b) testing the significance of the formative indicators' weights and their relevance on the evaluated construct. Thus, based on Hair et al. (2013), we evaluated the measurement model of the formative indicators in terms of assessing multicollinearity, the indicator weights and their significance and, lastly, the indicators loadings and their significance.

Multicollinearity exists when R^2 is over 0.80 (Hair et al, 2011), the tolerance (TOL) is under 0.20, or the variance inflation factor (VIF) of each of the indicators is above or equal the value of 5 (Aldás-Manzano, 2015), although some authors have set this last maximum value at a higher limit of 10 (Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer, 2001; Gujarati, 2003; Götz and Liehr-Gobbers, 2004). The VIF reflects the part of the variance that can be explained by the indicators of the construct. In this case, Table 3.4

indicates that all R^2 vary between 0.21 and 0.35, and the VIF's are between 1.27 and 1.55, thus resulting in no problems of excessive collinearity.

Table 3.4
Multicollinearity test (Study 2)

	R^2	VIF
Economic	0.21	1.27
Philanthropic	0.28	1.38
Legal	0.34	1.52
Environmental	0.35	1.55
Ethical	0.35	1.53

R^2 = Multiple R-Squared; VIF = Variance Inflation Factor

Finally, after applying a bootstrapping procedure (1.000 samples) to assess the significance of the loadings and weights of all the variables considered under analysis, we find that all of the items' weights of the formative construct are significant at a 99% of confidence interval (these results are presented in Table 3.2), thus meeting the general assessments for formative indicators maintenance.

Some authors consider the elimination of formative indicators only when problems of multicollinearity occur (Sánchez, 2013). In the case of the PSR construct, it has already been demonstrated that this problem does not exist, and this could be therefore a sufficient reason for maintaining the five dimensions. Nevertheless, we follow Aldás-Manzano (2015) indications, which seem to be more precise, strict and demanding. The author shows the following cases that can arise when evaluating a formative measurement instrument:

a) If the weight is significant, the item is retained and interpreted as a standard coefficient of regression. This is the case of the five dimensions, that is, the ethical, philanthropic, legal, environmental and economic responsibilities, of which relative contributions to the construct are of 0.40, 0.30 and 0.29, 0.28 and 0.23, respectively.
b) The indicator can also be maintained even when its weight is not significant, if its loading is high (above 0.50). This situation is also given in all the dimensions, with loadings ranging from 0.59 to 0.76. Additionally, all of them are significant at a 99% of confidence level.

c) If the indicator's weight is not significant, the loading is low (under 0.50) and not significant, this indicator should be eliminated from the construct.

a) The last case corresponds to a situation when the indicator's weight is not significant and its loading is low (<0.50) but significant, leading the decision of its maintenance to the researcher's criteria. It is in this moment when the researcher must evaluate the conceptual relevance of the indicator and its possible overlap with the others defining the construct.

In this point of the analysis, we find that all the dimensions of PSR meet all the requirements for their maintenance, thus being a valid and strong measurement instrument. These results imply that the hypotheses H1a, H1b, H1c, H1d and H1d are finally supported, and that the contribution to the Personal Social Responsibility construct comes mainly from the *ethical* dimension, followed respectively by the *philanthropic, legal, environmental* and *economic* responsibilities of the individual.

Therefore, results show that the proposed instrument achieves acceptable levels of validity and reliability. Overall, the measurement model exhibits sufficiently strong psychometric properties to support further analysis and a valid testing of the structural model. After the assurance of an adequate measurement model, we proceed to evaluate the structural model through the hypothesis testing in the following section.

3.3.4. Evaluation of the structural model

After assessing the quality of the measurement model, the next stage is to assess its structural part (Sánchez, 2013:67). This means that, to further strengthen the validity of the proposed concept, the nomological validity must be assessed through the analysis of the coefficients of determination (R^2) and the predictive relevance (Q^2) of the dependent latent variables, as well as the significance of the regression coefficients of the structural part of the model (hypothesis testing).

We used a bootstrapping procedure (1.000 samples) to assess the significance of the hypothesized paths and the amount of variance in the dependent variables attributed to the explanatory variables (Hair et al., 2013). The results of the analysis are presented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5
Evaluation of the structural model and hypothesis contrast (Study 2)

Hypothesis	Description	Standardized *ß*	*t* Value
H2	Perceived Consumer Effectiveness → Personal Social Responsibility	0.244**	3.48
H3	Collectivism → Personal Social Responsibility	0.421**	6.90
H4	Personal Social Responsibility → Self-esteem	0.315**	4.71
H5	Personal Social Responsibility → Satisfaction with Life	0.201**	3.98
H6	Self-esteem → Satisfaction with Life	0.571**	11.06

R^2 (Psr)=0.31; R^2 (Sat)=0.44; R^2 (Sest)=0.10; Q^2 (Psr)=0.13;
Q^2 (Sat)=0.27; Q^2 (Sest)=0.07; $^{**}p < 0{,}01$; $^{*}p < 0{,}05$

The predictive power of the model can be assessed by observing the amount of variance attributed to the latent variables (i.e. R^2) and the value of the predictive relevance Q^2 (Cao and Duang, 2014). Table 3.5 shows that all Q^2 are positive (above zero), thus providing support for the model's predictive relevance regarding the latent variables. Additionally, R^2 values are significant at a 95% of confidence level, indicating an adequate and satisfactory predictive relevance of the model.

Lastly, nomological validity is concerned with the extent to which a construct is related to other existing relevant constructs (Thornton et al., 2014). In order to test how well PSR relates with other independent (antecedents) and dependent (consequences) measures, the nomological validity was established based on five hypotheses.

First, it was proposed that a person scoring high in Perceived Consumer Effectiveness would tend to behave more socially responsible (H2). Results show that the hypothesis is accepted (ß=0.244, p<0.01), indicating that people will behave in a more socially responsible way if they believe that their actions will have a positive impact on the society and the environment, or that they are contributing to solve certain problems that affect the world. This result is consistent with the literature, since *PCE* is one of the most used and relevant variables when predicting socially responsible consumer behavior. For example, Webb et al. (2007) found PCE to be significantly, positively related to the three factors of socially responsible consumption: the more respondents believed their actions made a difference, the more likely they were to be influenced by CSR Performance and environmental impact in their purchase and usage decisions and to recycle (Webb et al., 2007:96).

Second, the model indicated that people scoring high on Collectivism (in opposition to individualism) would be more socially responsible (H3). This hypothesis is also supported (ß=0.421, p<0.01), indeed having a stronger influence on PSR than PCE. This result indicates that a person willing to make efforts to favor the group, and

not himself as an individual, will behave more socially responsibly. In the work by Webb et al. (2007) they also used, in addition to PCE, the relation between collectivism and socially responsible consumption. Their results partially supported the significance of this relationship: while all correlations between collectivism and each factor was positive, the only significant relationship was with CSR Performance (Webb et al., 2007:96).

Although self-esteem has been used in some other research regarding ethical or responsible consumption (Kinnear et al., 1974), variables related to a concern of the self-image have been considered as a motivation for ethical consumption. However, results of the current study indicate that self-esteem appears to be a consequence of Personal Social Responsibility (ß=0.315, $p<0.01$) –thus supporting H4-, which means that a person who behaves more socially responsible will feel better about himself.

Results also confirm that this behavior will have a positive and significant effect on the overall satisfaction with life (ß=0.201, $p<0.01$), supporting H5.

Additionally, the strongest influence of all paths considered in the model is the one that comes from Self-esteem to Satisfaction with Life (ß=0.571, $p<0.01$), meaning that a person that feels well with himself will indeed feel also more satisfied with his/her life. This result contributes to the support of the last hypothesis, H6.

In summary, all the hypotheses are confirmed at a 99% of confidence level. As it was theoretically proposed, Perceived Consumer Effectiveness and Collectivism have a positive and significant influence on Personal Social Responsibility, Personal Social Responsibility leads to a better Self-esteem and Satisfaction with Life, and finally Self-esteem also has a positive and significant effect on Satisfaction with Life. These results indicate that the Personal Social Responsibility is therefore a new construct that suitably achieves all the methodological requirements to have a solid construction and to be a congruent measurement instrument.

3.4. Discussion

In spite of the traditional conception of ethical and responsible consumption as a reflective measure, Personal Social Responsibility stands as a higher order, multidimensional construct, measured or composed by its five dimensions concerning the economic, legal, ethical, philanthropic and environmental behaviors of the

individual, that do not necessarily correlate positively with each other and that altogether conceptually determine the construct. This way, we consider PSR as a formative construct and we develop its measure through an index construction procedure, with its dimensions as indicators defining it (Rossieter, 2002; Jarvis, 2003).

We followed an index construction procedure for the development of the formative construct. We made it for various reasons delimited by Giovanis (2013), that were, i) the fact that the *economic*, *legal*, *ethical*, *philanthropic* and *environmental* responsibilities established by a person's individual behavior define their PSR behavior; ii) the direction of causality flowed from the indicators to the construct, what means that the construct relates to an overall summative assessment by consumers based on their personal behaviors about its five subdimensions; iii) the subdimensions of PSR implied various scenarios in which a person can be socially responsible, that do not share a common theme, which are not necessarily correlated but that, altogether, conform the construct of analysis; iv) eliminating an indicator may altered the conceptual domain of the construct; v) and, lastly, the first order constructs were not expected to have the same antecedents and consequences.

Results of this chapter show that PSR stands as a new construct that suitably achieves all the methodological requirements to have a solid construction and to be a congruent measurement instrument as a formative index. To test its internal and external validity, the construct was related to four variables, two of them being antecedents and the other two consequences of this kind of behavior. All of the hypotheses were confirmed at a 99% of confidence level.

First, we confirmed that Perceived Consumer Effectiveness, that is, the belief that one's actions will have a positive impact on the society and the environment, or that will contribute to the solution of certain problems that affect the world, leads the individual to be more socially responsible. Second, people who are more collectivistic (referring to Collectivism in opposition to individualism), that is, who are willing to make efforts to favor the group upon them as individuals, are also more socially responsible. Previous works have also analyzed the relationship between these two variables and socially responsible consumption. For example, Webb et al. (2007) found that the more respondents believed their actions made a difference, the more likely they were to be influenced by CSR Performance and environmental impact in their purchase and usage decisions and to recycle. That is, there was a positive and significant influence of PCE on the three factors of socially responsible consumption. Additionally,

the authors found that collectivism had a positive impact on the three factors, but this relation was only significant with CSR Performance.

None of the previous works on ethical or responsible consumption has used or analyzed the consequences of this behavior. Therefore, based on the literature of CSR, we translated the main consequences that behaving responsibly have from the organizational to the individual context. As well as CSR leads to generate long-term profitability (Burke and Logsdon, 1996; Lantos, 2001; Husted, 2003; Windsor, 2001; Greenfield, 2004) and reputation (Du et al., 2007), PSR leads to have higher levels of Satisfaction with Life (as a measure of happiness or subjective well-being) and Self-esteem (as a variable that contributes to the internal and external image of the subject). Lastly, as well as *reputation* significantly affect *profitability* (Roberts and Dowling, 2002) in the corporate context, *Self-esteem* has a positive and significant influence on *Satisfaction with Life,* what means that a person that feels well with him or herself will indeed feel also more satisfied with his/her life.

Once we prove that PSR meets all the requirements to constitute a solid higher order, multidimensional, formative construct, we present a complete model of PSR behavior in the next chapter, explaining what leads a person to behave responsibly and, lastly, what consequences has behaving this way on one's life.

CHAPTER FOUR

CHAPTER FOUR

Antecedents and consequences of Personal Social Responsibility

4.1. Introduction

4.2. Literature review: antecedents and consequences of related constructs

4.3. Research model and hypotheses

- 4.3.1. Antecedents of PSR
  - a. Personal / Moral Philosophies: Idealism vs. Relativism
  - b. Perceived Consumer Effectiveness
  - c. Collectivism
  - d. Subjective Norms
- 4.3.2. Consequences of PSR
  - a. Self-esteem
  - b. Interpersonal Relationships
  - c. Satisfaction with Life

4.4. Study 3

- 4.4.1. Research methodology
- 4.4.2. Evaluation of the measurement model
- 4.4.3. Evaluation of the structural model
- 4.4.4. Additional results

4.5. Discussion

Chapter Four presents a complete model of PSR's behavior, in order to design and validate the concept and its measure. It includes the validation of PSR as a formative construct composed by the economic, legal, ethical, philanthropic and environmental responsibilities of a person, and additional measures to validate its external and nomological validity. We develop its empirical analysis through the Study 3. Antecedents of responsible behavior include *Moral Philosophies* –concretely measures of *Idealism* and *Relativism*-, *Perceived Consumer Effectiveness*, *Collectivism* and *Subjective Norms*. Three additional variables constitute PSR's consequences, including *Self-esteem*, *Interpersonal Relationships* and *Satisfaction with Life*.

4.1. Introduction

Literature on ethical and responsible consumption has traditionally analyzed consumer behavior from an almost descriptive perspective. This means that the constructs used have been measured and validated in a predictive way, indicating which characteristics define a socially responsible consumer (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Kinnear et al, 1974; Carrigan and Attala, 2001; Webb et al, 2007). In this process many indicators have been used trying to profile, through demographic and sociological variables, the ethical or responsible consumer. For example, Anderson and Cunningham (1972) found both types of measures to be significantly related to SRS, while two years later Kinnear et al. (1974) concluded that demographic characteristics were not related to the ecological concern index and indicating that personality variables were better predictors than the socioeconomic ones. More recently, Webb et al. (2007) considered purchase based on CSR performance as a dimension of the Socially Responsible Purchase and Disposal Scale, while Carrigan and Attalla (2001) found that consumers register negative behavior of companies but it does not influence their purchase decisions.

Additionally, becoming a responsible consumer has been increasingly encouraged by public institutions and different organizations, focusing the discourse mainly on the positive –or negative- consequences that a responsible –or an irresponsible- individual behavior would have on the global environment and society or the world as a whole. For example, the Spanish Government has published its "Spanish

Strategy for Corporate Social Responsibility 2014-2020"[2] that includes, among its ten principal lines of action, one specifically referred to responsible consumption. This line of action pursues the advancement on consumer sensitivity and consciousness about his/her decisions, in order to extend CSR policies and, secondly, to promote sustainable, ecological and supportive societies.

However, the application of the consumer's power and the promotion of consumers' social responsibilities remain limited in the extant literature (Quazi et al., 2015). As societies and markets evolve, little attention is being paid –from both theory and practice- to the effects of responsible behavior not that much on general aspects such as sustainability or the construction of a better future for the upcoming generations, but rather on oneself from an individual point of view. Thus, messages are sent ignoring the positive impacts that behaving ethically as a consumer and as a citizen can have on one's personal circumstances and evolution in life.

Contrary to this situation, an opposite perspective of analysis has been undertaken by research in the field of CSR. In the case of organizations, researchers have focused their attention not that much on the common characteristics or the profile of responsible companies, but rather on the positive consequences that the application of these policies will have on the corporation: the enhancement of a positive reputation (Du et al., 2007), stakeholders' loyalty and satisfaction (Anderson et al., 1994; Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Nguyen and Leblanc, 2001; Ismail et al., 2006; Isa, 2011) or a positive impact on its competitiveness and profitability (Burke and Logsdon, 1996; Lantos, 2001; Husted, 2003; Windsor, 2001; Greenfield, 2004), among others.

Therefore, the main goal of this chapter is to design and validate a complete framework of Personal Social Responsibility including antecedents and consequences of this kind of behavior. This objective, pursued throughout the chapter, includes the validation of PSR as a formative construct composed by the economic, legal, ethical, philanthropic and environmental responsibilities of a person; and the inclusion of additional measures to validate its external and nomological validity. Antecedents of responsible behavior have been modeled depending of whether they pertain to the *self* or the *social* behavior (Triandis, 1989). That is, we chose them based on the extant

[2] "*Estrategia Española de Responsabilidad Social de las Empresas*" is its original title, which comprises the strategy 2014-2020 for enterprises, public administrations and the rest of organizations for the advancement towards a more competitive, productive, sustainable and conciliatory society and economy.

literature on consumer behavior and we delimited them within an individual or a social sphere of treatment, including *Moral Philosophies* –concretely measures of *Idealism* and *Relativism*, previously used by Rawwas et al., 1994; Al-Khatib et al., 1995 and Singhapakdi et al., 1996-, *Perceived Consumer Effectiveness* (Kinnear et al., 1974; Webster, 1975; Antil, 1984; Ellen et al., 1991; Ellen, 1994; Roberts, 1996; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Kim and Choi, 2005; Webb et al., 2007; D'Astous and Legendre, 2008), *Collectivism* (McCarty and Shrum, 2001; and Webb et al., 2007) and *Subjective Norms* (Sethi, 1975; Schwartz, 1977; Loo et al, 2013). Three additional variables constituted PSR's consequences, based on the literature of consumer behavior and Corporate Social Responsibility, including *Self-esteem*, *Interpersonal Relationships* and *Satisfaction with Life* as the main outputs of a personal responsible behavior. These variables represent, within the individual sphere of action, a parallelism of the effects of CSR on the reputation (Du et al., 2007), the stakeholders' loyalty and satisfaction (Anderson et al., 1994; Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Nguyen and Leblanc, 2001; Ismail et al., 2006; Isa, 2011) and the profitability (Burke and Logsdon, 1996; Lantos, 2001; Husted, 2003; Windsor, 2001; Greenfield, 2004) of companies.

In the following sections, we summarize the main variables used in the literature to determine or characterize responsible, ethical, conscious or green consumption. Then, we set the hypotheses' design and we present a theoretical model of PSR, distinguishing between the antecedents and outcomes of the construct under research; and, finally, we empirically validate and evaluate the measurement and structural model, discussing in the end the main contributions of the findings. Results of the current chapter will help to the understanding of the characteristics that lead a person to behave responsibly and to deepen into the impacts of this behavior on the person's life.

4.2. Literature review: antecedents and consequences of related constructs

Previous literature has used different constructs to determine the characteristics of ethical, green, conscious and responsible consumers. Table 4.1 summarizes the principal variables considered in prior studies in relation with all these measures, closely connected to the construct under research.

One of the first variables used to describe social responsibility of consumers is the *Conservatism-Liberalism* measure (Berkowitz and Lutterman, 1968; Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Belch, 1982; Antil, 1984; Straughan and Roberts, 1999). Given the Conservatism Scale provided by McClosky (1958), it relates mostly to the adherence to traditional attitudes and values (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972) or the orientation towards a desirability or resistance to changes (Antil, 1984). As Antil (1984) points out:

> "(…) Conservatism is inversely related to SR consumption. Both measures showed the more SR consumer to be less conservative, but not to the degree that they could be described as excessively liberal or radical. SR consumers appear to be open to new ideas but their overall profile does not indicate that they initiate social change or ideas contrary to present norms. Rather, high SR individuals appear to be among those who wait and follow the more radical changes in society after these new concepts have gained at least a certain degree of legitimacy" (Antil, 1984:27).

Anderson and Cunningham (1972) found consumers scoring high on social responsibility less conservative, alienated, personally competent and status conscious. It has also been linked to the political beliefs of the individual, being those more liberal more likely to exhibit strong verbal commitment than those with more conservative political views (Straughan and Roberts, 1999). Contrary to these findings, Berkowitz and Lutterman (1958) found that those socially responsible ones were more conservative and politically oriented.

Environmental Concern (Antil, 1984; Durif et al., 2011; Loo et al., 2013), also considered as environmental behavior, measures the individual's concern for the environment (Antil, 1984). Roberts (1996) stated that "expressed environmental or social concern does not translate directly into consumer behavior", that is, while concern about the environment might be high, a consistent consumer behavior with it is lacking. Baldassare and Katz (1992) found that perceived personal threats caused by environmental deterioration are an important factor underlying environmentally responsible behavior.

This concern is closely related to the concept of *Knowledge*. *Knowledge* of SRC or the problems and circumstances attached to this SRC has been also identified by Antil (1984) and D'Astous and Legendre (2009) to have an influence on responsible behavior. Antil (1984) referred to *knowledge* as the measures of the "respondent's specific factual knowledge of environmental-resource issues and their understanding of

what behaviors are environmental compatible", whereas D'Astous and Legendre (2009) define it as "the consumption of ecological products or products that are made under decent working conditions". In this last case, the authors refer to a very specific dimension of knowledge (i.e. working conditions), and they use a six-item scale adapted from Flynn and Goldsmith (1999) to measure one's subjective knowledge in the context of consumer attitudes. The same authors use the variables *involvement in SRC* and *engage in SRC behaviors* to analyze the Consumer Reasons for Unethical Behavior (CRUB Scale), which might result quite similar. This work uses six items adapted from Oliver and Bearden (1985) in the context of body weight for the first variable, the *involvement in SRC*. On the other hand, they measure the *engage in SRC behaviors* within five different contexts or situations, identified as: a) taking into account the company behaviors, b) buying cause-related products, c) trying to buy to small businesses, d) buying locally-made products, and finally e) limiting the amount of consumption.

Further beyond these actual behaviors, it is important to be aware of the consequences of one's actions on the society and the environment, which is also related to the level of *knowledge* that a person might have. Loo et al. (2013) consider, in the characteristics defining SRC, two related concepts: a) the *awareness of consequences*, which is defined as the "belief that an environmental condition has adverse consequences for other people, other species or the biosphere" (Stern et al., 1995), and b) the *ascriptions of responsibility*, that is, the "belief that one would bear significant responsibility for consequences". Additionally, Deng (2011) includes *ethical awareness* as another element defining SRC.

Some other variables have been used, that are not equally called but with very similar meanings, representing the same ideas. This is the case of the *Effort* (Antil, 1984), the *Ethical Cognitive Effort* (Deng, 2011), the *Perceived Behavioral Control* (Loo et al., 2013) or the *Attitude toward behavior* (Loo et al., 2013), all of them referred to the effort that a person is willing to make to behave in a certain manner or to be more socially responsible. This has been defined in the literature as the "level of effort one is willing to go through to perform socially responsible behaviors" (*Effort* in Antil, 1984); "people's perceptions of the ease or difficulty of performing the behavior of interest" (*Perceived Behavioral Control* in Loo et al., 2013); or "the enduring positive and negative feeling about performing some targeted behavior" (*Attitude toward behavior* in Loo et al., 2013).

All these behaviors, placed within a particular cultural and personal context, constitute the field of *values*. Different works identify social and personal values, leading to some diverse variables such as: a) *subjective norms*, which are the "individual's perception of social pressure to perform a particular behavior" (Loo et al., 2013); b) *values orientation*, which can be focused on an egoist, altruist or biospheric orientation, c) *personal norms*, defined by Schwartz (1977) as the "self-expectations that are based on internalized values (i.e. feelings of personal obligation to engage in a certain behavior)" or the "beliefs held by an individual with regard to how he or she should behave" (Valle et al., 2005); d) *money ethics*, used by Lau (2010) in relation to SRC, defined as the "ethical meanings that people ascribe to money", and labeled by Tang (1992) as the 'love for money' as having a significant and direct impact on unethical behavior; and e) *ethical feeling of fairness* (Deng, 2011).

Lau (2010) found *Religiosity* to be a significant contributor to the three dimensions of socially responsible consumption determined by Webb et al. (2008): CSR performance, consumer recycling behavior and environmental impact purchase and use criteria. The degree to which religion affects a person's beliefs and behavior depends on his/her level of religiosity and the importance placed on religion itself (Sood and Nasu, 1995). This variable has been defined as "the extent to which an individual's committed to the religion he or she professes and its teachings, such as the individual attitudes and behaviors reflect this commitment" (Johnson et al., 2001). Additionally, Stern (1992) indicated that environmental concern is a function of underlying religious beliefs or post-materialistic values.

Anderson and Cunningham (1972) and Anderson et al. (1974) used *status consciousness*, *cosmopolitanism* and *personal competence* to validate the Social Responsibility Scale. Antil (1984) related other variables with Socially Responsible Consumption, such as the *Traditional Social Responsibility*, defined as the "the willingness of an individual to help other persons even when there is nothing to be gained for himself" (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972), the *cultural interests*, the *self-concept* (or how a person considers him/herself or his/her personality) and the *satisfaction with life and job*. Additionally, Kinnear et al. (1974) used personal criteria to determine the level of responsible consumption. This set of variables, developed by Jackson (1974), included *aggression*, *desirability*, *dominance*, *harm avoidance*, *play*, *sentience* and *understanding* from the Personality Research Form; *self-esteem*,

tolerance and *anxiety* from his Personality Inventory, and the *rebelliousness* and *depression* from the Differential Personality Inventory.

Of these, *dominance* and *tolerance* were also used by Webster (1975), who additionally included in his research the variables of *responsibility* (considered as the "individual who is conscientious, responsible, dependable, articulate about rules and orders and who believes that life should be governed by reason"), *socialization* and *contribution to community*. Antil (1984) found this last variable as a key influencer of SRC, being quite related to *altruism*, also considered in its relation with the degree of social responsibility (Berkowitz and Daniels, 1964), social concern (Belch, 1982) and ecologically conscious consumer behavior (Straughan and Roberts, 1999).

Results of the work conducted by Webb et al. (2007) indicate that the variable *CSR-CA Belief* has a significant, positive relationship with three factors of SRC: CSR Performance, Recycling behavior and the Environmental impact purchase and use criteria. Brown and Dacing (1997) define CSR associations as those that "reflect the organization's status and activities with respect to its perceived societal obligations".

Corporate Ability (CA) associations are "related to the company's expertise in producing and delivering its outputs". Both influence consumers' evaluations of the company: when consumers believe the CSR-CA relationship is win-win, responses will be more positive to CSR efforts than when they believe CSR comes at the expense of other corporate abilities.

Additional variables also influence or are related to the degree of socially responsible consumption, such as the *Perceived Consumer Effectiveness* (Kinnear et al, 1974; Webster, 1975; Antil, 1984; Ellen, 1994; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Webb et al, 2007; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009); the *Personal Moral Philosophies* or Ethical Ideologies (Rawwas et al., 1994; Al-Khatib et al., 1995; Singhapakdi et al., 1996), measured by the idealism/relativism scale developed by Forsyth (1980); the *Collectivism* –in contrast with individualistic nature of the individual- (Webb et al., 2007); the *Subjective Norms* (Loo et al., 2013); the *Self-Esteem* or similar constructs (Kinnear et al., 1974; Belch, 1982; Antil, 1984; Durif et al., 2011) or the *Satisfaction with Life and Job* (Antil, 1984). We identified and chose all these variables as antecedents and consequences of Personal Social Responsibility. We proceed to analyze them in the next section.

Table 4.1
Variables used as antecedents of related constructs

Independent Variable	Author(s), year	Dependent Variable	Definition
		Most common used variables	
Conservatism / liberalism	Berkowitz and Lutterman (1968)	SRS	One's adherence to traditional attitudes and values (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972) General measure of liberalism-conservation dimension oriented toward desirability of change (Antil, 1984) Those with more liberal political beliefs are more likely to exhibit strong verbal commitment than those with more conservative political views (Straughan and Roberts, 1999)
	Anderson and Cunningham (1972)	SRS	
	Belch (1982)	Social Concern	
	Antil (1984)	SRCB	
	Straughan and Roberts (1999)	ECCB	
Perceived consumer effectiveness (PCE)	Kinnear et al (1974)	EC	Consumers' perception that their actions can make a difference and may help to solve different ethical problems (Kinnear et al., 1974) Belief that individuals can positively influence on resolving social and environmental problems (Straughan and Roberts, 1999) Judgment of the ability of the individual consumer to have an effect on environmental-resource problems (Antil, 1984)
	Webster (1975)	Recycling, SCC, SRI	
	Antil (1984)	SRCB	
	Ellen et al (1991) and Ellen (1994)	ECB	
	Roberts (1996)	ECCB	
	Straughan and Roberts (1999)	ECCB	
	Kim and Choi (2005)	GPB	
	Webb et al (2007)	SRPD	
	D'Astous and Legendre (2009)	CRUB	
Environmental concern	Antil (1984)	SRCB	Measure of the individual's concern for the environment (Antil, 1984)
	Durif et al (2011)	SRC	
	Loo et al. (2013)	RCB, RCBI	
Personal Moral Philosophies / Ethical ideologies (Idealism vs. relativism)	Rawwas et al (1994)	CES (in Vitell, 2003)	The idealism scale measures one's acceptance of moral absolutes and the relativism scale measures the rejection of universal moral principles (Singhapakdi et al, 1996). Those scoring high on the idealism scale generally believe that morally "right" behavior leads to good or positive consequences, while those scoring high on the relativism scale tend to reject the notion that absolute moral principles exist (Forsyth, 1980).
	Al-Khatib et al (1995)	CE (in Vitell, 2003)	
	Singhapakdi et al (1996)	PRESOR	
CSR-CA Belief (Corporate Social Responsibility – Corporate Ability Belief)	Brown and Dacin (1997)		Brown and Dacing (1997) define CSR associations as those that "reflect the organization's status and activities with respect to its perceived societal obligations". CA associations are "related to the company's expertise in producing and delivering its outputs". Both influence consumers' evaluations of the company: when consumers believe the CSR-CA relationship is win-win, responses will be more positive to CSR efforts than when they believe CSR comes at the expense of other corporate abilities.
	Sen and Battacharya (2001)		
	Webb et al. (2007)	SRC	
	Deng (2011)	CREEB	
Religiosity	Webster (1975)	Recycling, SCC, SRI	The extent to which an individual's committed to the religion he or she professes and its teachings, such as the individual attitudes and behaviors reflect this commitment (Johnson et al, 2001)
	Lau (2010)	SRC	

CE = Consumer Ethics; CES = Consumer Ethics Scale; CREEB = Consumer's Response to the Enterprise's Ethical Behavior; CRUB = Consumer Reasons for Unethical Behavior; EC = Ecological Concern; ECB = Environmentally Conscious Behavior; ECCB = Ecologically Conscious Consumer Behavior; GPB = Green Purchase Behavior; PRESOR = Perceived Role of Ethics and and Social Responsibility; RCB = Responsible Consumption Behavior; RCBI = Responsible Consumption Behavioral Intention; SCC = Socially Conscious Consumer; SRC = Socially Responsible Consumption; SRCB = Socially Responsible Consumer Behavior; SRI = Social Responsibility Index; SRPD = Socially Responsible Purchase and Disposal; SRS = Social Responsibility Scale

Table 4.1 (cont)
Variables used as antecedents of related constructs

Independent Variable		Author(s), year	Dependent Variable	Definition
Variables used that represent similar ideas				
EFFORT	*Effort*	Antil (1984)	SRCB	Level of effort one is willing to go through to perform socially responsible behaviors. Measure of both physical and psychological effort (Antil, 1984)
	Ethical cognitive effort	Deng (2011)	CREEB	*Not available*
	Perceived Behavioral Control	Loo et al (2013)	RCB, RSBI	People's perceptions of the ease or difficulty of performing the behavior of interest
	Attitude toward behavior	Loo et al (2013)	RCB, RSBI	The enduring positive and negative feeling about performing some targeted behavior
KNOWLEDGE	*Knowledge*	Antil (1984)	SRCB	Measures respondent's specific factual knowledge of environmental-resource issues and their understanding of what behaviors are environmentally compatible (Antil, 1984)
	Knowledge of SRC	D'Astous and Legendre (2009)	CRUB	Knowledge of SRC, which is defined as 'the consumption of ecological products or products that are made under decent working conditions'.
SR PERCEPTIONS AND BEHAVIORS	*Involvement in SRC*	D'Astous and Legendre (2009)	CRUB	*Not available*
	Engage in SRC behaviors	D'Astous and Legendre (2009)	CRUB	Socially responsible actions related to: a) Company behaviors; b) Buying cause-related products; c) small businesses; d) buying locally made products; e) amount of consumption
AWARENESS OF CONSEQUENCES	*Awareness of Consequences*	Loo et al. (2013)	RCB, RSBI	People who believe an environmental condition has adverse consequences for other people, other species, or the biosphere (Stern et al, 1995)
	Ascriptions of Responsibility	Loo et al. (2013)	RCB, RSBI	Belief that one would bear significant responsibility for consequences
	Ethical awareness	Deng (2011)	CREEB	*Not available*
VALUES	*Subjective Norms*	Loo et al. (2013)	RCB, RSBI	Individual's perception of social pressure to perform the particular behavior
	Values orientation	Loo et al. (2013)	RCB, RSBI	Focused on egoism, altruistic and biospheric
	Personal Norms	Loo et al. (2013)	RCB, RSBI	Self-expectations that are basedon internalized values i.e. feelings of personal obligation to engage in a certain behavior (Schwartz, 1977) The beliefs held by the individual with regard to how he or she should behave (Valle et al, 2005)
	Money Ethics	Lau (2010)	SRC	Ethical meanings that people ascribe to money: labeled by Tang (1992) as the 'love for money', it has a significant and direct impact on unethical behavior.
	Ethical feeling of fairness	Deng (2011)	CREEB	*Not available*

CE = Consumer Ethics; CES = Consumer Ethics Scale; CREEB = Consumer's Response to the Enterprise's Ethical Behavior; CRUB = Consumer Reasons for Unethical Behavior; EC = Ecological Concern; ECB = Environmentally Conscious Behavior; ECCB = Ecologically Conscious Consumer Behavior; GPB = Green Purchase Behavior; PRESOR = Perceived Role of Ethics and and Social Responsibility; RCB = Responsible Consumption Behavior; RCBI = Responsible Consumption Behavioral Intention; SCC = Socially Conscious Consumer; SRC = Socially Responsible Consumption; SRCB = Socially Responsible Consumer Behavior; SRI = Social Responsibility Index; SRPD = Socially Responsible Purchase and Disposal; SRS = Social Responsibility Scale

Table 4.1 (cont)
Variables used as antecedents of related constructs

Independent Variable		Author(s), year	Dependent Variable	Definition
Variables used that represent similar ideas				
BUSINESS PERCEPTIONS	*Socially Responsible Attitude*	Singhapakdi et al (1996)	PRESOR	Socially responsible behaviors are driven by socially responsible attitudes. Socially responsible executives are those who "would hold beliefs supporting the importance of social responsibility in business" (Hung et al, 1990).
	Institutional rationality	Deng (2011)	CREEB	*Not available*
	Perceived Power of Big Business	Webster (1975)	Recycling, SCC, SRI	Attitudes toward business as an institution
	Enterprise's ethical altruistic motivation	Deng (2011)	CREEB	*Not available*
SELF-ESTEEM	*Self image*	Durif et al. (2011)	SRC	Responsible consumption motivations are those impacting an individual's personal image, health-related motivations and environmental motivations
	Self-esteem	Kinnear et al. (1974)	EC	*Not available*
	Self-assured	Belch (1982)	Social Conscious	*Not available*
	Self concept	Antil (1984)	SRCB	How the person considers him/herself or his/her personality
ALTRUISM	*Contribution to community*	Webster (1975)	R, SCC, SRI	*Not available*
		Antil (1984)	SRC	*Not available*
	Altruism	Berkowitz and Daniels (1964)	SRS	*Not available*
		Belch (1982)	Social Concern	*Not available*
		Straughan and Roberts (1999)	ECCB	*Not available*
Other variables				
Collectivism/Individualism		McCarty and Shrum (2001)	Recycling Beliefs and Recycling Behaviors	Individualism is the tendency to value the individual over the group, giving priority to personal goals over group goals, while collectivism emphasizes the goals of the group over personal goals, stresses conformity and in-group harmony, and defines the self in relation to the group (Triandis, 1995)
		Webb et al. (2007)	SRC	
Active and awareness of politics		Berkowitz and Lutterman (1968)	TSR	Get involved and active in politics, religion and community (not defined)
Traditional Social Responsibility		Antil (1984)	SRC	The willingness of an individual to help other persons even when there is nothing to be gained for himself (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972)
Habits		Loo et al. (2013)	RCB, RSBI	The extent to which people tend to perform the behaviors automatically (Limayem et al., 2007)
Cultural interests		Antil (1984)	SRC	How interested in culture is a person
Physical activities and health		Antil (1984)	SRCB	Concern about health and likelihood to enjoy physical activities (Antil, 1984)
		Durif et al. (2011)	SRC	

CE = Consumer Ethics; CES = Consumer Ethics Scale; CREEB = Consumer's Response to the Enterprise's Ethical Behavior; CRUB = Consumer Reasons for Unethical Behavior; EBBEC = Ecological Concern; ECB = Environmentally Conscious Behavior; ECCB = Ecologically Conscious Consumer Behavior; GPB = Green Purchase Behavior; PRESOR = Perceived Role of Ethics and and Social Responsibility; RCB = Responsible Consumption Behavior; RCBI = Responsible Consumption Behavioral Intention; SCC = Socially Conscious Consumer; SRC = Socially Responsible Consumption; SRCB = Socially Responsible Consumer Behavior; SRI = Social Responsibility Index; SRPD = Socially Responsible Purchase and Disposal; SRS = Social Responsibility Scale

Table 4.1 (cont)
Variables used as antecedents of related constructs

Independent Variable	Author(s), year	Dependent Variable	Definition
		Personality Variables	
Alienation	Berkowitz and Lutterman (1968)	SRS	A feeling of isolation from one's community, society and/or culture (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972)
	Anderson and Cunningham (1972)	SRS	*Not available*
Dogmatism	Anderson and Cunningham (1972), Anderson et al. (1974)	SRS	One's degree of open- or close-mindedness (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972)
Dominance	Kinnear et al. (1974)	EC	*Not available*
	Webster (1975)	R, SCC, SRI	Characteristic of an individual who is strong, dominant, influential, ascendant, able to take the initiative and to exercise leadership (Webster, 1975)
Responsibility	Webster (1975)	R, SCC, SRI	Describes an individual who is conscientious, responsible, dependable, articulate about rules and orders, and who believes that life should be governed by reason (Webster, 1975)
Socialization	Webster (1975)	R, SCC, SRI	A measure of the degree of social maturity, integrity and rectitude and of the extend to which social values are internalized and made useful in the life of the individual (Webster, 1975)
Tolerance	Kinnear et al. (1974)	EC	Characteristic of an individual who is permissive, accepting, and non-judgmental about other people's social beliefs and attitudes (Webster, 1975)
	Webster (1975)	R, SCC, SRI	
Aggression	Kinnear et al. (1974)	EC	*Source*: Personality Research Form (Douglas, 1967)
Desirability			
Harm avoidance			
Play			
Sentience			
Understanding			
Anxiety			*Source*: Jackson Personality Inventory (Douglas, 1970)
Rebelliousness			*Source*: Jackson's Differential Personality Inventory (Douglas, 1970)
Depression			
Status consciousness	Anderson and Cunningham (1972), Anderson et al. (1974)	SRS	A concern for social recognition, esteem or prestige (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972)
Cosmopolitanism	Anderson and Cunningham (1972), Anderson et al. (1974)	SRS	A global, nonparochial perspective and orientation (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972)
Personal competence	Anderson and Cunningham (1972)	SRS	A feeling of mastery of one's personal life and environment (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972)
Product Differentiation	Leigh et al. (1988)	SRS	
Satisfaction with life and job	Antil (1984)	SRCB	How satisfied is a person with his/her life and job (not defined)
Internal control	Tucker et al. (1981)	ER, SRS	

CE = Consumer Ethics; CES = Consumer Ethics Scale; CREEB = Consumer's Response to the Enterprise's Ethical Behavior; CRUB = Consumer Reasons for Unethical Behavior; EC = Ecological Concern; ECB = Environmentally Conscious Behavior; ECCB = Ecologically Conscious Consumer Behavior; GPB = Green Purchase Behavior; PRESOR = Perceived Role of Ethics and and Social Responsibility; RCB = Responsible Consumption Behavior; RCBI = Responsible Consumption Behavioral Intention; SCC = Socially Conscious Consumer; SRC = Socially Responsible Consumption; SRCB = Socially Responsible Consumer Behavior; SRI = Social Responsibility Index; SRPD = Socially Responsible Purchase and Disposal; SRS = Social Responsibility Scale

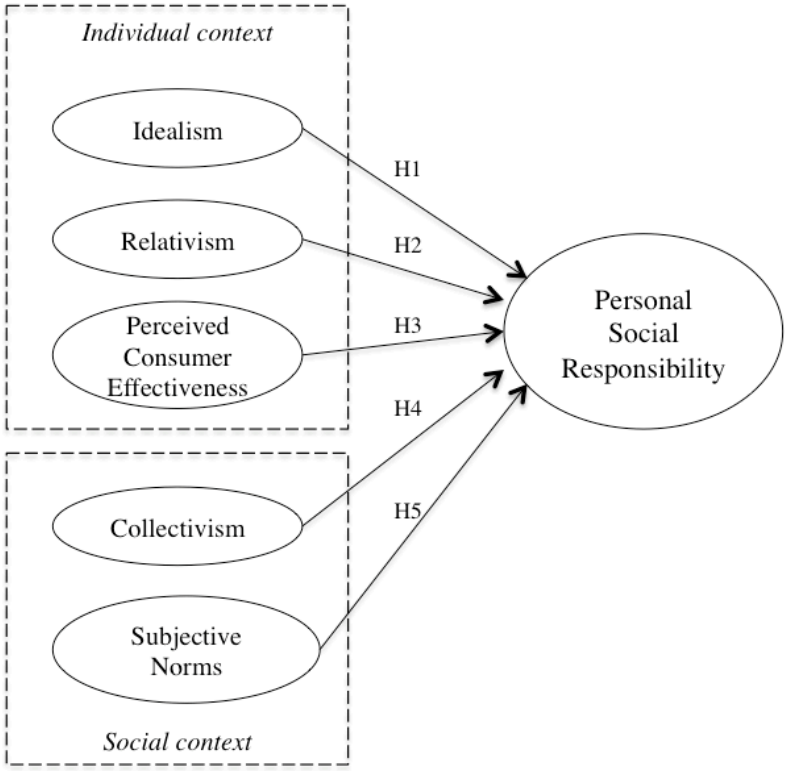
4.3. Research model and hypotheses

4.3.1. Antecedents of PSR

We base the identification and choice of the variables that lead to a more socially responsible behavior on two main reasons: first, their presence in previous literature and the relevance of their results in relation to associated measures was imperative to determine the significance and contribution to the present study. Second, we identified two principal dimensions of behavior, constituting variables framed within an individual or a social context of treatment, also known as *self* and *social* behaviors (Triandis, 1989).

The dimension of the *self* or the *individual* sphere of treatment includes all aspects of social motivation that are linked to the self, such as attitudes, beliefs, intentions, norms, roles and values (Triandis, 1989). Based on this context, this dimension of actions in the PSR model comprehends measures of moral values –that is, *idealism* and *relativism*-, and *perceived consumer effectiveness*, all of them related to values and beliefs of the individual. These variables, as it will be later explained, constitute the field of those individual values and beliefs that determine the way a person considers general issues related to ethical circumstances or dilemmas, and the perceived effect that one`s actions will have on others. On the other hand, the *social* context of behavior is influenced by cultural patterns, indicating that there might be evidence of different selves across cultures (Marsella et al., 1985; Triandis, 1989). It contains two additional measures, related to *collectivism* and *social norms*. These variables are individual characteristics of a person in relation to the rest of the society. As it will be more precisely exposed in the following sections, they refer to the personal interaction with society, considering the influence of a person's actions and decisions on the rest of the world, as well as the influence of the rest of the society on oneself.

Figure 4.1
Antecedents of Personal Social Responsibility



a. Personal / Moral Philosophies: Idealism vs. Relativism

A person's moral beliefs and values can influence his/her personal behavior. Literature identifies these beliefs as personal or moral philosophies, and they are based on placing the individual as an *idealist* or a *relativist* person. The idealism scale measures one's acceptance of moral absolutes and the relativism scale measures the rejection of universal moral principles (Singhapakdi et al., 1996). Previously, Forsyth (1980) indicated that those individuals scoring high on the idealism scale generally believe that morally "right" behavior leads to good or positive consequences, while those scoring high on the relativism scale tend to reject the notion that absolute moral principles exist.

This author developed the generally used scale of Moral Philosophies in 1980. This scale consists of twenty items, ten of which contribute to define the idealism and the other ten scoring for relativism. The results of this scale are based on the idea of an idealist person as the one who places the well-being of society above one's personal

interests and for whom harming another person is always wrong (i.e. *the existence of potential harm to others is always wrong, irrespective of the benefits to be gained*, or *if an action could harm an innocent other, then it should not be done*); and, on the other side, the relativist person, for whom there is not a universal rightness and the answer to the reasons for harming others depends on the situation or the context (i.e. *what is ethical varies from one situation and society to another*, or *questions of what is ethical for everyone can never be resolved since what is moral or immoral is up to the individual*).

Concretely, Forsyth (1980) identifies four types of persons that can arise depending on their scores on the two scales of idealism and relativism. This way, he classifies a person scoring high on the idealism scale and low on the relativism as "absolutist", whose moral actions are guided by their positive consequences through conformity to moral absolutes. On the contrary, he identifies the "subjectivist" as the one scoring high on the relativism scale and low on idealism. Subjectivists leave the "rightness" of an action to their personal feelings, therefore rejecting moral absolutes. In-between these two extremes, respectively characterized by the rigidity or the flexibility of their ethical beliefs, there are two additional types of persons: the "situationists", and the "exceptionists". The author uses deception as an ethical dilemma to exemplify and place each of the types defined. This way, deception would be always rejected by an absolutist, since it violates fundamental moral principles; it would be used by situationists only if it yielded in positive outcomes given a particular situation; excepcionists believe in the allowance of deception if it cannot be avoided; and finally, subjectivists believe it to be a personal matter that depends on the individual.

Rawwas (1996) applied this scale within the Austrian context and concluded that its consumers were mostly situationists, rejecting moral rules and judging certain behaviors through the consequences of the situation. The same year, Singhapakdi et al. (1996) analyzed the influence of both measures of idealism and relativism on the importance of ethics and social responsibility (PRESOR) as components of business decisions. The authors tested the influence of these personal moral philosophies on the three dimensions of the PRESOR scale: social responsibility and profitability, long-term and short-term gains. They found relativism to be significantly and negatively correlated with the three dimensions, whereas idealism was found to have a significant and positive influence only in the "long-terms" dimension.

This way, we expect people scoring high on idealism to be more socially responsible and, on the contrary, we expect relativists to behave less socially responsible towards society, even having a negative influence on PSR.

H1: Idealism (*Ide*) will have a significant and positive impact on Personal Social Responsibility (*PSR*)

H2: Relativism (*Rel*) will have a significant and negative impact on Personal Social Responsibility (*PSR*)

b. Perceived Consumer Effectiveness

Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (PCE) is one of the most used variables when analyzing consumer ethics or consumer responsibilities in the literature (Kinnear et al., 1974; Webster, 1975; Antil, 1984; Ellen, 1991; Ellen, 1994; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Webb et al., 2007; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009). Some authors have defined it as the "consumers' perception that their actions can make a difference and may help to solve different ethical problems" (Kinnear et al., 1974), the "belief that individuals can positively influence on resolving social and environmental problems" (Straughan and Roberts, 1999), or the "judgment of the ability of the individual consumer to have an effect on environmental-resource problems" (Antil, 1984). This means that consumers perceive that their actions will have an impact on their social, economic and environmental context, and therefore they will perceive their ethical effort as a worthy choice.

Kinnear et al. (1974) found that ecologically concerned consumers scored high in PCE against pollution. In contrast, those with little or no ecological concern tended to perceive that consumers are ineffective in acting individually to abate pollution. This means that consumers will show more concern for ecology when they perceive that individuals can be effective in pollution abatement. One year later, Webster (1975) analyzed the influence of various attitudinal, social activity, socioeconomic and demographic variables on Recycling behavior, the Socially Conscious Consumer Index

(SCC) and the Social Responsibility Index (SRI). Among them, PCE was found to be one of the three independent variables influencing the SCC (in addition to Dominance and Tolerance), specifying that:

> "The Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (CE) measure was strongly related to SCC and this suggests that the socially conscious consumer feels strongly that he or she can do something about pollution and tries to consider the social impact of his or her purchases. That attitude is virtually inseparable from the very notion of a socially conscious consumer, so it is reassuring that the measure proved to be strong" (Webster, 1975:193).

Additionally, PCE also significantly influenced Recycling behavior, as well as in the SRI. Therefore, this research demonstrated that PCE was the only significant predictor for all three dependent variables.

Roberts (1996) and Straughan and Roberts (1999) also concluded that this variable was the best predictor of Environmentally Conscious Consumer Behavior (ECCB), and Webb et al. (2007) found a significant, positive relation between PCE and the three factors determining socially responsible consumption (CSR performance, environmental impact of purchase and usage decisions and recycling behavior).

Finally, D'Astous and Legendre (2009) used PCE to validate the Consumers' Reasons for Unethical Behavior (CRUB) Scale, finding a negative and statistically significant correlation between consumers' perception that their socially responsible actions can make a difference and their reasons for not behaving in an ethical way.

For all these reasons, we expect Perceived Consumer Effectiveness to result a key factor determining the Personal Social Responsibility, leading to the following hypothesis:

H3: Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (*PCE*) will have a significant and positive impact on Personal Social Responsibility (*PSR*)

c. Collectivism

Collectivism measures the extent to which a person is willing to make personal sacrifices on behalf of the good of the group, and it has been positively related to responsible consumer behavior (McCarty and Shrum, 2001; Webb et al., 2007). It is conceived contrary to individualism, studied at the cultural level as opposite ends of one continuum (McCarty and Shrum, 2001), and analyzes a person's relationship to others. While individualism stands as the tendency to value the individual over the group and gives priority to personal goals over group goals, collectivism emphasizes the goals of the group over personal goals, stresses conformity and in-group harmony, and defines the self in relation to the group (Triandis, 1995).

Measures of collectivism and individualism are particularly important when analyzing different societies and cultures (see i.e. Hofstede, 1984). For instance, northern societies (like the Nordic ones) have been traditionally seen as being more responsible than the southern ones. This might be due to the context in which they operate and develop, where certain circumstances (i.e. weather conditions, lack of population) lead societies to organize and survive under collectivistic criteria.

Nevertheless, current research suggests that individualism and collectivism are not inherent elements of culture, but rather are attributes that may arise depending upon the situation (Oyserman et al., 2002; Oyserman, 2006; Torelli, 2006).

For example, collectivism is lower at higher urbanization levels (Jha and Singh, 2011) and it is especially relevant to many questions of business ethics (Husted and Allen, 2008). In this sense, Husted and Allen (2008) proposed a model that offers insight into how these variables can affect the perception of ethical dilemmas, of reasoning and the behavior of individuals in organizations. Additionally, the authors stated that "collectivists place a greater emphasis on social norms and expectations and the roles they fulfill in relationship with others" (Husted and Allen, 2008:301), maybe because they are more focused on group goals and sharing than those who are less collectivistic (McCarty and Shrum, 2001). In Husted and Allen's sentence one can already check the relationship between collectivism and the other two variables considered in our social field of treatment, that is, *social norms* and *interpersonal relationships,* which are mentioned by them and associated with it.

In the context of consumer ethics, Webb et al. (2007) found that collectivism was positively related to the three factors of SRC, although the only one that resulted significant was the relationship observed between the variable and CSR Performance. That means that those persons who are more collectivistic place a mayor importance and are more sensitive to corporate performance that those who are not. Previously, McCarty and Shrum (2001) analyzed the relation between collectivism and recycling behavior, stating that those respondents that were more collectivistic believed recycling was more important and this belief led to recycling behavior and, at the same time, that individualism related positively to perceptions of its inconvenience.

All these statements and results place the collectivist as a person who is conscious of living within a particular society and is part of a group, and therefore is willing to make certain efforts or sacrifices in favor of the rest. For these reasons, we expect that people tending to be more collectivistic will behave in a more socially responsible way than those who feel to be individualistic.

H4: Collectivism (*Col*) will have a significant and positive impact on Personal Social Responsibility (*PSR*)

d. Subjective Norms

As stated before, people behave within a particular cultural and personal context. This means that certain social norms exist, fact that makes us tend to behave in a way that will be approved by our neighbors, colleges, friends and families. They are called *subjective norms*, and are described as the "individual's perception of social pressure to perform a particular behavior" (Loo et al., 2013). Other researchers refer to them as *personal norms*, defined as the "self-expectations that are based on internalized values (i.e. feelings of personal obligation to engage in a certain behavior)" (Schwartz, 1977) or the "beliefs held by an individual with regard to how he or she should behave" (Valle et al., 2005).

Regarding corporate performance, Sethi (1975) established a model in which the author defined three consecutive stages that helped to analyze corporate activities in terms of social relevance. The different stages included Corporate Behavior as a social

obligation, as social responsibility and, finally, as social responsiveness. The second stage, defining social responsibility as the one that implies "bringing corporate behavior up to a level where it is congruent with the prevailing social norms, values, and expectations of performance", clearly references to the social expectations to behave in a particular way. These expectations come to the organization –as well as to the citizens or consumers- as a way of social pressure, leading to the pursuit of performances and behaviors that will be approved by society.

We believe that PSR might be driven, in part, by a desire of citizens to perform in a way that will be positively accepted by society and vice versa. This means that a person might not do something just because it will be badly received (i.e. throwing a paper on the floor or not recycling), and he/she will do it not because of his/her personal rules and beliefs, but because of the social pressure felt to perform that way. Therefore, we expect that those individuals who are surrounded by socially responsible people or who are part of socially responsible groups, will have more social pressure to behave responsibly. This argument leads to the following hypothesis:

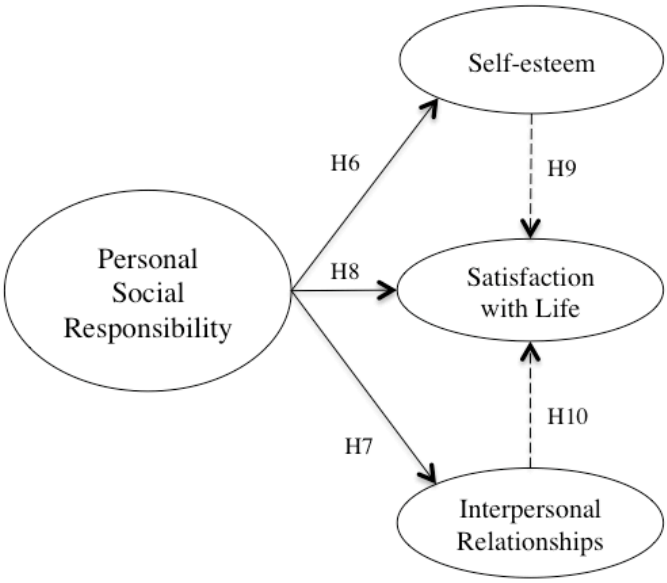
H5: Subjective norms (*SN*) will have a significant and positive impact on Personal Social Responsibility (*PSR*)

4.3.2. Consequences of PSR

One of the main weaknesses of previous research in consumer ethics is the lack of analysis referred to the consequences of individual responsible behaviors. Consequently, one of the objectives of this chapter is to deepen into this kind of behavior for two reasons: the first one is to make a significant contribution to the literature and, secondly, to enhance the positive consequences that behaving responsibly can have in a person's life.

In addition to all the aforementioned antecedents, we identified another three variables meant to be influenced by PSR and therefore constituting its consequences, which are composed by Self-esteem, Interpersonal Relationships and Satisfaction with Life (Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2
Consequences of Personal Social Responsibility



a. Self-esteem

Kinnear et al. (1974) first used personality traits regarding the way a person feels about him/herself as possible predictors of the ecological concern index. The authors used standard personality scales, one of them being *self-esteem* taken from the Jackson Personality Inventory (Douglas, 1970), included together with tolerance and anxiety. Of the three measures of the mentioned inventory, only tolerance was later used for further analysis.

However, some other authors have taken into account similar variables related to similar constructs. For example, Belch (1982) related *self-assurance* to the socially conscious consumer, and Antil (1984) used the *self-concept* as one of the characteristics that differed from high to low socially responsible consumers. The author defines *self-concept* as the way a person considers him/herself or his/her personality, and asserts that "those items related to self-concept characterized the high SR consumer as being more confident in his/her personal ability, more likely to take direct action when he/she does not like something, and less likely to view him/herself as being a "swinger"" (Antil, 1984:29).

Bénabou and Tirole (2010) identified three motivations for individual social responsibility: intrinsic altruism, material incentives (defined by law and

taxes) and social and self-esteem concerns. The authors state that "our conduct defines what kind of person we are, in the eyes of others and, no less importantly, in our own" (Bénabou and Tirole, 2010:3).

Durif et al. (2011) developed a cluster analysis through which they identified six distinct consumer profiles and varying degrees of responsible consumption. One of the characteristics identified and found to differ between the different groups of consumers, based on responsible consumption motivations, was the one impacting the individual's personal image. The same happens if we consider the organizational field, in which socially responsible programs have been proved to have a positive impact on the company's image and reputation (Du et al., 2007).

For these reasons, we expect Personal Social Responsibility to have a significant and positive influence on the way a person will feel about him/herself, leading responsible behaviors to better levels of *self-esteem*.

H6: Personal Social Responsibility (*PSR*) will have a significant and positive impact on a person's Self-esteem (*Sest*)

b. Interpersonal Relationships

Although the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility appears as a necessity from organizations to go further its traditionally legal and economic responsibilities, from the 70s it begins to be conceived as a way of social responsiveness (Ackerman and Bauer, 1976). This new perspective incorporates the enterprise's stakeholders' satisfaction as the main objective of CSR performance.

Many authors have incorporated the stakeholders' management in CSR definitions (Epstein, 1987; Hopkins, 1998; Khoury et al., 1999; Commision of the European Communities, 2001 and 2003; Jackson and Hawker, 2001; Marrewijk, 2001 and 2003; Lea, 2002; CSR Europe, 2003; Business for Social Responsibility, 2003; Hopkins, 2003; Ethics in Action Awards, 2003; Novothic, 2003), indicating that CSR performance is a way for a company to treat its stakeholders ethically, how it

incorporate their demands and satisfaction on its strategies, or the way the company relates with them.

As well as CSR policies have as one of its main consequences the enhancement of positive and sustainable relationships with the organization's stakeholders, PSR should also have this same consequences within the individual context. Indeed, Vitell (2014) first introduced it in Consumer Social Responsibility, stating that it was the responsibilities to stakeholders and society.

Therefore, we expect PSR to have a significant and positive influence on one's relationships with his/her stakeholders, leading to an improvement of his/her interpersonal relationships.

H7: Personal Social Responsibility (*PSR*) will have a significant and positive impact on a person's Interpersonal Relationships (*IR*)

c. Satisfaction with Life

Subjective Well-Being is the scientific term in psychology for an individual's evaluation of his/her experienced positive and negative affect, happiness or satisfaction with life (Frey and Stutzer, 2002), and provides a key information about people's quality of life (Angner, 2009). Thus, although they are all different constructs, it is remarkable that subjective well-being, happiness and satisfaction with life are indistinctly used in the literature to express the same idea.

This construct has been mainly addressed in the field of psychology, being in marketing and economics still under researched. Nonetheless, as Frey and Stutzer (2002) remark in their work paper '*What can Economists learn from Happiness Research'*, "happiness is generally considered to be an ultimate goal in life, [and in the end] everybody wants to be happy" (Frey and Stutzer, 2002:402). Indeed, the pursuit of happiness is considered as one of the most important determinants of human behavior (Frey and Stutzer, 2004), being indicated that "how to gain, how to keep, how to recover happiness is in fact for most men at all times the secret motive for all they do" (James, 1902:76). This means that, as well as the principal objective of enterprises is

profitability, *satisfaction with life* –happiness or subjective well-being- is something that everybody seeks, constituting the main purpose of the projects and activities undertaken in life. This is an important and sufficient reason to consider happiness as the last and most important goal and hypothesis on this research.

Regarding previous scales developed in the literature, some measures have tried to collect people's level of satisfaction with life through a single question (German Socio-Economic Panel, Euro-Barometer, Gurin et al., 1960; Andrews and Withey, 1976; Lyubomirsky and Lepper, 1999) that refers to general feelings or considerations about one's life. Some others use multi-item scales. In the current work we use the Satisfaction With Life Scale developed by Pavot and Diener (1993), a five-items scale that measures the extent to which a person feels generally happy, having a satisfactory and not-regretting life, being a more concrete and complete measure than those expressed by a single item.

Literature on responsible consumption has only addressed satisfaction with life in one occasion, concluding that:

> "High SR consumers are more satisfied with their lives and jobs, and believe family income is high enough to satisfy nearly all important desires. They are more likely to believe they are happier now than ever before and are more likely to disagree that their lives are pretty dull" (Antil, 1984:29).

For all these reasons, we expect socially responsible people to feel happier or more satisfied with their life, leading to one of our last hypotheses:

H8: Personal Social Responsibility (*PSR*) will have a significant and positive impact on a person's Happiness or Satisfaction with Life (*SWL*)

In addition to hypothesis H1-8, that concretely test whether the model of antecedents and consequences of Personal Social Responsibility is valid, we propose two additional hypotheses in relation to how the consequences of PSR relate with each other. That is, how one's self-esteem and interpersonal relationships influence the satisfaction that a person may feel with respect to his/her life. Therefore, we expect that

feeling well with ourselves –or showing high levels of self-esteem- and having a good and satisfactory relationship with our family, friends and colleagues will positively influence our subjective wellbeing.

This relationship has already been demonstrated in the field of organizations, connecting reputation, stakeholders' satisfaction and loyalty and profitability. Thus, as well as *reputation* has a significant effect on *profitability* in the organizational context (Roberts and Dowling, 2002), we propose as a parallelism from the individual trait that *Self-esteem* will have an effect on *Satisfaction with Life*,

H9: Interpersonal Relationships (*IR*) will have a significant and positive impact on a person's Happiness or Satisfaction with Life (*SWL*)

and, as well as it has been demonstrated the positive relationship between *reputation* and stakeholders' *satisfaction* and *loyalty* in the organizational context (Helm et al., 2010), we set the final research hypothesis concerning the relation between *Self-esteem* and *Happiness*, expecting that:

H10: Self-esteem (*Sest*) will have a significant and positive impact on a person's Happiness or Satisfaction with Life (*SWL*)

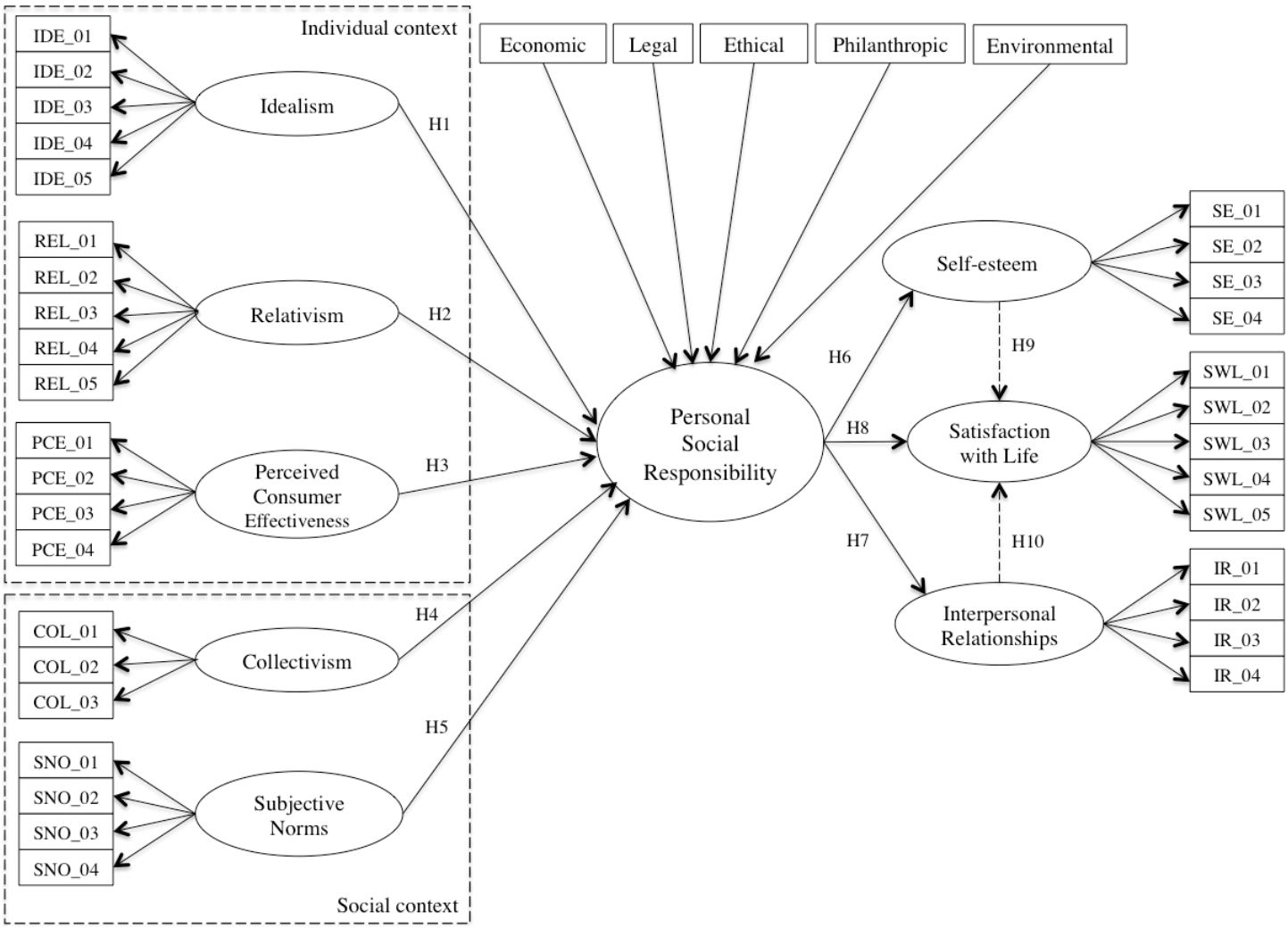
This way, the level of happiness, subjective wellbeing or satisfaction with life expressed by the individual is presented as the final and most important consequence of PSR, as the final and most important goal in life; and we expect that being more responsible, feeling well with oneself and getting well with others will have a positive influence on it.

All the measures considered in the model are shown in Table 4.2, while the graphical representation of the complete model and its hypotheses is shown in Figure 4.3.

Table 4.2
Constructs and indicators of the higher-order model

Constructs	Indicators	Supporting reference
Idealism (Ide)	A person should make certain that their actions never intentionally harm another even to a small degree (IDE_01) Risks to another should never be tolerated, irrespective of how small the risks might be (IDE_02) One should not perform an action which might in any way threaten the dignity and welfare of another individual (IDE_03) If an action could harm an innocent other, then it should not be done (IDE_04) It is never necessary to sacrifice the welfare of others to improve one's own (IDE_05)	Developed by Forsyth (1980), used by Rawwas et al. (1994), Al-Khatib et al. (1995), Singhapakdi et al. (1996)
Relativism (Rel)	There are no ethical principles that are so important that they should be a part of any code of ethics (REL_01) What is ethical varies from one situation and society to another (REL_02) Moral standards should be seen as being individualistic; what one person considers to be moral bay be judged to be immoral by another person (REL_03) Ethical considerations in interpersonal relations are so complex that individuals should be allowed to formulate their own individual codes (REL_04) Whether a lie is judged to be moral or immoral depends upon the circumstances surrounding the action (REL_05)	Developed by Forsyth (1980), used by Rawwas et al. (1994), Al-Khatib et al. (1995), Singhapakdi et al. (1996)
Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (Pce)	It is worthy to make efforts to reduce pollution (PCE_01) When I buy products, I try to consider how my use of them will affect the environment and other consumers (PCE_02) What every individual does for the environment will be useful to change the world (PCE_03) Each consumer can have a positive effect on society by purchasing products sold by socially responsible companies (PCE_04)	Kinnear et al. (1974), Webster (1975), Antil (1984), Ellen et al. (1991) and Ellen (1994), Roberts (1996), Straughan and Roberts (1999), Carrigan and Attalla (2001), Kim and Choi (2005), Webb et al. (2007), D'Astous and Legendre (2009)
Collectivism (Col)	It is very important to work hard for the goals of a group, even if it does not result in personal recognition (COL_01) It is very important to do what is good for most of the people in the community, even at a personal cost (COL_02) It is very important to help others in the community who are in need (COL_03)	McCarty and Shrum (2001), Webb et al. (2007)
Subjective Norms (SNorm)	My best friends behave responsibly (SNORM_01) My family behaves responsibly (SNORM_02) People that are important for me behave responsibly (SNORM_03) People that are important for me think that I should behave responsibly (SNORM_04)	Loo et al. (2013)
Economic responsibilities (Eco)	I do not consume more than necessary (ECO_01) I buy products that I know that I will use later (ECO_02) I do not spend more than what I earn (ECO_03)	*Chapter 2*
Environmental responsibilities (Env)	I pay attention to the environmental protection in daily life and consumption (ENV_01) I make personal sacrifices to reduce pollution (ENV_02) I do not buy products that potentially harm the environment (ENV_03) I have stopped buying certain products for environmental reasons (ENV_04)	*Chapter 2*
Philanthropic responsibilities (Phi)	I collaborate with an NGO (PHI_01) I support social and cultural activities with money or time (PHI_02) I encourage my friends and family to participate in charitable activities (PHI_03) I make donations to charities that support social and environmental causes (PHI_04) I dedicate effort and money to helping others (PHI_05)	*Chapter 2*
Legal responsibilities (Leg)	I meet my legal obligations (LEG_01) I always pay my taxes (LEG_02) I always try to follow the law (LEG_03)	*Chapter 2*
Ethical responsibilities (Eth)	Ethics has been essential for me to do right in life (ETH_01) I educate my children (or I would do so if I had them) considering ethics (ETH_02) In our family, all members are educated to be honest with others (ETH_03) I have never harmed others, although I could have benefited from it (ETH_04)	*Chapter 2*
Self-esteem (Sest)	I feel important (SEs_01) I have a high self-esteem (SEs_02) I feel that others need me (SEs_03) I feel good about myself (SEs_04)	Developed by Rosenberg (1965), related measures in relation to related constructs used by Kinnear et al. (1974), Belch (1982), Antil (1984), Durif et al. (2011)
Interpersonal Relationships (IR)	I have a good relationship with my family and friends (IR_01) My life is better thanks to the relationship I have with my family and friends (IR_02) I am satisfied with the way I get on with my family and friends (IR_03) I have a confidence relationship with my family and friends (IR_04)	Senécal et al. (1992), Phillippe et al. (2010)
Satisfaction with life (Sat)	In most ways my life is closed to my ideal (SAT_01) The conditions of my life are excellent (SAT_02) I am satisfied with my life (SAT_03) So far I have gotten the important things I want in life (SAT_04) If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing (SAT_05)	Developed by Pavot and Diener (1993)

Figure 4.3
Research model and hypotheses



4.4. Study 3

4.4.1. Research methodology

The unit of analysis of the Study 3 is the individual, older than eighteen years old. We collected the data through an online survey, designed and delivered by email to a sample of people of a city placed in the southeast of Spain. The questionnaire comprised three different blocks of questions using an eleven-point Likert scale -ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree-, providing responses to the model measurements of all constructs: the first one was based on the person's behavior regarding his/her level of self-esteem, satisfaction with life and the quality of his/her interpersonal relationships, all of them constituting the consequences of PSR. Consequences are placed on the first part of the survey. Second, we asked questions related to the personal social responsibility behaviors, including actions concerning the five dimensions of the economic, legal, ethical, philanthropic and environmental responsibilities of the individual. A third block of questions consisted in those related to the antecedents of PSR: that is, we collected measures of idealism, relativism, collectivism, perceived consumer effectiveness and subjective norms. The final part consisted of six demographic questions, being five of them closed-ended questions used to assess family income, gender, age, occupation and level of education. An additional open-ended question was used to assess the place of residence. Measures are shown in Table 4.2.

After the elimination of missing data, we obtained a total of 431 complete questionnaires for analysis. As summarized in Table 4.3, the 49,2% of respondents were men and 50,8% women; although the age ranges were balanced and seemed to be diverse, the sample was primarily young, being the 26,7% under 23 years old, 23,9% between 24 and 30 years old, the 21,8% were in their thirties (31-40 years old), the 20,6% were between 41 and 55 and, the little rest, was between 55 and 65 (6,3%) or older than 65 (0,7%). Most of them were high-educated: 5,6% of them had finished primary school, 28,3% secondary school and 10,1% had completed professional training; 39,4% had already graduated in university studies and 16,6% had a master degree or a PhD.

Table 4.3
Sample description (Study 3)

Gender		**Family Incomes**	
Men	49,2%	Low	4,6%
Women	50,8%	Low-Med	17,4%
Level of Education		Medium	49%
Primary School	5,6%	Med-High	26,9%
Secondary School	28,3%	High	2,1%
Professional Training	10,1%	**Occupation**	
University Degree	39,4%	Student	37,4%
Master / PhD	16,6%	Housework	0,5%
Age		Unemployed	4,9%
18 < 23	26,7%	Civil servant	23,2%
24 < 30	23,9%	Self-employed	10,7%
31 < 40	21,8%	Employed	23,4%
41 < 54	20,6%		
55 < 65	6,3%		
> 65	0,7%		

We used partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) based on survey data to test the measurement and the structural model. PLS-SEM is recommended to be well-suited for research situations where formatively constructs are part of the structural model (Becker et al, 2012; Hair et al, 2013) and theory is less developed (Chung et al., 2003, Gefen et al, 2011; Hair et al, 2013, Wetzels et al, 2009). In addition, it allows the use of a large number of variables, building complex frameworks of multi-block analysis and it eases the task of estimating formative constructs (Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer, 2001; Tenenhaus, 2008). Its optimality lies on the fact that the indicator weights maximize the R^2 values of the regressions between the composites in the model (Hair et al. 2014), can meaningfully improve reliability (Rigdon, 2012) or reduce the impact of measurement error (Fornell and Bookstein, 1982; Chin et al., 2003; Gefen et al., 2011).

In the following sections, we proceed to expose the main results of the analysis, that include in the first part the evaluation of the reflective and formative measures of the model, and in the second part the hypothesis testing.

4.4.2. Evaluation of the measurement model

Although the measurement model was already tested in Chapter Three, we proceed to repeat the process due to the inclusion of new variables, that can have an influence on the rest of the constructs and the overall operationalization of the model.

We assessed the adequacy of the first order reflective measures of the model through the examination of the internal consistency and reliability, and discriminant and convergent validity. Results of these tests are shown in Table 4.4 and include measures of *Idealism*, *Relativism*, *Perceived Consumer Effectiveness, Collectivism* and *Subjective Norms*, which conform the antecedents of the proposed model, as well as *Self-esteem*, *Interpersonal Relationships* and *Satisfaction With Life*, considered as outputs of Personal Social Responsibility.

Table 4.4 shows that all reflective measures generally exceeded the minimum levels required. First, internal consistency and reliability were found to be adequate, since composite reliability (CR) of the constructs vary between 0.86 and 0.96, and the Cronbach alphas are all greater than 0.77, both of them above the minimum of 0.70 required (Nunally, 1978). Additionally, all AVEs vary from 0.55 and 0.86, being therefore greater than 0.50, resulting in adequate discriminant validity. Lastly, convergent validity is supported by the significance -at a 99% level of confident interval- of all the item loadings. Results show that all the item loadings of the constructs Perceived Consumer Effectiveness, Subjective Norms, Collectivism, Interpersonal Relationships and Self-esteem are above the minimum required of 0.70 for convergent validity, whereas some of the item loadings of Idealism, Relativism and Satisfaction with Life were under or very close to the mentioned limit. All these items were maintained for two reasons: first, they were very close to the limit of 0.70 and, secondly, they all resulted significant at a 99% level of interval.

Table 4.4
Reliability and convergent validity of the measurement model (Study 3; n=431)

Latent Variable	Indicator	Loading	Weight	Lower limit	Upper limit	Cronbach α	AVE	CR
Idealism (Ide)	IDE_01	0.73**		0.645	0.782	0.81	0.58	0.87
	IDE_02	0.79**		0.703	0.857			
	IDE_03	0.84**		0.769	0.879			
	IDE_04	0.75**		0.653	0.816			
	IDE_05	0.68**		0.592	0.752			
Relativism (Rel)	REL_01	0.73**		0.614	0.814	0.80	0.55	0.86
	REL_02	0.81**		0.714	0.857			
	REL_03	0.80**		0.713	0.857			
	REL_04	0.70**		0.573	0.787			
	REL_05	0.66**		0.543	0.761			
Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (Pce)	PCE_01	0.79**		0.689	0.849	0.85	0.70	0.90
	PCE_02	0.89**		0.870	0.918			
	PCE_03	0.88**		0.841	0.904			
	PCE_04	0.78**		0.690	0.836			
Collectivism (Col)	COL_01	0.82**		0.728	0.862	0.77	0.69	0.87
	COL_02	0.91**		0.870	0.927			
	COL_03	0.75**		0.658	0.803			
Subjective Norms (SNorm)	SNORM_01	0.88**		0.825	0.910	0.84	0.76	0.91
	SNORM_02	0.81**		0.745	0.871			
	SNORM_03	0.93**		0.891	0.946			
Self-Esteem (Sest)	SEST_01	0.85**		0.805	0.885	0.87	0.72	0.91
	SEST _02	0.91**		0.876	0.925			
	SEST _03	0.76**		0.691	0.814			
	SEST _04	0.86**		0.794	0.883			
Interpersonal Relationships (IR)	IR_01	0.95**		0.929	0.958	0.94	0.86	0.96
	IR_02	0.91**		0.871	0.932			
	IR_03	0.94**		0.922	0.954			
	IR_04	0.91**		0.846	0.936			
Satisfaction with Life (SWL)	SWL_01	0.86**		0.831	0.893	0.84	0.64	0.90
	SWL _02	0.77**		0.710	0.817			
	SWL _03	0.88**		0.849	0.905			
	SWL _04	0.80**		0.735	0.840			
	SWL _05	0.68**		0.599	0.744			
Personal Social Responsibility (PSR)	Economic	0.59**	0.22**	0.159	0.284	N/A	N/A	N/A
	Ethical	0.77**	0.44**	0.382	0.517			
	Philanthropic	0.58**	0.29**	0.199	0.362			
	Legal	0.61**	0.26**	0.176	0.323			
	Environmental	0.68**	0.31**	0.240	0.387			

Note: Lower and upper limits at the 99% Bca confidence interval; CR = Composed Reliability; AVE = Average Variance Extracted; N/A = Not Applicable; $^{**}p < 0{,}01$; $^{*}p < 0{,}05$

Table 4.5 shows the results that demonstrate discriminant validity of the reflective indicators included in the model. It can be checked that, firstly, all the AVE's square roots (in bold along the diagonal) are higher than the highest correlation between the variables (in the lower half of the matrix), and secondly, all the HTMT ratios are under 0.90, ranging from -0.286 and 0.692 (in the upper half of the matrix).

Table 4.5
Discriminant validity of the measurement model (Study 3)

Latent Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Collectivism	**0.831**	0.667	-0.154	0.452	0.373	0.654	0.255	0.146	0.211
2. Idealism	0.536	**0.762**	-0.163	0.325	0.417	0.495	0.304	0.147	0.261
3. Relativism	-0.123	-0.133	**0.741**	0.086	-0.021	-0.286	-0.021	-0.093	-0.156
4. Perceived Consumer Effectiveness	0.370	0.278	0.065	**0.837**	0.224	0.581	0.162	0.094	0.100
5. Subjective Norms	0.297	0.347	-0.022	0.191	**0.872**	0.453	0.343	0.233	0.272
6. Personal Social Responsibility	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	0.327	0.326	0.372
7. Interpersonal Relationships	0.217	0.271	-0.018	0.144	0.294	N/A	**0.927**	0.399	0.482
8. Self-esteem	0.116	0.122	-0.087	0.075	0.193	N/A	0.361	**0.849**	0.692
9. Satisfaction with Life	0.170	0.222	-0.132	0.083	0.236	N/A	0.434	0.613	**0.802**

[a] Square Root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) is reported in bold along the diagonal; [b] Correlations between latent variables are reported in the lower half of the matrix; [c] Heterotrait-Heteromethod/Monotrait-Heteromethod (HTMT) Ratios are reported in the upper half of the matrix; N/A = Not Applicable

We therefore can conclude that all reflective measures included in the model, five of them constituting the antecedents and the other three the outcomes of Personal Social Responsibility, meet the standard requirements for an adequate internal consistency and reliability, and a great convergent and discriminant validity.

Secondly, a different procedure is applied to validate the measurement of formative constructs, given that the constructs have different and, sometimes, opposite characteristics.

In the case of formative indicators, absence of multicollinearity between the indicators and the significance of their weights and relevance on the evaluated construct should be tested. Therefore, we proceeded to evaluate the measurement of the formative indicators through the assessment of multicollinearity, the indicator weights and their significance and, lastly, the indicators loadings and their significance (Hair et al., 2013). First, problems of multicollinearity exist when R^2 is over 0.80 (Hair et al, 2011), the tolerance (TOL) is under 0.20, or the variance inflation factor (VIF) of each of the indicators is above or equal the value of 5 (Aldás-Manzano, 2015), although some authors have set this last maximum value at a higher limit of 10 (Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer, 2001; Gujarati, 2003; Götz and Liehr-Gobbers, 2004). The VIF reflects the part of the variance that can be explained by the indicators of the construct. In our case, Table 4.6 indicates that all R^2 vary between 0.23 and 0.37, and the VIF's are between 1.30 and 1.59, thus resulting in no problems of excessive collinearity.

Table 4.6
Multicollinearity test (Study 3)

	R^2	VIF
Economic	0.23	1.30
Philanthropic	0.26	1.35
Legal	0.30	1.43
Environmental	0.37	1.59
Ethical	0.32	1.47

R^2 = Multiple R-squared; VIF = Variance Inflation Factor

After testing possible multicollinearity problems, the second step was to assess the significance of the loadings and weights of all the variables considered under analysis. To do so, a bootstrapping procedure (1000 samples) was applied, resulting all of the items' weights of the formative constructs significant at a 99% of confidence interval. Results, which are shown in Table 4.4, show the direct significance of the items referred to the *economic, ethical*, *philanthropic, legal* and *environmental* dimensions of Personal Social Responsibility, thus meeting the general assessment for their maintenance.

Absence of multicollinearity can be already a sufficient reason to maintain the five dimensions, such as Sánchez (2014) asserts. Additionally, the five items' loadings are high (above 0.50) and significant at a 99% of confidence interval, which gives support to the consideration of the dimensions as formative indicators of the Personal Social Responsibility construct.

Results of the current study show that the formative construct developed has achieved acceptable levels of validity and reliability. Overall, the measurement model exhibited sufficiently strong psychometric properties to support further analysis and a valid testing of the structural model. After the assurance of an adequate measurement model, in the following section we proceed to evaluate the structural model through the hypothesis testing.

4.4.3. Evaluation of the structural model

Having developed the PSR Index and proved its psychometric characteristics, we were interested in knowing whether it related to other theoretical constructs as predicted by theory (Roman, 2006). The purpose was to obtain insights into the

nomological validity of the PSR Index. First, it has been demonstrated that the five dimensions considered –that is, the *economic*, *legal*, *ethical*, *philanthropic* and *environmental* responsibilities of a person- formatively define the construct Personal Social Responsibility. Then, we addressed additional questions to accordingly validate its nomological validity. That is, do collectivism, idealism, relativism, perceived consumer effectiveness and subjective norms have a significant and positive influence on personal social responsibility? And second, does a personal responsible behavior lead to better levels of self-esteem, interpersonal relationships and satisfaction with life?

Answers to these questions represent the assessment of the structural model proposed. Its analyses include both the coefficients of determination (R^2) and the predictive relevance (Q^2) of the dependent latent variables, as well as the significance of the regression coefficients of the structural part of the model (hypothesis testing).

We used a bootstrapping procedure to assess the significance of the hypothesized paths and the amount of variance in the dependent variables attributed to the explanatory variables (Hair et al., 2013). The following table shows the main results of the analysis.

Table 4.7
Evaluation of the structural model and hypothesis contrast (Study 3)

Hypothesis	Description	Standardized *β*	*t* Value
H1	Idealism → Personal Social Responsibility	0.101	1.68
H2	Relativism → Personal Social Responsibility	-0.181**	-4.64
H3	Perceived Consumer Effectiveness → Personal Social Responsibility	0.305**	6.46
H4	Collectivism → Personal Social Responsibility	0.242**	4.31
H5	Subjective Norms → Personal Social Responsibility	0.191**	4.11
H6	Personal Social Responsibility → Self-esteem	0.260**	5.09
H7	Personal Social Responsibility → Interpersonal Relationships	0.283**	4.50
H8	Personal Social Responsibility → Satisfaction with Life	0.100**	2.40
H9	Self-esteem → Satisfaction with Life	0.507**	11.15
H10	Interpersonal Relationships → Satisfaction with Life	0.222**	5.10

R^2 (Psr)=0.40; R^2 (IR)=0.08; R^2 (Sest)=0.07; R^2 (Sat)=0.44; Q^2 (Psr)=0.13; Q^2 (IR)=0.09; Q^2 (Sest)=0.04; Q^2 (Sat)=0.23; $^{**}p < 0{,}01$; $^{*}p < 0{,}05$

The amount of variance attributed to the latent variables (R^2) and the value of the predictive relevance (Q^2) determine the overall predictive power of the model (Cao and Duang, 2014). First, values of Q^2 above zero indicate an adequate predictive relevance with regard to the latent variables, being in this case satisfactory for all measures of Personal Social Responsibility (0.15), Interpersonal Relationships (0.09),

Self-esteem (0.04) and Satisfaction with Life (0.27). Second, we used a bootstrapping procedure (1.000 samples) to assess the significance of the variance attributed to the latent variables, resulting all R^2 significant at a 95% of confidence level. These results therefore show an adequate and satisfactory predictive relevance of the model.

After assessing the predictive relevance of the model, nomological validity was analyzed. We test nomological validity to assure the model's external validity, including the analysis of the way PSR relates with other independent (antecedents) and dependent (consequences) measures, in this case based on ten hypotheses graphically represented in Figure 4.3 and summarized in Table 4.7.

Regarding the hypotheses reflecting the influence of the variables that lead to behave in a more responsible way, that is the antecedents of Personal Social Responsibility, all of them –excepting *idealism*- resulted to be significant at a 99% of confidence level. These variables were divided in two different groups, one of them representing an individual context of treatment (measures of *idealism*, *relativism* and *subjective norms*), and the other one referred to a social context (including *collectivism* and *perceived consumer effectiveness*).

First, the individual context of behavior was analyzed. Results show that idealism has not a significant influence on the level of social responsibility that a person might have (β=0.10, t=1.68), whereas relativism has a significant and negative effect on the construct (β=-0.18, t=-4.64) as expected, leading to the rejection of hypotheses H1 and the support of H2; and PCE has been found to be a key determinant of personal social responsibility (β=0.31, t=6.46), in support of hypothesis H3.

Second, we tested the *social* dimension of behavior, in which both of the variables had a positive and significant effect on the construct under research. This way, we proved that measures of collectivism lead to higher levels of social responsibility (β=0.24, t=4.31), resulting hypothesis H4 supported. Lastly, the way others think and behave –that is, subjective norms- also has a positive and significant influence on PSR (β=0.19, t=4.11), leading to the support of hypothesis H5.

After testing the hypotheses regarding the antecedents of PSR, consequences of this kind of behavior were tested. We proved that PSR has a positive and significant influence on the three variables identified as outputs of individual responsible behavior. Thus, behaving responsibly will lead to higher levels of self-esteem (β=0.26, t=5.09), to have better interpersonal relationships (β=0.28, t=4.50), and to feel happier or more satisfied with life (β=0.10, t=2.40), supporting hypotheses H6, H7 and H8.

Finally, in addition to the fact that behaving in a responsible way will help to feel happier, it is demonstrated that higher levels of self-esteem (β=0.51, t=11.15) and better interpersonal relationships (β=0.22, t=5.10) also have a positive and significant influence on the satisfaction that a person will feel with his/her life.

4.4.4. Additional results

Even though partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM) has been demonstrated to be well-suited for modeling formative constructs (Becker et al., 2012; Hair et al, 2013) when theory is less developed (Chung et al., 2003, Gefen et al, 2011; Hair et al., 2013, Wetzels et al., 2009) and its optimality has been proved (Fornell and Bookstein, 1982; Chin et al., 2003; Gefen et al., 2011; Rigdon, 2012; Hair et al. 2014), some authors have pointed to the fallacy of formative compared to reflective measurement (Edwards, 2011), or the shortcomings of using PLS as a structural equation modeling technique (Rönkkö et al., 2016).

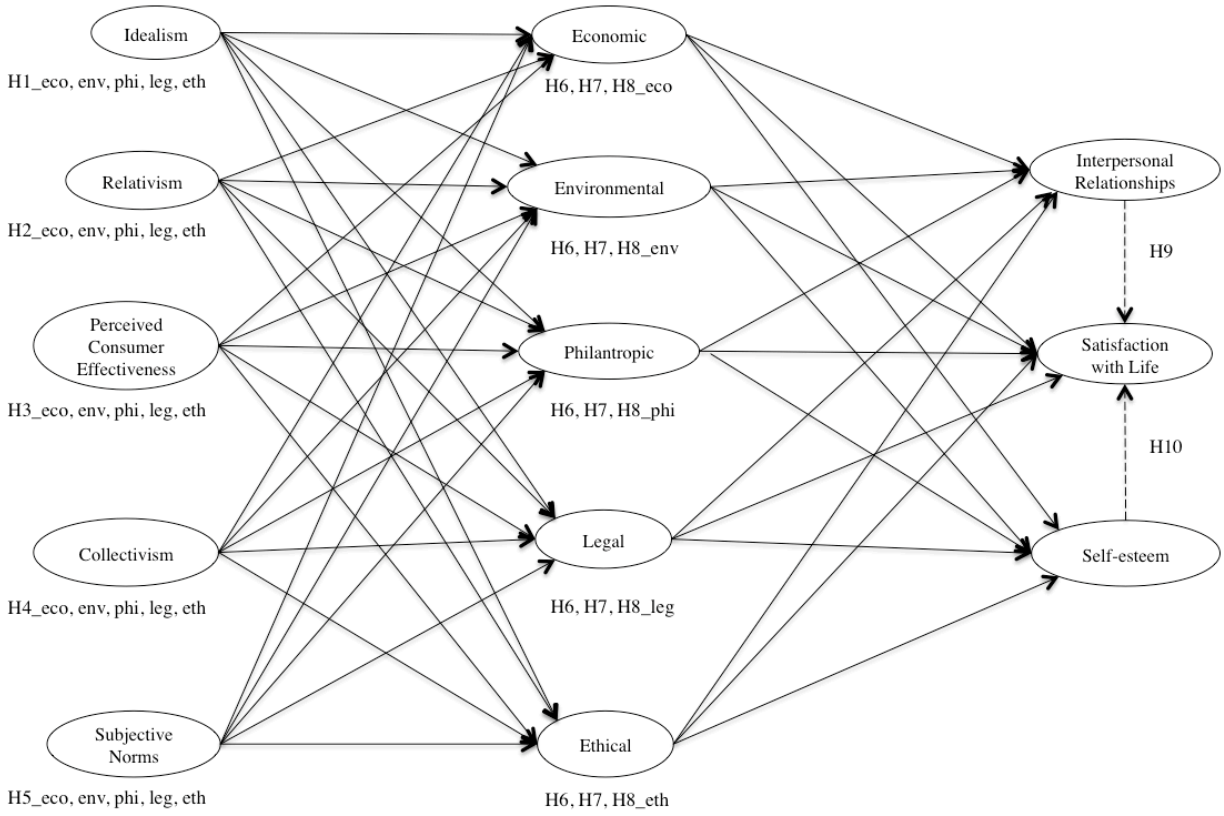
Thus, given that the increasing popularity of PLS in various applied disciplines is a fairly recent phenomenon (Rönkkö et al., 2016) and the existence of opposing researchers to its usage and application (Rönkkö and Evermann, 2013; McIntosh et al., 2014; Guide & Ketokivi, 2015; Rönkkö, 2014; Goodhue et al., 2015; Rönkkö et al., 2015; Rönkkö et al., 2016), we undertook additional analysis using SEM in order to complement the results and prove the suitability of the proposed model.

To assess the reliability, validity and unidimensionality for the resulting measurement scales, a validation check was performed. We evaluated the reliability of the constructs using Cronbach's alpha coefficients (see Table 4.8). Cronbach's alphas for the five dimensions of PSR ranged between 0.67 and 0.92, and those related to the dependent and independent measures of the model ranged between 0.77 and 0.94. Thus, all the antecedents and consequences of PSR were above the limit of 0.70 and, among the dimensions comprising the construct, only the economic and the ethical responsibilities did not reach it, being very close to it (0.67 and 0.68 respectively).

The measurement model was tested with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), resulting acceptable overall model fit statistics [$\chi^2_{(1196)}$ = 1944.73, p = 0.00; RMSEA = 0.04; SRMR = 0.05; NNFI = 0.91; CFI = 0.92]. We assessed reliability using the composite reliability index and the average variance extracted (AVE) index. The composite reliability index for all the measures was higher than the evaluation criteria

of 0.60 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988), as Table 4.8 shows. The AVE index, which should be higher than 0.50, is reached by almost all the measures, except the idealism and relativism (with 0.49 and 0.45 respectively, nearly the limit set by the literature), and the economic and ethical responsibilities, being of 0.43 and 0.39.

Figure 4.4
Research model and hypotheses using SEM



Convergent validity was assessed by verifying the significance of the *t*-values associated with the parameter estimates (Table 4.8). All *t*-values were positive and significant ($p < 0.01$).

Table 4.8
Construct and measures (Study 3)

Item	λ	*t*	mean	s.d.	ρ_c	AVE	α
Idealism (Ide)					0.82	0.49	0.81
IDE_01	0.61	NA	9.22	0.06			
IDE_02	0.73	8.13	8.56	0.09			
IDE_03	0.82	7.24	9.06	0.07			
IDE_04	0.70	6.11	9.06	0.07			
IDE_05	0.60	6.61	8.51	0.09			
Relativism (Rel)					0.80	0.45	0.80
REL_01	0.68	NA	5.67	0.16			
REL_02	0.82	14.59	6.34	0.16			
REL_03	0.74	10.84	7.44	0.14			
REL_04	0.52	9.18	5.55	0.15			
REL_05	0.55	9.69	6.17	0.15			
Perceived Consumer Effectiveness (PCE)					0.86	0.61	0.85
PCE_01	0.73	NA	7.53	0.12			
PCE_02	0.92	15.62	7.79	0.10			
PCE_03	0.82	13.34	8.33	0.09			
PCE_04	0.63	10.48	8.18	0.10			
Collectivism (Col)					0.80	0.57	0.77
COL_01	0.74	NA	7.76	0.09			
COL_02	0.91	13.20	8.07	0.08			
COL_03	0.58	8.59	8.65	0.07			
Subjective Norms (SNorm)					0.86	0.67	0.84
SNORM_01	0.73	NA	7.01	0.09			
SNORM_02	0.76	12.67	7.85	0.09			
SNORM_03	0.95	15.22	7.60	0.08			
Economic responsibilities (Eco)					0.69	0.43	0.67
ECO_01	0.62	NA	8.06	0.08			
ECO_02	0.71	8.46	6.59	0.12			
ECO_03	0.63	7.84	8.03	0.13			
Environmental responsibilities (Env)					0.92	0.75	0.92
ENV_01	0.86	NA	5.25	0.16			
ENV_02	0.91	27.95	6.22	0.13			
ENV_03	0.86	24.47	5.42	0.14			
ENV_04	0.82	24.36	5.36	0.14			
Philanthropic responsibilities (Phi)					0.90	0.64	0.89
PHI_01	0.81	NA	4.53	0.18			
PHI_02	0.84	23.86	5.24	0.15			
PHI_03	0.75	23.21	3.76	0.20			
PHI_04	0.80	21.75	4.41	0.18			
PHI_05	0.79	21.42	4.67	0.17			
Legal responsibilities (Leg)					0.86	0.68	0.84
LEG_01	0.78	NA	8.56	0.08			
LEG_02	0.73	8.26	9.15	0.08			
LEG_03	0.95	11.90	9.18	0.07			
Ethical responsibilities (Eth)					0.72	0.39	0.68
ETH_01	0.69	NA	9.41	0.05			
ETH_02	0.66	8.05	9.40	0.06			
ETH_03	0.54	6.89	8.47	0.09			
ETH_04	0.59	6.20	8.39	0.09			

Self-Esteem (SEst)					0.87	0.63	0.87
SEST_01	0.79	NA	6.26	0.10			
SEST _02	0.90	18.31	6.71	0.10			
SEST _03	0.66	15.49	6.33	0.10			
SEST_04	0.81	12.38	7.27	0.09			
Interpersonal Relationships (IR)					0.95	0.81	0.94
IR_01	0.93	NA	8.53	0.06			
IR_02	0.87	22.22	8.56	0.07			
IR_03	0.92	24.51	8.26	0.08			
IR_04	0.88	18.03	8.40	0.07			
Satisfaction with Life (SWL)					0.86	0.57	0.84
SWL_01	0.83	NA	6.60	0.09			
SWL _02	0.72	15.71	6.84	0.10			
SWL _03	0.87	21.05	7.38	0.09			
SWL _04	0.74	14.64	7.09	0.09			
SWL _05	0.58	11.47	6.24	0.13			

To test the discriminant validity, the Φ-matrix (correlations between constructs) is provided in Table 4.9. The test gives evidence for discriminant validity, since none of the confidence intervals of the Φ-values (± two standard errors) included the value of one (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988).

Table 4.9
Φ-matrix of latent constructs for full sample (Study 3)

Latent Variable	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**	**13**
1. Collectivism	1.00 (0.24)												
2. Idealism	0.55 (0.10)	1.00 (0.13)											
3. Relativism	-0.13 (0.18)	-0.16 (0.10)	1.00 (0.68)										
4. Perceived Consumer Effectiveness	0.41 (0.16)	0.31 (0.11)	0.08 (0.23)	1.00 (0.42)									
5. Subjective Norms	0.29 (0.12)	0.36 (0.10)	-0.02 (0.18)	0.14 (0.17)	1.00 (0.29)								
6. Economic	0.25 (0.10)	0.15 (0.06)	-0.09 (0.15)	0.22 (0.14)	0.19 (0.11)	1.00 (0.26)							
7. Environmental	0.32 (0.23)	0.14 (0.14)	-0.13 (0.38)	0.64 (0.33)	0.19 (0.24)	0.52 (0.24)	1.00 (0.54)						
8. Philanthropic	0.38 (0.24)	0.12 (0.14)	-0.22 (0.42)	0.40 (0.33)	0.09 (0.23)	0.21 (0.20)	0.55 (0.48)	1.00 (0.65)					
9. Legal	0.30 (0.11)	0.35 (0.08)	-0.15 (0.16)	0.09 (0.13)	0.37 (0.18)	0.33 (0.15)	0.12 (0.20)	0.08 (0.19)	1.00 (0.30)				
10. Ethical	0.51 (0.09)	0.59 (0.08)	-0.16 (0.11)	0.28 (0.12)	0.41 (0.12)	0.40 (0.11)	0.27 (0.15)	0.24 (0.14)	0.65 (0.16)	1.00 (0.16)			
11. Interpersonal Relationships	0.20 (0.10)	0.28 (0.08)	-0.03 (0.16)	0.14 (0.15)	0.29 (0.11)	0.14 (0.11)	0.12 (0.19)	0.14 (0.21)	0.17 (0.12)	0.41 (0.11)	1.00 (0.18)		
12. Self-esteem	0.13 (0.13)	0.10 (0.06)	-0.11 (0.21)	0.04 (0.17)	0.19 (0.13)	0.27 (0.14)	0.15 (0.24)	0.15 (0.27)	0.10 (0.11)	0.28 (0.10)	0.36 (0.14)	1.00 (0.30)	
13. Satisfaction with Life	0.17 (0.12)	0.23 (0.09)	-0.11 (0.21)	0.08 (0.17)	0.26 (0.14)	0.19 (0.13)	0.09 (0.23)	0.20 (0.26)	0.14 (0.13)	0.36 (0.12)	0.46 (0.14)	0.67 (0.18)	1.00 (0.24)

Note: Standard errors in parentheses

In summary, internal consistency and discriminant validity show enough support to proceed with the estimation of the structural model.

Table 4.10 reports the results of the structural equations modeling applied to test the hypotheses proposed in the theoretical model. We used the asymptotic covariance matrix and robust maximum likelihood in model estimation. The model fit the data acceptably, as evidenced by the goodness-of-fit measures [$\chi^2_{(12222)} = 2131.57$, $p = 0.00$; RMSEA = 0.04; SRMR = 0.06; NNFI = 0.90; CFI = 0.91].

Table 4.10
Model testing (Study 3)

Hypothesis	**Relationships**	***β* (Standard error)**
H1_eco	Idealism → Economic Responsibilities	-0.10 (0.09)
H1_env	Idealism → Environmental Responsibilities	-0.24 (0.05)***
H1_phi	Idealism → Philanthropic Responsibilities	-0.25 (0.07)***
H1_leg	Idealism → Legal Responsibilities	0.20 (0.08)*
H1_eth	Idealism → Ethical Responsibilities	0.35 (0.09)***
H2_eco	Relativism → Economic Responsibilities	-0.13 (0.06)*
H2_env	Relativism → Environmental Responsibilities	-0.23 (0.05)***
H2_phi	Relativism → Philanthropic Responsibilities	-0.27 (0.05)***
H2_leg	Relativism → Legal Responsibilities	-0.09 (0.05)*
H2_eth	Relativism → Ethical Responsibilities	-0.09 (0.05)
H3_eco	Perceived Consumer Effectiveness → Economic Responsibilities	0.21 (0.08)**
H3_env	Perceived Consumer Effectiveness → Environmental Responsibilities	0.68 (0.04)***
H3_phi	Perceived Consumer Effectiveness → Philanthropic Responsibilities	0.38 (0.05)***
H3_leg	Perceived Consumer Effectiveness → Legal Responsibilities	-0.05 (0.05)
H3_eth	Perceived Consumer Effectiveness → Ethical Responsibilities	0.07 (0.06)
H4_eco	Collectivism → Economic Responsibilities	0.18 (0.10)
H4_env	Collectivism → Environmental Responsibilities	0.12 (0.06)*
H4_phi	Collectivism → Philanthropic Responsibilities	0.33 (0.06)***
H4_leg	Collectivism → Legal Responsibilities	0.13 (0.09)
H4_eth	Collectivism → Ethical Responsibilities	0.22 (0.09)*
H5_eco	Subjective Norms → Economic Responsibilities	0.18 (0.07)**
H5_env	Subjective Norms → Environmental Responsibilities	0.14 (0.05)***
H5_phi	Subjective Norms → Philanthropic Responsibilities	0.04 (0.05)
H5_leg	Subjective Norms → Legal Responsibilities	0.27 (0.08)***
H5_eth	Subjective Norms → Ethical Responsibilities	0.25 (0.06)***
H6_eco	Economic Responsibilities → Self-esteem	0.22 (0.07)**
H6_env	Environmental Responsibilities → Self-esteem	-0.05 (0.05)
H6_phi	Philanthropic Responsibilities → Self-esteem	0.07 (0.06)
H6_leg	Legal Responsibilities → Self-esteem	-0.11 (0.04)*
H6_eth	Ethical Responsibilities → Self-esteem	0.30 (0.06)***
H7_eco	Economic Responsibilities → Interpersonal Relationships	0.04 (0.06)
H7_env	Environmental Responsibilities → Interpersonal Relationships	-0.05 (0.04)
H7_phi	Philanthropic Responsibilities → Interpersonal Relationships	0.05 (0.05)
H7_leg	Legal Responsibilities → Interpersonal Relationships	-0.07 (0.05)
H7_eth	Ethical Responsibilities → Interpersonal Relationships	0.48 (0.06)***
H8_eco	Economic Responsibilities → Satisfaction with Life	-0.01 (0.05)
H8_env	Environmental Responsibilities → Satisfaction with Life	-0.11 (0.04)*
H8_phi	Philanthropic Responsibilities → Satisfaction with Life	0.11 (0.05)*
H8_leg	Legal Responsibilities → Satisfaction with Life	-0.03 (0.03)
H8_eth	Ethical Responsibilities → Satisfaction with Life	0.17 (0.06)**
H9	Interpersonal Relationships → Satisfaction with Life	0.21 (0.05)***
H10	Self-esteem → Satisfaction with Life	0.56 (0.05)***

*** $p < 0{,}001$; ** $p < 0{,}01$; * $p < 0{,}05$

First, idealism was found to have a positive and significant effect on the legal (ß = 0.20, SE = 0.08) and the ethical (ß = 0.35, SE = 0.09) responsibilities. On the other hand, it had a negative and significant interaction with the environmental (ß = -0.24, SE = 0.05) and the philanthropic (ß = -0.25, SE = 0.07) responsibilities, and a non-significant relation with the economic (ß = -0.10, SE = 0.09) responsibilities of a person, supporting hypotheses H1_leg and H1_eth, and rejecting H1_env, H1_phi and H1_eco. Idealism measures the belief and acceptance of moral absolutes (Singhapakdi et al, 1996), inherent to the human being and independent from the circumstances surrounding the action, and it seems logical that, regardless of the personality or the nature of the person, everybody *should* obey the law and behave under ethical standards. The fact that it has a negative relation with the environmental and philanthropic responsibilities could lie on the idea that these behaviors represent active efforts and voluntary actions that do depend on the personal characteristics of the individual.

The other variable related to one's personal moral beliefs, Relativism, was found –as expected- to have a negative impact on the five dimensions of PSR, being significant on its relation with the economic (ß = -0.13, SE = 0.06), environmental (ß = -0.23, SE = 0.05), philanthropic (ß = -0.27, SE = 0.05) and legal (ß = -0.09, SE = 0.05) responsibilities and non significant with the ethical ones (ß = -0.09, SE = 0.05), thus supporting hypotheses H2_eco, H2_env, H2_phi and H2_leg, and rejecting H2_leg.

Believe that one personal efforts and behaviors will have an impact on the world significantly affects the way a person acts in the economic (ß = 0.21, SE = 0.08), environmental (ß = 0.68, SE = 0.04) and philanthropic (ß = 0.38, SE = 0.05) areas of life, and does not significantly affect the legal (ß = -0.05, SE = 0.05) and ethical (ß = 0.07, SE = 0.06) behaviors. This means that hypotheses H3_eco, H3_env and H3_phil are supported, while H3_leg and H3_eth are rejected.

Then, we tested the effect of Collectivism on the five dimensions of PSR. While being a person that seeks for the welfare of the group (that is, collectivism in opposition to individualism) did not significantly lead to be responsible in the economic and the legal fields (ß = 0.18, SE = 0.10 and ß = 0.13, SE = 0.09 respectively), thus rejecting H4_eco and H4_leg, its interaction with environmental (ß = 0.12, SE = 0.06), philanthropic (ß = 0.33, SE = 0.06) and ethical (ß = 0.22, SE = 0.09) responsibilities did, in support of H4_env, H4_phi and H4_eth.

Subjective Norms, also known as Social Norms, interacts positively with all the dimensions of PSR and significantly with all of them except with the philanthropic (ß = 0.04, SE = 0.05) responsibilities. That is, H5_eco, H5_env, H5_leg and H5_eth are supported (corresponding respectively with the economic -ß = 0.18, SE = 0.07-, environmental -ß = 0.14, SE = 0.05-, legal -ß = 0.27, SE = 0.08- and ethical -ß = 0.25, SE = 0.06- responsibilities).

After the analysis of the relation between the independent variables (antecedents of PSR) and the five dimensions of PSR, we proceeded to test the interaction with them with the dependent variables (consequences of PSR). The first consequence of PSR that we tested was the level of Self-esteem and its relation with the five dimensions. Among them, neither the environmental (ß = -0.05, SE = 0.05) nor the philanthropic (ß = 0.07, SE = 0.06) behaviors significantly led to have better levels of self-esteem, rejecting therefore hypotheses H6_env and H6_phi. On the contrary, and as it was expected, the economic (ß = 0.22, SE = 0.07) and ethical (ß = 0.30, SE = 0.06) responsibilities did, supporting H6_eco and H6_eth. Lastly, legal responsibilities (ß = -0.11, SE = 0.04) appeared to have a significant but negative effect on the level of self-esteem of a person.

Secondly, the only dimension found to have a positive and significant impact on Interpersonal Relationships was the ethical responsibilities (ß = 0.48, SE = 0.06), thus supporting hypothesis H7_eth. The rest of dimensions (economic -ß = 0.04, SE = 0.06-, environmental -ß = -0.05, SE = 0.04-, philanthropic -ß = 0.05, SE = 0.05- and legal -ß = -0.07, SE = 0.05- responsibilities) did not appear to significantly interact with Interpersonal Relationships, leading to the rejection of hypotheses H7_eco, H7_env, H7_phi and H7_eth.

Finally, the last consequence of PSR that was analyzed was Satisfaction with Life, also known as Subjective Wellbeing or Happiness. Among PSR's dimensions or constructs, being responsible in one's philanthropic (ß = 0.11, SE = 0.05) and ethical (ß = 0.17, SE = 0.06) areas of life was found to have a positive and significant influence on SWL; environmental responsibilities (ß = -0.11, SE = 0.04) had a significant but negative influence on it; and the economic (ß = -0.01, SE = 0.05) and legal (ß = -0.03, SE = 0.03) dimensions were not found to be significantly related to the level of SWL of a person.

Additionally, having better Interpersonal Relationships (ß = 0.21, SE = 0.05) and higher levels of Self-esteem (ß = 0.56, SE = 0.05) also significantly and positively affect the satisfaction a person feels about his/her life.

4.5. Discussion

After having developed and dimensioned the construct under research (Chapters 1 and 2), and having tested its formative nature (Chapter 3), Chapter 4 pursues the design and validation of a complete framework of Personal Social Responsibility. To do so, a review of extant literature on CnSR and CSR has led to the identification of five antecedents and three consequences of PSR. Among the predictors of this kind of behavior, two perspectives of action have been defined, the individual –or the self- and the social behavior (Triandis, 1989). The individual sphere of action is composed by the moral philosophies of the person –measured through the idealism and the relativism scales developed by Forsyth (1980)- and the perceived consumer effectiveness (Kinnear et al., 1974; Webster, 1975; Antil, 1984; Ellen et al., 1991; Ellen, 1994; Roberts, 1996; Straughan and Roberts, 1999; Carrigan and Attalla, 2001; Kim and Choi, 2005; Webb et al., 2007; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009). The social sphere contained measures of collectivism (McCarty and Shrum, 2001; Webb et al., 2007) and subjective norms (Loo et al., 2013). The consequences or outputs of behaving responsibly were identified from the literature of CSR and adapted to the individual. Self-esteem, satisfaction with life and interpersonal relationships were identified as the main outputs of a personal responsible behavior as a parallelism of the effects of CSR on the reputation (Du et al., 2007), the stakeholders' loyalty and satisfaction (Anderson et al., 1994; Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Nguyen and Leblanc, 2001; Ismail et al., 2006; Isa, 2011) and the profitability (Burke and Logsdon, 1996; Lantos, 2001; Husted, 2003; Windsor, 2001; Greenfield, 2004) of companies.

The individual context was first analyzed, concerning individual values and beliefs that determine the way a person considers general issues related to ethical circumstances or dilemmas. In this sense, *idealism* reflects the belief and acceptance of moral absolutes (Singhapakdi et al, 1996), inherent to the human being and independent from the circumstances surrounding the action, whereas *relativism* reflects the rejection of universal moral principles. In the context of the relationship between these variables

and the construct Personal Social Responsibility, results proved that idealism has not a significant influence on the level of social responsibility that a person might have, while relativism has a significant and negative effect on the construct, as expected. Although these measures have not been tested in relation to similar constructs as determinants of responsible behavior, results of this study regarding the relativism scale are in accordance with the work developed by Singhapakdi et al. (1996) within the context of organizations: the authors found a negative and significant influence of relativism on social responsibility and profitability, long-term and short-term gains and a positive influence of idealism on the long-term gains of enterprises, something similar seems to happen when we analyze individual behavior.

The last variable of the *self* behavior meant to have an influence on Personal Social Responsibility is the Perceived Consumer Effectiveness. Earlier research in consumer behavior provides empirical evidence for the positive effect of Perceived Consumer Effectiveness on consumer social responsibility. For example, Kinnear et al. (1974) found PCE to have a significant relationship with ecological concern about pollution, and Webster (1975) found a strong influence of the variable on socially conscious consumption, having an effect on recycling behavior and on the consideration of the social impacts of purchase decisions. Additionally, it was found to be the best predictor of Environmentally Conscious Consumer Behavior (Roberts, 1996; Straughan and Roberts, 1999) and to have a positive and significant relation with CSR performance, environmental impact of purchase and usage decisions and recycling behaviors, the three factors determining the socially responsible consumption construct defined by Webb et al. (2007). Aligned with all these results but in the opposite direction, PCE resulted to have a negative and significant correlation with Consumers' Reasons for Unethical Behavior (D'Astous and Legendre, 2009). In accordance with all these previous works, PCE stands as a key determinant of personal social responsibility, having a significant and positive influence on the way individuals behave. This result leads to reinforce that those individuals who believe that their actions and decisions can have an influence on the global environment and on solving certain problems is a key factor to engage in responsible behaviors.

Then, the social context delimited was tested, reflecting the individual characteristics of the person in relation with the rest of the society and the environment. The two variables identified resulted to have a positive and significant influence on PSR.

First, we proved that collectivism leads to higher levels of social responsibility. Previous literature has also found a significant influence of this variable on different factors, such as CSR performance (Webb et al., 2007) and recycling behavior (McCarty and Shrum, 2001). Results of the current study, including those from previous research, indicate that a person who tends to be more collectivistic (in contrast with an individualistic personality) has into account the company's socially responsible behavior in his/her purchasing decisions (Webb et al., 2007), believes in recycling as an important issue and therefore recycles (McCarty and Shrum, 2001) and, finally, tends to behave in a more socially responsible way.

The last antecedent of PSR tested was the Subjective Norms, considered as the pressure felt by the individual to perform in a particular way. Results of the study indicate that the way *others* behave and think have a positive and significant impact on the way *we* behave. This result empirically proves the believe of Loo et al. (2013), for whom subjective and personal norms have an influence on consumer social responsibility, showing that people are influenced by their close stakeholder's behaviors, feeling certain pressures to perform in a way that will be accepted by them. Therefore, those who are part of responsible groups or who are surrounded by responsible people will tend to be more socially responsible.

In addition to all the aforementioned antecedents of PSR, we included three variables in the model as consequences of socially responsible behavior.

First, we tested whether behaving responsibly in the economic, legal, ethical, environmental and philanthropic dimensions of one's life leads to feel better about oneself. That is, whether PSR has a positive and significant effect on the level of self-esteem a person may feel. Kinnear et al. (1974) introduced the way a person feels about him/herself as a possible predictor of the ecological concern index, although they did not find the relation significant. However, in this case self-esteem is considered as an output and not as a predictor of responsible behavior, and this relation is proved to be empirically significant and positive, indicating that people who behave more socially responsibly indeed feel better about themselves. In line with this idea, Antil (1984) found self-concept and Durif et al. (2011) one's personal image as determinants that differ between high and low socially responsible consumers.

Then, we expected that a personal socially responsible behavior would lead a person to have better interpersonal relationships, just in the same way that Corporate Social Responsibility policies are expected to have a positive impact on the relationship

of an organization with its stakeholders. Results show that being a more socially responsible person enhances satisfactory relationships between the individual and its close stakeholders.

Finally, we tested whether PSR contributed, in the end, to the person's happiness, subjective well-being or satisfaction with life. As well as enterprises' final goal might be profitability, individual behavior should be aligned with the pursuit of happiness, considered the final goal of what all men do. Analysis of the current research indicate that, in effect, PSR has a positive and significant relationship with satisfaction with life, showing those more socially responsible individuals higher levels of satisfaction with their life. This result is in accordance with Antil (1984), who also found that high socially responsible consumers were more satisfied with their lives and jobs. Additionally, we demonstrated that the other two variables constituting the outputs of PSR, also contributed significantly to better levels of satisfaction with life. This means that, together with the fact that being more socially responsible leads a person to feel happier about his/her life, having higher levels of self-esteem and better interpersonal relationships also contribute to be more satisfied.

Additional analyses using SEM were undertaken in order to complement the results and prove the suitability of the proposed model, due to the existence of opposing researchers to PLS's usage and application (Rönkkö and Evermann, 2013; McIntosh et al., 2014; Guide & Ketokivi, 2015; Rönkkö, 2014; Goodhue et al., 2015; Rönkkö et al., 2015; Rönkkö et al., 2016). Results show that, for almost all the constructs and their relations with the different dimensions of PSR, the majority of the hypotheses are confirmed. This is the case of the effect of relativism, subjective norms, collectivism and perceived consumer effectiveness on the five dimensions, for which at least three of the five relations were significant and in the expected direction of influence. It also happens with the effects of the five dimensions on the level of self-esteem and satisfaction with life, as well as the effects of self-esteem and interpersonal relationships on satisfaction with life. Only idealism was found to have a negative impact on two of the dimensions, and the ethical responsibility was the only one having a significant influence on interpersonal relationships. In conclusion, these additional results show that, independently of the methodology used to validate the model, PSR stands as a suitable construct to measure individual responsible behaviors.

CHAPTER FIVE

CHAPTER FIVE

General Conclusions

5.1. Academic contributions

5.2. Managerial implications

5.3. Limitations and further research

The last chapter of this dissertation explores the main results and conclusions of the work. We explain the academic and managerial contributions of the new concept of PSR and its measurement, aswell as the limitations and possible further lines of research in the areas of consumer behavior and CSR.

5.1. Academic contributions

Our research stemmed from the idea that people cannot expect to have responsible companies and institutions if they are not responsible themselves. That is, people are in the end part of a social structure where not only their professional and consumer, but also their personal acts, behaviors and decisions will determine the direction of the world. Specifically, we addressed the question of which areas of life can determine that a person can be considered as socially responsible. To do so, we developed and validated a new concept, Personal Social Responsibility (PSR). This concept emerges from the literature on consumer and corporate social responsibility and differs from previous indexes and scales in the range of issues incorporated in it. We found that PSR stands as a new construct that measures the extent to which people behave in a socially responsible way in five spheres of life: economic, legal, ethical, philanthropic and environmental. Additionally, we demonstrated that this behavior is significantly influenced by relativism in a negative way, and positively by perceived consumer effectiveness, collectivism and subjective norms. Finally, we found that behaving more responsibly towards society leads a person to feel better about him/herself –showing higher levels of self-esteem-, to have better interpersonal relationships and, in the end, to feel happier or more satisfied with life.

Our research contributes to the literature of consumer behavior by constructing a new measure that helps to determine the way a person behaves towards society in different dimensions and particular aspects not considered before. While there is much literature on consumer social responsibility behavior, and it has been addressed upon different perspectives such as ethical (Miller, 1998; Cooper-Martin and Holbrook, 1993; Harper and Makatouni, 2002; Uusitalo and Oksanen, 2004; Barnett et al., 2005; Fraj and Martinez, 2007; Adams and Raisborough, 2010), responsible (Anderson and Cunningham, 1972; Fisk, 1973; Antil, 1984; Antil and Bennet, 1979, Roberts, 1995; Mohr et al., 2001; Ha-Brookshire and Hodges, 2009; Vitell and Muncy, 1992; Devinney

et al., 2006; Fazal, 2011; Caruana and Chatzidakis, 2014; Vitell, 2015; Quazi et al., 2015), conscious (Webster, 1975), sustainable or green (Elkington and Hailes, 1989; Hendarwan, 2002), most of this research has focused on particular aspects of consumption, ignoring other elements that can be key factors to enhance the development of sustainable societies. Making personal efforts to reduce the household expenses or a person's negative impacts on the environment, trying to save money, not consuming more than what is needed, complying with the law, paying the taxes or being trustworthy are only some examples of actions or behaviors that are embedded in the index of PSR, additionally to what previous measures have incorporated, and being added to other elements like helping others, contributing with a social organization or recycling –among others-, all of them constitutive of the responsible behaviors of a person. Thus, our research extends extant research on consumer behavior to the field of *personal* or *individual* responsible behavior, transcending the domain of consumption through the incorporation of other elements not considered before.

These elements include five dimensions of personal responsibilities, of which identification and delimitation are theoretically based on the extant literature on not only consumer, but also corporate social responsibilities. Our findings suggest that, as well as it has been set for companies (Carroll, 1979), Personal Social Responsibility is a valid measure composed by different aspects of life: being economically responsible, respecting the legality, actively helping the community, contributing to maximize the positive impacts on the environment and behaving under ethical standards contribute to consider a person as responsible towards society. That is, PSR is formed by the economic, legal, ethical, philanthropic and environmental dimensions of life.

Previous research has been extended to the context of personal responsibilities, taking into account other elements of behavior, considering a wider range of variables that can lead to be more socially responsible and, lastly, demonstrating that it also has consequences on one's life. Those persons being less relativist –that is, people that tend to accept the existence of universal moral principles-, such as happens within the context of organizations (Singhapakdi et al., 1996) are expected to be more socially responsible. It is also demonstrated that, in accordance to what previous literature has showed (Kinnear et al., 1974, Webster, 1975; Roberts, 1996; Straughan and Roberts, 1999, Webb et al., 2007; D'Astous and Legendre, 2009), believing that our acts will have an effect on others and will help to determine or solve the course of a social problem –perceived consumer effectiveness- will also help the individual to be more

responsible towards society. The same happens to those who are more collectivists (McCarty and Shrum, 2001; Webb et al., 2007) and those who feel more social pressure to behave in a certain way –subjective norms-.

What is even more relevant about this work is the confirmation that being more socially responsible in the five dimensions of PSR will lead a person to show higher levels of self-esteem, better interpersonal relationships and, in the end, more satisfaction with life. This is consistent with the effects that CSR has been shown to have on reputation (Du et al., 2007), the stakeholders' loyalty and satisfaction (Anderson et al., 1994; Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Nguyen and Leblanc, 2001; Ismail et al., 2006; Isa, 2011) and the profitability (Burke and Logsdon, 1996; Lantos, 2001; Husted, 2003; Windsor, 2001; Greenfield, 2004) of companies. Additionally, as the positive relationship between reputation and stakeholders' satisfaction and loyalty in the organizational context has been already proved (Helm et al., 2010), this work shows that having a higher self-esteem and better interpersonal relationships will make a person more satisfied with his/her life.

5.2. Managerial implications

In addition to its contributions to marketing theory, this research holds important implications for marketing managers, especially in the field of Corporate Social Responsibility.

One of the biggest challenges for businesses nowadays is the achievement of competitiveness (Gómez et al., 2008). In this sense, CSR programmes have helped the ensurance of efficiency, the stimulation of innovation, and the creation of continued organizational growth (Stigson, 2002). Thus, CSR has been widely adopted as a corporate strategy by firms during the last decades, allocating resources to these initiatives in an attempt to gain differentiation (Ruiz et al., 2015). These programs enable them to reach sustainable and long-lasting paths based on their stakeholders' desires and needs, balanced with those of the organization for a shared evolution. Indeed, it has been indicated that stakeholders react positively to CSR in the consumption, employment and investment domains, revealing favouring effects on an array of cognitive and affective (i.e. beliefs, attitudes, attributions, identification), as

well as behavioral (i.e. loyalty, even during product-harm crises) outcomes (Sen et al., 2006).

At the same time, it seems that the need of organizing the economy according to a justice and respect towards the human being, the nature and the available resources is no longer a matter of moral opinions or policies, but a vital imperative which requires from everyone's efforts. And *everyone* refers not only to governments, institutions or corporations, but also to the general society, including citizens as its fundamental pillar (López et al., 2015). Consequently, CSR cannot be understood without a parallel evolution on consumers and individuals' behaviors as the driving force and, at the same time, as a response of the ethical actions performed by organizations. Indeed, consumers are more aware of ethical standards and expect higher standards from public and private organizations (Feng, 2010), being their ethical demands identified as an important marketing power that can directly influence firms' operation and management decision-making (Van Kenhove et al. 2003).

In spite of all the extant literature available, the current emphasis on social responsibility and marketing ethics by academics and practitioners is considered to be both misplaced and misguided, as the link between corporate social responsibility and consumer purchase behavior remains unproven (Carrigan and Atalla, 2001). The present work improves this relation, enabling a) the comparison between corporate and individual behaviors; b) the knowledge and understanding by companies of their consumers' personal behaviors; c) the analysis of these behaviors within the same dimensions in which they are evaluated. Therefore, knowing the way their consumers behave in the field of social responsibility will give them clues of which areas of CSR can be essential to d) enhance their identification with the company.

That is, PSR stands as a useful tool to segment consumers or citizens, enabling the knowledge of which are the aspects in which they are more sensitive and, therefore, they will be correctly informed to correctly incise from CSR strategies on particular matters above others. Moreover, the index can be used to track consumer trends, determine which dimensions of PSR affect purchasing most strongly, and identify consumers most likely to respond to socially responsible corporate behaviors.

In addition to its managerial implications, the work also holds important information and conclusions to governments and educators. First, it makes possible to measure and to know the level of PSR among citizens, and more specifically the difference on the degree of responsibility between the different dimensions and the

socio-demographic characteristics associated to it. Second, it allows the comparison between the PSR levels among citizens from different territories, cultures or countries, thus knowing where are the most sensitive citizens towards what particular issues. Third, governments will know the degree of maturity of the social responsibility in companies and citizens, and consequently political strategies in the corporate and educational fields could be designed to evolve concurrently, contributing to the construction of a more sensitive and responsible society. Finally, empirically demonstrating the fact that being more responsible leads to reach a happier life is a fundamental reason to enhance educational policies that promote individual social responsibilities from childhood. Children that are brought up in being responsible citizens from the beginning of their education will probably become better members of the community and leaders in the future.

5.3. Limitations and further research

While the present research focused on the design and development of a new measure of personal behavior, PSR, future research can examine the effect of PSR on consumer-company identification, that is, analyzing company-consumer levels of CSR-PSR and company-consumer relations and identification. The development of PSR on the basis of CSR's dimensionality allows the comparability of corporate and individual behaviors. This would imply, for example, the identification of whether companies perceive they are more or less responsible in the same dimensions of their consumers and vice-versa, or the expectations of the individuals about companies' behaviors. Do I expect the company that I support to be socially responsible in the same areas or dimensions in which I am more socially responsible? When a company is socially responsible, do socially responsible citizens and consumers have more positive corporate associations, higher firm evaluations, and stronger purchase intentions than their less socially responsible counterparts?

One of the limitations of the study, given its pioneering character, is that PSR index was tested and validated with samples drawn from only one particular geographical area. This way, the context and sample demographics of our study should make the reader interpret the findings with caution. However, this gives rise to the opportunity of an opening, new and interesting line of research, which would respond to

the need of the development of new and more creative approaches to probe the cultural underpinnings of behavior (Rialp and Rialp, 2006). Indeed, the importance of cultural differences cannot be dismissed in the case of any other form of marketing communications from companies to consumers (Okazaki and Taylor, 2013). Further research should apply the scale in different contexts, cultures or countries in order to: a) validate the scale using more broad samples to enhance the degree of its generalizability; and b) determine the influence of PSR on CSR through a cross-cultural analysis, that is, evaluating company and personal levels of CSR-PSR in different countries and cultures.

Greater attention should be also given to marketer efforts to increase the segment of responsible consumers (Smith et al., 2010). To do so, it would be interesting to identify the characteristics of those individuals who are already socially responsible, as well as the characteristics of those who are not. In line with those works that have shown interest in understanding how CSR activities influence consumer behavior (Marin and Ruiz, 2007; Boulouta and Pitelis, 2014), researchers should examine how marketing can help to develop responsible societies through CSR policies and programs and their continuous interaction with their stakeholders.

These sustainable societies and responsible citizens could be examined, analyzed and determined not only from the marketing field, but also from public organizations and individual firms in order to define the way these areas of research and practice can be used to enhance Personal Social Responsibility in our society.

Overall, this work set the basis for further research in order to: a) improve the extant line of research on consumer behavior related to CSR; b) analyze the characteristics of those individuals more socially responsible and its interaction with CSR; c) understand differences between different societies and cultures in their levels of PSR and the dimensions associated to it; d) enhance PSR based on activities from companies and public institutions. Hopefully, the PSR index will motivate these lines of research, aimed at understanding socially responsible behaviors and serve managers as they strive to develop socially responsible corporate programs.

SUMMARY IN SPANISH

Una encuesta por la Fundación Adecco en 2015 a mil ciudadanos en España concluyó que el 49% de los encuestados se consideran consumidores críticos, al excluir o boicoter aquellas marcas que creen que son irresponsables. El mismo estudio indicaba que los ciudadanos se situaban en el tercer grupo de importancia en responsabilidad hacia la sociedad, justo después de los gobiernos y las empresas, satisfaciendo las necesidades del medio ambiente y contribuyendo al fin de la crisis. Esta tendencia de posicionar a consumidores y ciudadanos como uno de los principales actores en el desarrollo de sociedades responsables y sostenibles muestra que los individuos ya no son solo consumidores y que el consumo ha excedido los límites de un mero intercambio económico. Gobiernos y empresas están formados y dirigidos por personas que toman decisiones en su vida profesional y personal, lo que sitúa a las acciones individuales en el principal foco de nuestra atención.

Estas acciones individuales se perciben en decisiones cotidianas, como elegir entre coger el coche para ir al trabajo o el transporte público, la bicicleta o ir andando; comprar lo que deseamos o lo que necesitamos; no embarcarnos en gastos que no podemos asumir; descargar películas de Internet para un viernes por la noche o, por el contrario, alquilarlas en un videoclub; actuar dando ejemplo a nuestros hijos, familiares y amigos; o dedicar una o dos horas a la semana de nuestro tiempo libre a ayudar a una organización social o a nuestra comunidad, entre otras. Éstos son sólo algunos ejemplos de decisiones que marcarán la diferencia en los impactos que nuestro modo de vida tendrá en la evolución del mundo. Consecuentemente, los ciudadanos deberíamos ser responsables no sólo de nuestras elecciones de consumo, sino también de la influencia que esos actos y decisiones cotidianas tendrán en las esferas económica, social y medioambiental de la vida. Todo esto nos lleva a hablar de la Responsabilidad Social Personal (RSP) como un nuevo constructo que no sólo incorpora lo que incluyen trabajos previos en el ámbito del consumo ético y responsable, sino que también está determinado por diferentes dimensiones relacionadas con otras acciones, de otros ámbitos, no consideradas en ellos.

Aunque la literatura referida al comportamiento del consumidor ha abordado ampliamente las nuevas tendencias del consumo ético durante las últimas décadas, analizadas bajo distintas perspectivas como el consumo social, ético, responsable, consciente, sostenible o verde (Webster, 1975; Antil and Bennet, 1979; Antil, 1984; Roberts, 1995; Mohr et al., 2001; Uusitalo and Oksanen, 2004; Webb et al, 2007; Ha-Brookshire and Hodges, 2009; Vitell, 2015), no ha habido casi investigación en torno a

las acciones individuales o personales que trascienden del ámbito del consumo. Por lo tanto, no hay evidencia empírica disponible en relación a cómo evoluciona este comportamiento y cómo se adapta a las nuevas preocupaciones y actitudes sociales, ni a cómo esta evolución influye en las decisiones corporativas y se relaciona con el desarrollo de programas de Responsabilidad Social Corporativa (Carrigan y Atalla, 2001). Además, uno de los principales grupos de interés de las corporaciones son los consumidores, por lo que las empresas deberían empezar a tener en cuenta, gestionar y entender sus preocupaciones y cómo éstas se traducen en nuevas formas de comportamiento (Binninger y Robert, 2008). Las empresas responden al consumo y a otras fuerzas que empiezan a demandar acciones de marketing más responsable, por lo que los empresarios deben entender claramente las características de aquellos consumidores más propensos a responder a las llamadas de su conciencia social (Webster, 1975).

A lo largo de este trabajo, investigamos si un nuevo constructo de comportamiento responsable individual es relevante y alcanza niveles aceptables de consistencia teórica y empírica. Nuestra principal tesis es que la Responsabilidad Social Personal se erige como una nueva forma de medir de qué forma son responsables los ciudadanos hacia la sociedad, desde una perspectiva que va más allá de lo que han medido y tenido en cuenta trabajos previos en comportamiento del consumidor.

Una mirada general a las definiciones de constructos relacionados muestra que casi todos ellos se refieren, en su significado, a los impactos que producen los consumidores en la sociedad (Webster, 1975; Antil y Bennet, 1979; Antil, 1984; Roberts, 1995; Mohr y otros, 2001; Harper y Makatouni, 2002; Uusitalo y Oksanen, 2004; De Pelsmacker y otros, 2005; Shaw y Shui, 2002; Fraj y Martínez, 2007; Ha-Brookshire y Hodges, 2009) o en el medio ambiente (Elkington y Hailes, 1989; Roberts, 1995; Straughan y Roberts, 1999; Harper y Makatouni, 2002; De Pelsmacker y otros, 2005; Shaw y Shui, 2002; Fraj y Martinez, 2007), a la influencia de ciertos valores morales o creencias éticas en las decisiones de consumo (Vitell y Muncy, 1992; Cooper-Martin y Holbrook, 1993; Hendarwan, 2002; Uusitalo y Oksanen, 2004; De Pelsmaker y otros, 2005; Shaw y Shui, 2002; Devinney y otros, 2006; Freestone y McGoldrick, 2008; Caruana y Chatzidakis, 2014; Quazi y otros, 2015), o su papel en el mantenimiento de un sistema sostenible (Fisk, 1973; Antil y Bennet, 1979; Antil, 1984). Algunos de ellos se refieren específicamente a valores de solidaridad o altruismo (Anderson y Cunningham, 1972; Barnett y otros, 2005; Miller, 1998; Fazal, 2011), o

implican decisiones de compra concretas dependiendo de las actuaciones de las empresas o su comportamiento responsable (Mohr y otros, 2001; Harrison y otros, 2005), y las contribuciones más recientes hacen referencia específica a las relaciones entre el individuo y sus grupos de interés (Caruana y Chatzidakis, 2014; Vitell, 2015; Quazi y otros, 2015).

Por otro lado, un análisis más detallado de las medidas y las dimensiones –no las definiciones- que analizan, miden y representan comportamientos de consumo socialmente responsable, muestra que casi todas ellas tienen al menos una dimensión (siendo a veces el factor único o más importante) relacionada directamente con temas medioambientales, que incluye una amplia gama de asuntos "verdes" como las preocupaciones, actitudes y conocimientos medioambientales, la protección de los animales, la conservación de la energía, los impactos de la compra en el medio ambiente, el reciclaje o la reducción del consumo, entre otros (Anderson y otros, 1974; Kinnear y otros, 1974; Webster, 1975; Tucker y otros, 1981; Antil, 1984; Singh, 2009; Roberts, 1996; Straughan y Roberts, 1999; Mohr y Webb, 2005; Shanka y Goapalan, 2005; Ismail y otros, 2006; Lee, 2008; Webb y otros, 2008; Durif y otros, 2011; Yan y She, 2011; Ocampo y otros, 2014; Quazi y otros, 2015). El segundo factor utilizado más ampliamente por los investigadores está relacionado con criterios de compra que indican de qué manera se consume: por ejemplo, criterios de compra que suponen el apoyo al comercio local, a marcas nacionales, productos de comercio justo o empresas responsables (Mohr y Webb, 2005; Shanka y Goapalan, 2005; Francois-Lecompte y Roberts, 2006; Ismail y otros, 2006; D'Astous y Legendre, 2009; Webb y otros, 2008; Lee y Shin, 2010; Durif y otros, 2011; Yan y She, 2011; Ocampo y otros, 2014; Quazi y otros, 2015). Otros trabajos incluyen aspectos sociales como la solidaridad o la filantropía (Francois-Lecompte y Roberts, 2006; D'Astous y Legendre, 2009; Durif y otros, 2011; Yan y She, 2011; Quazi y otros, 2015), y los más recientes hacen un llamamiento a una forma activa de consumismo que incorpore actitudes críticas hacia la conducta de las empresas y a la protección de los derechos del consumidor (Yan y She, 2011; Ocampo y otros, 2014; Quazi y otros, 2015). Por último, la Responsabilidad Social Corporativa de las empresas se aborda de manera específica como una dimensión del CnSR en la última década y, desde entonces, han sido varios los autores que han incluido la influencia que el comportamiento de las empresas tiene sobre las decisiones de compra de los consumidores (Mohr y Webb, 2005; Shanka y Goapalan, 2005;

Francois-Lecompte y Roberts, 2006; D'Astous y Legendre, 2009; Webb y otros, 2008; Lee y Shin, 2010; Yan y She, 2011; Ocampo y otros, 2014).

La RSP se ha delimitado y definido en base a la revisión de la literatura existente sobre constructos relacionados en el ámbito del comportamiento del consumidor, así como a los resultados de la investigación cualitativa. Dada la falta de acuerdo entre los investigadores sobre la dimensionalidad del CnSR y el hecho de que la RSP se erige como un nuevo concepto que incluye asuntos que van más allá de lo considerado hasta ahora, las responsabilidades individuales han sido dimensionadas en base al modelo de RSC de Carroll (1979), que incluye como principales responsabilidades hacia la sociedad de las empresas la económica, la legal, la ética y la filantrópica o discrecional. La responsabilidad medioambiental se ha incluido como una quinta dimensión por su amplia presencia en la literatura del CnSR y por su importancia en la vida diaria de los ciudadanos. Como resultado, la RSP ha sido definida, delimitada, dimensionada y analizada como una nueva forma de comportamiento individual teóricamente basada en la literatura del comportamiento del consumidor y empíricamente desarrollada como un paralelismo de los comportamientos responsables de las organizaciones a través de la RSC.

De este modo, el presente trabajo propone que la RSP es un constructo compuesto por las responsabilidades económicas, legales, éticas, filantrópicas y medioambientales de una persona; que ciertas características del individuo como ser más colectivista (en contraste con el individualismo), más idealista (en contraste con el relativismo), comportarse de acuerdo con ciertas normas sociales y culturales y percibir la efectividad de un comportamiento responsable lleva a lograr mayores niveles de RSP; y en última instancia, que ser más responsable ayuda a las personas a lograr mayores niveles de autoestima, mejores relaciones interpersonales y, en definitiva, a ser más felices o a sentirse más satisfechos con su vida.

Para lograr este objetivo, se han desarrollado tres estudios que se describen a lo largo del trabajo de la siguiente manera. En el primer capítulo se presenta un esquema teórico para introducir el constructo RSP. Para ello, se presenta un mapa teórico-conceptual del Consumo Socialmente Responsable (CnSR) y de la Responsabilidad Social Corporativa (RSC). Se utiliza la investigación existente en marketing y comportamiento del consumidor para explicar la naturaleza de la RSP. En concreto, se revisa la literatura relacionada con el comportamiento de consumo responsable, social, verde y ético. Después, se ofrece una breve introducción a las principales

contribuciones de la literatura de RSC, centrada en un modelo particular que se puede relacionar con la responsabilidad social desde una perspectiva individual. Con estos argumentos, se aborda específicamente el constructo propuesto de RSP, que se define como *la orientación del individuo hacia la minimización de los impactos negativos y la maximización de los impactos positivos en su entorno social, medioambiental y económico en el largo plazo, a través de accioens económicas, legales, éticas, filantrópicas y medioambientales*.

El segundo capítulo busca el desarrollo y la validación de la RSP a través del Estudio 1, centrándose en su delimitación y dimensionalidad. A lo largo del capítulo se presenta un mapa conceptual de RSP, incluyendo la revisión y el análisis de la dimensionalidad del constructo. Se articula el marco teórico particular que ofrece proposiciones relacionadas con los factores clave de la RSP, presentando al final un estudio empírico (Estudio 1) donde se analizan las primeras fases del modelo. Se delimita la dimensionalidad de la RSP y se concluye con un modelo de cinco dimensiones que incluye, como dimensiones de RSP, el comportamiento económico, legal, ético, filantrópico y medioambiental del individuo.

El capítulo tres determina la naturaleza del modelo de RSP, desarrollado con el Estudio 2, centrado en la elaboración de un índice de comportamiento basado en indicadores formativos. El capítulo contiene una discusión sobre las características de los indicadores formativos y reflexivos, y propone un modelo con dos antecedentes y dos consecuencias de la RSP con el fin de evaluar su validez externa y nomológica. Los resultados del Estudio 2 sientan las bases para el diseño y análisis de un modelo completo de comportamiento individual, que se desarrolla en la sección siguiente.

Este modelo completo se presenta en el cuarto capítulo, con el fin de diseñar y validar el modelo y el constructo, a través del Estudio 3. Este estudio incluye la validación de la RSP como un constructo formativo compuesto por las responsabilidades económica, legal, ética, filantrópica y medioambiental de una persona; y la inclusión de medidas adicionales para su validación externa y nomológica.

Los antecedentes del comportamiento responsable personal se han identificado en base a la literatura del comportamiento del consumidor y se han clasificado en dos perspectivas de acción, la individual –o propia de la persona- y la social (Triandis, 1989). La esfera de comportamiento individual está compuesta por las *filosofías morales de la persona* –medidas a través de las escalas de *idealismo* y *relativismo* desarrolladas por Forsyth (1980)- y la *efectividad percibida por el consumidor* (Kinnear

y otros, 1974; Webster, 1975; Antil, 1984; Ellen y otros, 1991; Ellen, 1994; Roberts, 1996; Straughan y Roberts, 1999; Carrigan y Attalla, 2001; Kim y Choi, 2005; Webb y otros, 2007; D'Astous y Legendre, 2009). Por su parte, la esfera social contiene medidas del *colectivismo* (McCarty y Shrum, 2001; Webb y otros, 2007) y las *normas subjetivas* (Loo y otros., 2013).

Las consecuencias del comportamiento responsable se identificaron de la literatura de RSC, adaptándolas del ámbito organizacional al comportamiento individual. La *autoestima*, las *relaciones interpersonales* y la *satisfacción con la vida* –como una medida de la felicidad de la persona- se identificaron como consecuencias como medidas paralelas a los efectos de la RSC en la reputación (Du y otros, 2007), la fidelidad y la satisfacción de los grupos de interés (Anderson y otros, 1994; Cronin y Taylor, 1992; Garbarino y Johnson, 1999; Nguyen y Leblanc, 2001; Ismail y otros, 2006; Isa, 2011) y la rentabilidad (Burke y Logsdon, 1996; Lantos, 2001; Husted, 2003; Windsor, 2001; Greenfield, 2004) de las empresas.

Primero se analizó el contexto individual, relativo a los valores y creencias individuales que determinan la forma en que una persona reacciona ante ciertos dilemas éticos. En este sentido, el *idealismo* refleja la creencia y aceptación de la existencia de absolutos morales (Singhapakdi y otros, 1996), inherentes al ser humano e independientes de las circunstancias que rodean a la acción, mientras que el *relativismo* se refiere al rechazo de principios morales universales. Los resultados han demostrado que el *idealismo* no influye significativamente en el nivel de responsabilidad social de la persona, mientras que el *relativismo* sí influye negativamente sobre el constructo. Aunque estas medidas no se han analizado en relación a constructos similares como determinantes del comportamiento responsable individual o de consumo, los resultados de este estudio referidos a la escala de relativismo coinciden con el trabajo desarrollado por Singhapakdi y otros (1996) en el contexto de las organizaciones, que encontraron una influencia significativa y negativa en la responsabilidad social y la rentabilidad, así como sobre los beneficios a corto y largo plazo de la empresa.

En Segundo lugar, se analizó la influencia de la *efectividad percibida por el consumidor* (PCE). Investigaciones anteriores en comportamiento del consumidor han mostrado evidencia empírica del efecto positivo de dicha efectividad sobre la responsabilidad social del consumidor. Por ejemplo, Kinnear y otros (1974) encontraron una relación significativa entre PCE y la preocupación ecológica sobre la contaminación, y Webster (1975) encontró una fuerte influencia de ésta en el consumo

socialmente consciente, con un efecto significativo sobre el reciclaje y la consideración de los impactos sociales de las decisiones de consumo. Además, resultó ser el mejor predictor del comportamiento medioambientalmente consciente del consumidor (Roberts, 1996; Straughan y Roberts, 1999), con un impacto positivo y significativo en las actuaciones de RSC, el impacto medioambiental de las decisiones de compra y uso y el reciclaje, los tres factores que determinan el comportamiento responsable de consumo definido por Webb y otros (2007). También se encontró una correlación negativa entre la efectividad percibida y las razones del consumidor para comportarse de manera poco ética (D'Astous y Legendre, 2009). De acuerdo con todos estos trabajos, PCE se erige como un determinante clave de la RSP, con una influencia significativa y positiva sobre el comportamiento de los individuos. Este resultado lleva a reforzar el hecho de que aquellos individuos que creen que sus acciones y decisiones pueden influir en el entorno global y en la solución de ciertos problemas sociales, conforma un factor clave para el desarrollo de un comportamiento responsable.

Después se analizó el contexto del individuo en su comportamiento social, reflejando las características individuales de una persona en relación con el resto de la sociedad o de su entorno. Las dos variables identificadas resultaron influir positiva y significativamente en la RSP.

En primer lugar, se demostró que el *colectivismo* lleva a mayores niveles de responsabilidad social personal. La literatura previa también ha encontrado positiva esta influencia sobre diferentes factores, como las acciones de RSC (Webb y otros, 2007) y el reciclaje (McCarty y Shrum, 2001). Los resultados de este estudio, incluyendo los de investigaciones anteriores, indican que una persona que tiende a ser más colectivista (en contrate con una actitud individualista) tiene en cuenta el comportamiento responsable de las empresas en sus decisiones de compra (Webb y otros, 2007), cree que el reciclaje es un tema importante y por tanto recicla (McCarty y Shrum, 2001) y, finalmente, tiende a comportarse de una manera responsable con respecto a la sociedad.

La última variable de la esfera social que se esperaba que influyera sobre el nivel de RSP son las *normas sociales*, consideradas como la presión que siente el individuo por parte de la sociedad para comportarse de una manera particular. Los resultados de este estudio indican que la manera en que *otros* se comportan y piensan que habría que comportarse influye positiva y significativamente en la manera en que *nosotros* nos comportamos. Así, se prueba empíricamente la creencia de Loo y otros (2013), para quienes las normas subjetivas y personales debían influir en la responsabilidad social

del consumidor, demostrando que las personas están influenciadas por el comportamiento de sus grupos de interés más cercanos, sintiendo presión para actuar de manera que sea aceptada por ellos. De este modo, aquellos que forman parte de grupos responsables o que están rodeados de gente responsable tenderán a ser más responsables socialmente.

Tras analizar las hipótesis relativas a los antecedentes de PSR, se analizaron las tres variables identificadas como sus posibles consecuencias.

En primer lugar, se analizó si el comportamiento responsable en las dimensiones económica, legal, ética, filantrópica y medioambiental de la vida lleva a sentirse mejor con uno mismo. Esto es, si PSR influye positiva y significativamente en el nivel de autoestima de la persona. Kinnear y otros (1974) introdujeron la forma en que una persona se siente con respecto a sí misma como un posible predictor del índice de preocupación ecológica, aunque no encontraron esta relación significativa. Sin embargo, en este caso la autoestima está considerada como una consecuencia –no un predictor- del comportamiento responsable, y se ha demostrado una relación significativa y positiva, indicando que las personas que son socialmente más responsables se sienten mejor consigo mismas. De acuerdo con esta idea, Antil (1984) encontró el concepto que tiene uno de sí mismo y Durif y otros (2011) la imagen personal como determinantes que difieren significativamente entre los consumidores que presentan altos y bajos niveles de responsabilidad social.

Por otro lado, se esperaba que la RSP llevaría a una persona a tener mejores relaciones con su entorno, de la misma manera que las políticas de RSC suponen un impacto positivo en la relación entre la empresa y sus grupos de interés. Los resultados muestran que ser una persona socialmente responsable mejora y ensalza significativamente las relaciones satisfactorias entre el individuo y sus grupos de interés más cercanos.

Finalmente, se analizó si la RSP contribuye, a fin de cuentas, a la felicidad, el bienestar subjetivo o la satisfacción con la vida de una persona. Del mismo modo que el objetivo principal de las empresas será la rentabilidad, el comportamiento individual debería estar alineado con la búsqueda de la felicidad, considerada como el objetivo final de todo lo que hace el hombre. Los resultados de esta investigación indican que, en efecto, la RSP tiene un impacto positivo y significativo en la felicidad, mostrando aquellos individuos socialmente más responsables niveles más altos de satisfacción con la vida. Este resultado está coincide con los resultados de Antil (1984), que también

encontró que los consumidores más socialmente responsables estaban más satisfechos con sus vidas y trabajos. Además, se ha demostrado que las otras dos variables que constituyen los resultados de un comportamiento personal responsable, también influyen significativamente en una mayor satisfacción con la vida. Esto quiere decir que ser socialmente responsable, tener una mayor autoestima y mejores relaciones interpersonales contribuyen a estar más satisfecho.

En general, este estudio contribuye a la investigación en comportamiento del consumidor y su relación con la Responsabilidad Social Corporativa en varios sentidos. En primer lugar, basándose en la literatura del consumo responsable y ético, se explora una nueva perspectiva del CnSR y se define un nuevo constructo de RSP. En segundo lugar, se utilizan medidas previas en comportamiento ético de consumo y RSC para trasladar los principales aspectos que se incluyen en el ámbito organizacional al comportamiento personal de los individuos desde una perspectiva ética. En tercer lugar, se provee de una validación empírica a un modelo de cinco dimensiones que contribuye a la construcción de la escala de RSP. Finalmente, se diseña y valida un modelo completo de RSP a través del desarrollo de un índice formativo, incluyendo antecedentes y consecuencias del comportamiento responsable individual.

Los resultados indican que la RSP se erige como una medida sólida de comportamiento individual, incluyendo cinco esferas de acción en las que una persona puede ser socialmente responsable. Estas dimensiones, que constituyen el modelo de cinco dimensiones de la construcción del índice, están compuestas por las responsabilidades *económica*, *legal*, *ética*, *filantrópica* y *medioambiental* del individuo. Este modelo demuestra que una persona que es más colectivista, menos relativista, que percibe una mayor efectividad de sus acciones de consumo, y que está más influida por las normas sociales será más responsable socialmente. Y prueba también que una persona más responsable tendrá mejores relaciones interpersonales, una mayor autoestima y que estará más satisfecha con su vida. Además, este nivel de satisfacción con la vida estará influido positivamente por tener mejores relaciones con el entorno y por una mayor autoestima.

A pesar de la literatura existente disponible, el énfasis actual por parte de académicos y profesionales en la responsabilidad social y el marketing ético se considera mal enfocada, ya que el vínculo entre la RSC y el comportamiento de compra sigue sin haberse demostrado (Carrigan y Atalla, 2001). Este trabajo ayuda al avance de la investigación de esta relación, permitiendo la comparación entre los comportamientos

corporativos e individuales. Al utilizar el índice de PSR, las empresas serán capaces de conocer y entender el comportamiento personal de sus consumidores y de analizarlos en las mismas dimensiones en que ellas son evaluadas. Así, conocer la manera en que se comportan los consumidores en el ámbito de la responsabilidad social les dará pistas de qué áreas de la RSC son esenciales para mejorar la identificación con sus consumidores. Además de su contribución a la práctica empresarial, este trabajo también contiene información y conclusiones clave para gobiernos y educadores. Demostrar empíricamente que ser más responsable ayuda a alcanzar una vida más feliz es una razón fundamental para impulsar políticas educativas que promuevan la responsabilidad social individual desde la niñez. Los niños que crezcan siendo educados como ciudadanos responsables, se convertirán con más probabilidad en mejores padres, vecinos, trabajadores, compañeros y líderes en su vida adulta.

REFERENCES

Accar, W., Aupperle, K. E., & Lowy, R. M. (2001). An empirical exploration of measures of social responsibility across the spectrum of organizational types. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, *9*(1), 26-57.

Ackerman, R. W., & Bauer, R. A. (1976). *Corporate social responsiveness: The modern dilemna [sic]*. Reston.

Adams, M., & Raisborough, J. (2010). Making a difference: ethical consumption and the everyday. *The British Journal of Sociology*, *61*(2), 256-274.

Aguinis, H. 2011. Organizational responsibility: Doing good and doing well. In S. Zedeck (Ed.), *APA Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 3, 855-879. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Al-Khatib, J. A. (2005). Ethical segmentation of consumers in developing countries: A comparative analysis. *International Marketing Review*, *22*(2), 44-59.

Aldás, J. (2016). *Modelización structural con PLS-SEM: Constructos de Segundo orden*. Madrid: ADD Editorial. ISBN: 978-84-9075-951-6.

Alvarado-Herrera, A., Bigne, E., Aldas-Manzano, J., & Curras-Perez, R. (2017). A scale for measuring consumer perceptions of corporate social responsibility following the sustainable development paradigm. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *140*(2), 243-262.

Anderson Jr, W. T., & Cunningham, W. H. (1972). The socially conscious consumer. *The Journal of Marketing*, *36,* 23-31.

Anderson Jr, W. T., Henion, K. E., & Cox III, E. P. (1974). Socially vs. ecologically responsible consumers. In *AMA Combined Conference Proceedings*, *36*(Spring and Fall), 304-311.

Andrews, F. M., & Withey, S. B. (1976). Social indicators of well-being: The development and measurement of perceptual indicators. *New York: Plenum Press*, *10*, 978-1.

Angner, E. (2009). Subjective Measures of Well-Being: Philosophical Perspectives. In: Kincaid, H., Ross, D. (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Philosophy of Economics*. Oxford, Oxford University Press, pp. 560-579.

Antal, A. B., & Sobczak, A. (2007). Corporate social responsibility in France a mix of national traditions and international influences. *Business & Society*, *46*(1), 9-32.

Antil, J. H. (1984). Socially responsible consumers: Profile and implications for public policy. *Journal of Macromarketing*, *4*(2), 18-39.

Antil, J. H., & Bennett, P. D. (1979). Construction and validation of a scale to measure socially responsible consumption behavior. In Henion, K.E. and Kinnear, T.C. (Eds), *The Conserver Society*, American Marketing Association, Chicago, IL, 51-68.

Arbuthnot, J. (1977). The roles of attitudinal and personality variables in the prediction of environmental behavior and knowledge. *Environment and Behavior*, *9*(2), 217-232.

Aupperle, K. E., Carroll, A. B., & Hatfield, J. D. (1985). An empirical examination of the relationship between corporate social responsibility and profitability. *Academy of Management Journal*, *28*(2), 446-463.

Backman, J. (1975). *Social responsibility and accountability.* New York: New York University Press.

Bagozzi, R. P. (Ed.). (1994). Structural Equation Models in Marketing Research: basic principles. In: Bagozzi, R. P. (Ed.). *Principles of Marketing Research,* 386-422. Oxford: Blackwell.

Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *16*(1), 74-94.

Banerjee, S., Gulas, C. S., & Iyer, E. (1995). Shades of green: A multidimensional analysis of environmental advertising. *Journal of Advertising, 24*(2), 21-31.

Barnard, C. (1938). The functions of the executive. *Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.*

Barnett, C., Cloke, P., Clarke, N., & Malpass, A. (2005). Consuming ethics: articulating the subjects and spaces of ethical consumption. *Antipode*, *37*(1), 23-45.

Becker, J. M., Klein, K., & Wetzels, M. (2012). Hierarchical latent variable models in PLS-SEM: guidelines for using reflective-formative type models. *Long Range Planning*, *45*(5), 359-394.

Belch, M. A. (1982). A segmentation strategy for the 1980's: Profiling the socially-concerned market through life-style analysis. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *10*(4), 345-358.

Berkowitz, L., & Daniels, L. R. (1964). Affecting the salience of the social responsibility norm: effects of past help on the response to dependency relationships. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *68*(3), 275.

Berkowitz, L., & Lutterman, K. G. (1968). The traditional socially responsible personality. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, *32*(2), 169-185.

Bénabou, R., & Tirole, J. (2010). Individual and corporate social responsibility. *Economica*, *77*(305), 1-19.

Best, S. J., & Krueger, B. (2002). New approaches to assessing opinion: The prospects for electronic mail surveys. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, *14*(1), 73-92.

Binninger, A. S. & Robert, I. (2008). Consommation et développement durable: vers une segmentation des sensibilities et des comportements. *La Revue des Sciences de Gestion, Direction et Gestion*, *229*, 51-59.

Blalock, H. M. (1964). *Causal inferences in nonexperimental research*. Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press.

Blalock, H. M. (1968). The Measurement Problem: A Gap between the Languages of Theory and Research. *Methodology in Social Research*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Blalock, H.M. (1971). Causal models involving unobserved variables in stimulus-response situations. In: Blalock HM (ed.), *Causal Models in the Social Sciences*, 335-347. Chicago: Aldine.

Boal, K. B., & Peery, N. (1985). The cognitive structure of corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Management*, *11*(3), 71-82.

Bollen, K., & Lennox, R. (1991). Conventional wisdom on measurement: A structural equation perspective. *Psychological Bulletin*, *110*(2), 305.

Boulouta, I., & Pitelis, C. N. (2014). Who needs CSR? The impact of corporate social responsibility on national competitiveness. *Journal of Business Ethics*,*119*(3), 349-364.

Bowen, H.R. (1953). *Social responsibilities of the businessman.* New York: Harper & Row.

Bownman, E.H., & Haire, M. (1975). A strategic posture toward corporate social responsibility. *California Management Review, 18*(2), 49-58.

Bruhn, M., Georgi, D., & Hadwich, K. (2008). Customer equity management as formative second-order construct. *Journal of Business Research*, *61*(12), 1292-1301.

Brundtland, G. H. (1987). *Report of the World Commission on environment and development: "our common future"*. United Nations.

Business for Social Responsibility. (2003). *Overview of Corporate Social Responsibility*. Available at:

http://www.bsr.org/BSRResources/IssueBriefDetail.cfm?DocumentID=48809, accessed [October 13, 2014].

Buttel, F. M., & Flinn, W. L. (1978). The politics of environmental concern the impacts of party identification and political ideology on environmental attitudes. *Environment and Behavior*, *10*(1), 17-36.

Cadogan, J. W., Souchon, A. L., & Procter, D. B. (2008). The quality of market-oriented behaviors: Formative index construction. *Journal of Business Research*, *61*(12), 1263-1277.

Campbell, C (2004). The Citizen-Consumer: Is this Term an Oxymoron? Conference Paper at the seminar entitled, *'Consumers as citizens'*, London, 22 April 2004.

Cao, G., & Duan, Y. (2014). A path model linking business analytics, data-driven culture, and competitive advantage. In *Twenty Second European Conference on Information Systems*, Tel Aviv.

Carrigan, M.; Szmigin, I. & Wright, J. (2004). Shopping for a Better World? An interpretative study of the potential for ethical consumption within the older market. *The Journal of Consumer Marketing, 21*(6), 401-417.

Carroll, A.B. (1979). A Three-Dimensional Conceptual Model of Corporate Performance. *Academy of Management Review*, *4*(4), 497-505.

Carroll, A. B. (1983). Corporate social responsibility: Will industry respond to cutbacks in social program funding. *Vital Speeches of the day*, *49*(19), 604-608.

Carroll, A. B. (1999). Corporate social responsibility evolution of a definitional construct. *Business & Society*, *38*(3), 268-295.

Caruana, R., & Chatzidakis, A. (2014). Consumer social responsibility (CnSR): Toward a multi-level, multi-agent conceptualization of the "other CSR". *Journal of Business Ethics*, *121*(4), 577-592.

Cherrier, H. (2005). Using Existential-Phenomenological Interviewing to Explore Meanings of Consumption, in R. Harrison, T. Newholm y D. Shaw (eds), *The Ethical Consumer*, 125-135.

Chester, B. (1938). The functions of the executive. *Harvard University Press, Cambridge*.

Chin, W. W., Marcolin, B. L., & Newsted, P. R. (2003). A partial least squares latent variable modeling approach for measuring interaction effects: Results from a Monte Carlo simulation study and an electronic-mail emotion/adoption study. *Information Systems Research*, *14*(2), 189-217.

Chung, S. H., Rainer Jr, R. K., & Lewis, B. R. (2003). The impact of information technology infrastructure flexibility on strategic alignment and application implementations. *The Communications of the Association for Information Systems*, *11*(1), 191-206.

Churchill Jr, G. A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *16*(Feb), 64-73.

Clark, J. M. (1939). *Social control of business*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Clarke, N.; Barnett, C.; Cloke, P. & Malpass, A. (2007). Globalising the Consumer: Doing Politics in an Ethical Register. *Political Geography, 26,* 231-249.

Clavin, B. y Lewis, A. (2005). Focus Groups on Consumers' Ethical Beliefs, in R. Harrison, T. Newholm y D. Shaw (eds), *The Ethical Consumer*, 173-187

Cowe, R. & Williams, S. (2000). Who are the Ethical Consumers?, *Ethical Consumerism Report*, Cooperative Bank, Manchester.

Commission of the European Communities. (2002). *Corporate Social Responsibility – Main Issues*, MEMO/02/153, Brussels.

Cooper-Martin, E. & Holbrook, M.B. (1993). Ethical Consumption Experiences and Ethical Space, *Advances in Consumer Research 20*(1), 113-118.

Manrai, L. A., Manrai, A. K., Lascu, D.N. & Ryands, J. K. (1997). How green claim strength and country disposition affect product evaluation and company image, *Psychology and Marketing, 14*(5), 511-537.

Matten, D., & Crane, A. (2004). Business Ethics: A European Perspective. *Oxford University Pres,* Inc., New York, NY.

Matten, D. & Crane, A. (2005). Corporate Citizenship: Toward an Extended Theoretical Conceptualization, *Academy of Management Review*, *30*(1), 166-179.

CSR Europe. (2003). *What is Corporate Social Responsibility?*, Available at http://www.csreurope.org/aboutus/FAQ/#csr (accessed on June 3, 2013).

Curtis, R. F., & Jackson, E. F. (1962). Multiple indicators in survey research. *American Journal of Sociology*, *68,* 195-204.

D'Astous, A., & Legendre, A. (2009). Understanding consumers' ethical justifications: A scale for appraising consumers' reasons for not behaving ethically. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *87*(2), 255-268.

Dahlsrud, A. (2008). How corporate social responsibility is defined: an analysis of 37 definitions. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, *15*(1), 1-13.

Davis, K. (1960). Can business afford to ignore social responsibilities? *California Management Review*, *2*(3), 70-76.

Davis, K. (1973). The case for and against business assumption of social responsibilities. *Academy of Management Journal*, *16*(2), 312-322.

Davis, K. and Blomstrom, R. L. (1966). *Business and its environment*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

De Pelsmacker, P., Janssens, W., Sterckx, E., & Mielants, C. (2005). Consumer preferences for the marketing of ethically labelled coffee. *International Marketing Review*, *22*(5), 512-530.

DeVellis, R. F. (2016). *Scale development: Theory and applications* (Vol. 26). Sage publications.

Deng, X. (2012). Understanding consumer's responses to enterprise's ethical behaviors: An investigation in China. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *107*(2), 159-181.

Devinney, T.M., Auger, P., Eckhardt, G. & Birtchnell, T. (2006). The Other CSR: Consumer Social Responsibility, *Innovation Review*, *4*(3), 30-37

Devinney, T. M., Auger, P., & Eckhardt, G. M. (2010). *The Myth of the Ethical Consumer*. Hardback with DVD, Cambridge University Press.

Diamantopoulos, A., & Winklhofer, H. M. (2001). Index construction with formative indicators: An alternative to scale development. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *38*(2), 269-277.

Diamantopoulos, A., & Siguaw, J. A. (2006). Formative versus reflective indicators in organizational measure development: A comparison and empirical illustration. *British Journal of Management*, *17*(4), 263-282.

Diamantopoulos, A., Riefler, P., & Roth, K. P. (2008). Advancing formative measurement models. *Journal of Business Research*, *61*(12), 1203-1218.

Dickinger, A., & Stangl, B. (2013). Website performance and behavioral consequences: A formative measurement approach. *Journal of Business Research*, *66*(6), 771-777.

Dickson, P. R. & Sawyer, A. (1990). The price knowledge and search of supermarket shoppers. *Journal of Marketing*, *54*, 42-53.

Dowling, G. R. (2004). Journalists' evaluation of corporate reputations. *Corporate Reputation Review*, *7*(2), 196-205.

Durif, F. Boivin, C. & Julien, C. (2010). In Search of a Green Product Definition. *Innovative Marketing, 6*(1), 23-31.

Durif, F., Boivin, C., Rajaobelina, L. & François-Lecompte, A. (2011). Socially Responsible Consumers: Profile and Implications for Marketing Strategy, *Internacional Review of Business Research Papers*, *7*(6), 215-224.

Edwards, J. R. (2011). The fallacy of formative measurement. *Organizational Research Methods*, *14*(2), 370-388.

Ellen, P. S., Wiener, J. L., & Cobb-Walgren, C. (1991). The role of perceived consumer effectiveness in motivating environmentally conscious behaviors. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, *10*(2), 102-117.

Ellen, P. S. (1994). Do we know what we need to know? Objective and subjective knowledge effects on pro-ecological behaviors. *Journal of Business Research*, *30*(1), 43-52.

Eells, R., y Walton, C. (1961). *Conceptual foundations of Business*. Homewood, III.: Richard D. Irwin.

Eells, R., y Walton, C. (1974). *Conceptual foundations of Business*, 3rd Edition, Irwin, Burr Ridge, IL.

Eilbirt, H., & Parket, I. R. (1973). The practice of business: The current status of corporate social responsibility. *Business Horizons*, *16*(4), 5-14.

Elkington, J., & Hailes, J. (1989). *The green consumer guide: From shampoo to champagne: High-street shopping for a better environment*. London: V. Gollancz.

Epstein, E. M. (1987). The corporate social policy process: Beyond business ethics, corporate social responsibility, and corporate social responsiveness. *California Management Review*, *29*(3), 99-114.

Ethics in Action Awards. (2003). *What is Corporate Social Responsibility?* Available at, http://www.ethicsinaction.com/whatiscsr/qanda.html, accessed at [October 12, 2014].

European Commission. Directorate-General for Employment (2001). *Promoting a European Framework for Corporate Social Responsibility: Green Paper*. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

European Commission (2011). *A Renewed EU Strategy 2011-14 for Corporate Social Responsibility*. Communication from The Commission to The European Parliament, The Council, The European Economic and Social Committee and The Committee of the Regions:.

Farooq, O., Merunka, D., & Valette-Florence, P. (2013). Employees' Response to Corporate Social Responsibility: An Application of a Non Linear Mixture REBUS Approach. In *New Perspectives in Partial Least Squares and Related Methods*, 257-268. Springer New York.

Fazal, A. (2011). *Consumer Power: Anywhere, Anytime, Anyone*. Neo Sentuhan.

Feng, F.D. (2010). "Green" company or "green" consumers: a Kantian retrospective. *International Journal of Social Economics*, *37*(10), 779-783.

Ferber, R. (1977). Research by convenience. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *4*(1), 57-58.

Fisk, G. (1973). Criteria for a Theory of Responsible Consumption, *Journal of Marketing*, *37*(April), 24-31.

Fitch, H. G. (1976). Achieving corporate social responsibility. *Academy of Management Review*, *1*(1), 38-46.

Flipo, J. P. & Seidel, F. (2010). 20 ans de recherché en éthique marketing, *Revue Française de Gestion*, *207*, 47-61.

Folkes, V. S. & Kamins, M. A. (1999). Effects of information about firms' ethical and unethical actions on consumer attitudes. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *8*(3), 243-259.

Foran, T. (2001). Corporate Social Responsibility at Nine Multinational Electronics Firms in Thailand: A Preliminary Analysis. *Nautilus Institute,* Berkeley, CA.

Fornell, C. (1981). A comparative analysis of two structural equation models: LISREL and PLS applied to market data. In: C. Fornell (ed.), *A second generation of multivariate analysis*, 289–324. Praeger, New York.

Fornell, C., & Bookstein, F. L. (1982). Two structural equation models: LISREL and PLS applied to consumer exit-voice theory. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *19*, 440-452.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *19*, 39-50.

Forsyth, D.R. (1992). Judging the Morality of Business Practices: The Influence of Personal Moral Philosophies, *Journal of Business Ethics*, *11*(5-6), 461-470.

Fraj, E., & Martinez, E. (2007). Ecological consumer behaviour: an empirical analysis. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, *31*(1), 26-33.

Francois-LeCompte, A., & Roberts, J. A. (2006). Developing a Measure of Socially Responsible Consumption in France. *Marketing Management Journal*, *16*(2), 50-66.

Frederick, W. C. (1960). The growing concern over business responsibility. *California Management Review, 2,* 54-61.

Freestone, O. M., & McGoldrick, P. J. (2008). Motivations of the ethical consumer. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *79*(4), 445-467.

Friedman, M. (1962). *Capitalism and freedom*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Frey, B. S., & Stutzer, A. (2002). What can economists learn from happiness research? *Journal of Economic Literature*, *40*(2), 402-435.

Fundación ECODES, *Consumo Responsable*. Available at http://ecodes.org/consumo-responsable/, accessed in [April 20, 2015]

Garbarino, E., & Johnson, M. S. (1999). The different roles of satisfaction, trust, and commitment in customer relationships. *The Journal of Marketing*, *63*(April), 70-87.

Gefen, D., Straub, D. W., & Rigdon, E. E. (2011). An update and extension to SEM guidelines for admnistrative and social science research. *Management Information Systems Quarterly*, *35*(2), iii-xiv.

Giacalone, R.A., Paul, K. & Jurkiewicz, C.L. (2005). A Preliminary Investigation into the Role of Positive psychology in Consumer Sensitivity to Corporate Social Performance. *Journal of Business Ethics, 58*(4), 295-305.

Giovanis, A. (2013). A Higher-Order Formative E-Commerce Customer Satisfaction Index. In *Proceedings of 1st International Conference on Computer Supported Education, Special Track: New Trends and Technologies for Marketing, Management, Economics and Information Processing*, 97-102.

Gjølberg, M. (2009). The origin of corporate social responsibility: Global forces or national legacies? *Socio - Economic Review, 7*(4), 605.

Gómez, J. E., Rialp, J. & Llonch, J. (2008). Influencia de la orientación al mercado en la función empresarial: su impacto en la capacidad de innovación y en los resultados de la pyme española. *Revista Internacional de la Pequeña y Mediana Empresa International Review of Small and Medium Enterprise*, *1*(1), 63-85.

Goodhue, D. L., Lewis, W., & Thompson, R. (2015). PLS pluses and minuses in path estimation accuracy. In *AMCIS 2015 Proceedings.* San Juan, Puerto Rico.

Götz, O., & Liehr-Gobbers, K. (2004). Analyse von strukturgleichungsmodellen mit hilfe der partial-least-squares (PLS)-methode. *Die Betriebswirtschaft*, *64*(6), 714-738.

Gough, H. G., McClosky, H., & Meehl, P. E. (1952). A personality scale for social responsibility. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *47*(1), 73-80.

Guide, V.D.R., & Ketokivi, M. (2015). Notes from the Editors: Redefining some methodological criteria for the journal. *Journal of Operations Management*, (37), v-viii.

Gujarati, D., & Porter, D. (2003). Multicollinearity: What happens if the regressors are correlated. In *Basic Econometrics*. McGraw-Hill: New York, 363.

Gurin, G., Veroff, J., & Feld, S. (1960). *Americans view their mental health*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Survey Research Center.

Ha-Brookshire, J. E., & Hodges, N. N. (2009). Socially responsible consumer behavior? Exploring used clothing donation behavior. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, *27*(3), 179-196.

Hair, J.D., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L. & William, C. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Prentince Hall, NJ.

Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2011). Pls-sem: Indeed a silver bullet. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice* , *19*(2), 139–151.

Hair, J. F., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2013). Partial least squares structural equation modeling: Rigorous applications, better results and higher acceptance. *Long Range Planning , 46*, 1–12.

Hair, J. F., Hult, G., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2014). *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)*. Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage.

Harper, G. C., & Makatouni, A. (2002). Consumer perception of organic food production and farm animal welfare. *British Food Journal*, *104*(3/4/5), 287-299.

Harris, D. B. (1957). A scale for measuring attitudes of social responsibility in children. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *55*(3), 322.

Helm, S. (2005). Designing a formative measure for corporate reputation. *Corporate Reputation Review*, *8*(2), 95-109.

Helm, S., Eggert, A., & Garnefeld, I. (2010). Modeling the impact of corporate reputation on customer satisfaction and loyalty using partial least squares. In *Handbook of Partial Least Squares*, 515-534. Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

Hendarwan, E. (2002). Seeing green. *Global Cosmetic Industry, 170*(5), 16-18.

Hollister, B., Will, R., Tepper, A. M., Dyott, S., Kovacs, S. & Richardson, L. (1994). *Shopping for a Better World: The Quick and Easy Guide to All Your Socially Responsible Shopping*. The Council on Economic Priorities.

Hopkins, M. (1998). *The Planetary Bargain: Corporate Social Responsibility Comes of Age*. Macmillan: London.

Hopkins, M. (2003). *The Planetary Bargain – CSR Matters*. Earthscan: London.

Hounshell, P. B., & Liggett, L. (1973). Assessing the effectiveness of environmental education. *The Journal of Environmental Education*, *5*(2), 28-30.

Howard, M., & Nelson, B. (2000). What the Progress of Ethical Consumerism in the 1990s Tells us About the Prospects of the 21st Century. *London: Co-operative Bank/The Future Foundation*.

Hunt, S. D., & Vitell, S. J. (2006). The general theory of marketing ethics: A revision and three questions. *Journal of Macromarketing*, *26*(2), 143-153.

Husted, B. W., & Allen, D. B. (2008). Toward a model of cross-cultural business ethics: The impact of individualism and collectivism on the ethical decision-making process. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *82*(2), 293-305.

Isa, S. M. (2011). *Developing and validating a CSR Model of stakeholder satisfaction and loyalty: Multidimensional constructs*. University of Hull.

Ismail, H., Panni, M. F. A. K., & Talukder, D. (2006). Consumer perception on the enviromental consumerism issue and its influence on their purchasing behavior. In *Allied Aca-demies International Conference. Academy of Legal, Ethical and Regulatory Issues Proceedings*, *10*(2), 13-17.

Jackson, D. N. (1974). *Personality Research Form Manual*. Port Huron: Research Psychologists Press. Rev. ed.

Jackson, P. & Hawker, B. (2001). *Is Corporate Social Responsibility Here to Stay?* Available at http://www.cdforum.com/research/icsrhts.doc [accessed October 12, 2014].

James, William (1902). *Varieties of Religious Experience*. New York: Mentor.

Jarvis, C. B., MacKenzie, S. B., & Podsakoff, P. M. (2003). A critical review of construct indicators and measurement model misspecification in marketing and consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *30*(2), 199-218.

Jha, S. D., & Singh, K. (2011). An analysis of individualism-collectivism across Northern India. *Journal of the Indian Academy of Applied Psychology*, *37*(1),

149-156.

Johnson, H. L. (1971). *Business in contemporary society: framework and issues*. Wadsworth Pub. Co Belmont, California.

Johnson, B. R., Jang, S. J., Larson, D. B., & De Li, S. (2001). Does adolescent religious commitment matter? A reexamination of the effects of religiosity on delinquency. *Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency*, *38*(1), 22-44.

Jones, T.M. (1980). Corporate social responsibility revisited, redefined. *California Management Review, 22*(2), 59.

Kassarjian, H. H. (1971). Incorporating ecology into marketing strategy: the case of air pollution. *The Journal of Marketing*, *35*(3), 61-65.

Khoury, G., Rostami, J., & Turnbull, P. L. (1999). Corporate social responsibility: Turning words into action. *Conference Board of Canada*.

Kilcullen, M., & Ohles Kooistra, J. (1999). At least do no harm: sources on the changing role of business ethics and corporate social responsibility. *Reference Services Review*, *27*(2), 158-178.

Kim, Y-K., Forney, J. & Arnold, E. (1997). Environmental Messages in Fashion Advertisements: Impact on Consumer Responses. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 15(3), 147-154.

Kinnear, T. C., & Taylor, J. R. (1973). The effect of ecological concern on brand perceptions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *10*(2), 191-197.

Kinnear, T. C., Taylor, J. R., & Ahmed, S. A. (1974). Ecologically concerned consumers: who are they? *The Journal of Marketing*, *38*(2), 20-24.

KPMG & Synovate (2007). Retailers are not Influenced by Ethical Consumers; It's Simply that a Socially Responsible Retailer is More Profistable. *Retail Think Tank White Paper*, July.

Kreps, T. J. (1940). Measurement of the Social Performance of Business (Monograph No. 7, An Investigation of Concentration of Economic Power for the Temporary National Economic Committee). Washington, DC: United States Government Printing Office. *cited in Carroll, AB, & Beiler, GW (1975) Landmarks in the Evolution of the Social Audit. Academy of Management Journal*, *18*(3), 589-599.

Kreps, T. J., & Murphy, K. R. (1940). *Measurement of the social performance of business*. US Government Printing Office.

Land, K. C. (1970). On the estimation of path coefficients for unmeasured variables from correlations among observed variables. *Social Forces*, *48*(4), 506-511.

Law, K. S., Wong, C. S., & Mobley, W. M. (1998). Toward a taxonomy of multidimensional constructs. *Academy of Management Review*, *23*(4), 741-755.

Lau, K. S., & Wong, C. (1999). Multidimensional constructs in structural equation analysis: an illustration using the perception and job satisfaction constructs. *Journal of Management*, *25*(2), 143-160.

Lea, R. (2002). *Corporate Social Responsibility*, Institute of Directors (IoD) member opinion survey. IoD: London. Available at http://www.epolitix.com/data/companies/images/Companies/Institute-of-Directors/CSR_Report.pdf. accessed [October, 12 2014].

Lecompte, A. F., & Valette-Florence, P. (2006). Mieux connaître le consommateur socialement responsable. *Décisions Marketing*, 67-79.

Lee, K. (2008). Opportunities for green marketing: young consumers. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning*, *26*(6), 573-586.

Lee, K. H., & Shin, D. (2010). Consumers' responses to CSR activities: The linkage between increased awareness and purchase intention. *Public Relations Review*, *36*(2), 193-195.

Leftridge, L. A. (1977). *Rural and urban secondary student perceptions of environmental issues: Relevance to environmental education curriculum development*. Kansas State University.

Leigh, J. H., Murphy, P. E., & Enis, B. M. (1988). A new approach to measuring socially responsible consumption tendencies. *Journal of Macromarketing*, *8*(1), 5-20.

Lin, C. H., Sher, P. J., & Shih, H. Y. (2005). Past progress and future directions in conceptualizing customer perceived value. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *16*(4), 318-336.

Loo, W. H., Yeow, P. H., & Eze, U. C. (2013). Responsible Consumption Behaviour: A Framework for Acquisition, Use & Disposal of Computers. In *PACIS*, 278.

Lord, F. M., Novick, M. R., & Birnbaum, A. (1968). *Statistical theories of mental test scores*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Lyubomirsky, S., & Lepper, H. S. (1999). A measure of subjective happiness: Preliminary reliability and construct validation. *Social Indicators Research*, *46*(2), 137-155.

MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Jarvis, C. B. (2005). The problem of measurement model misspecification in behavioral and organizational research and some recommended solutions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(4), 710.

McCarty, J. A., & Shrum, L. J. (2001). The influence of individualism, collectivism, and locus of control on environmental beliefs and behavior. *Journal of Public Policy & Marketing*, *20*(1), 93-104.

Maignan, I., Ferrell, O. C., & Hult, G. T. M. (1999). Corporate citizenship: cultural antecedents and business benefits. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *27*(4), 455-469.

Maignan, I., & Ferrell, O. C. (2001). Antecedents and benefits of corporate citizenship: an investigation of French businesses. *Journal of Business Research*, *51*(1), 37-51.

Maignan, I., & Ferrell, O. C. (2004). Corporate social responsibility and marketing: an integrative framework. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing science*, *32*(1), 3-19.

Malhotra, N. K. (2008). *Marketing research: An applied orientation, 4/e*. Pearson Education India.

Manne, H., & Wallich, H.C. (1972). *The modern corporation and social responsibility.* Washington D.C.: American Enterprise Institute for Public Policy Research.

Marin, L., & Ruiz, S. (2007). "I need you too!" Corporate identity attractiveness for consumers and the role of social responsibility. *Journal of business ethics*,*71*(3), 245-260.

Mascarenhas, O. A. J. (1995). Exonerating unethical marketing behaviors: A diagnostic framework. *Journal of Marketing*, *59*, 43-57.

Matten, D., & Moon, J. (2008). "Implicit" and "explicit" CSR: a conceptual framework for a comparative understanding of corporate social responsibility. *Academy of Management Review*, *33*(2), 404-424.

McEvoy, J. (1972). The American concern with the environment. *Social Behavior, Natural Resources and the Environment*, 214-236.

McGuire, J.W. (1963). *Business and society*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

McIntosh, C. N., Edwards, J. R., & Antonakis, J. (2014). Reflections on partial least squares path modeling. *Organizational Research Methods*, *17*(2), 210-251.

McWillians, A., & Siegel, D. (2000). Corporate social responsibility and financial performance: correlation or misspecification. *Strategic Management Journal*, *21*(5), 603-609.

Melé, J. A. (2009). *Dinero y conciencia. ¿A quién sirve mi dinero?* Plataforma editorial. España.

Varadarajan, P. R., & Menon, A. (1988). Cause-related marketing: A coalignment of marketing strategy and corporate philanthropy. *The Journal of Marketing*, 58-74.

Miller, D. (1998). *A Theory of Shopping*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Milne, G. R., & Culnan, M. J. (2004). Strategies for reducing online privacy risks: Why consumers read (or don't read) online privacy notices. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *18*(3), 15-29.

Mohr, L.A. Webb, D.J. & Harris, K.E. (2001). Do Consumers Expect Companies to be Socially Responsible? The Impact of Corporate Social Responsibility on Buying Behavior. *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*, *35*(1), 45-72.

Mohr, L. A., & Webb, D. J. (2005). The effects of corporate social responsibility and price on consumer responses. *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, *39*(1), 121-147.

Monecke, A., & Leisch, F. (2012). semPLS: Structural Equation Modeling using Partial Least Squares. *Journal of Statistical Software, 48*(3), 1-32.

Morrison, E. & Bridwell, L. (2011). Consumer Social Responsibility – The True Corporate Social Responsibility. *Competition Forum, 9*(1), 144-149.

Muncy, J. A., & Vitell, S. J. (1992). Consumer ethics: An investigation of the ethical beliefs of the final consumer. *Journal of Business Research*, *24*(4), 297-311.

Murphy, P. E., & Enis, B. M. (1974). Let's Hear the Case Against Brand X. *Business and Society Review*, *12*, 82-89.

Murray, K. B., & Montanari, J. B. (1986). Strategic management of the socially responsible firm: Integrating management and marketing theory. *Academy of Management Review*, *11*(4), 815-827.

Netemeyer, R. G., Bearden, W. O., & Sharma, S. (2003). *Scaling procedures: Issues and applications*. Sage Publications, London.

Newholm, T., & Shaw, D. (2007). Studying the ethical consumer: A review of research. *Journal of Consumer Behavior, 6*(5), 253-270.

Nunnally, J.C. & Bernsteins, I.H. (1994). *Psychometric Theory* 3, Mcgraw-Hill, New York.

Öberseder, M., Schlegelmilch, B.B. & Gruber, V. (2011). Why Don't Consumers Care About CSR? A Qualitative Study Exploring the Role of CSR in Consumption Decisions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *104*(4), 449-460.

Ocampo, S. D., Perdomo-Ortiz, J., & Castaño, L. E. V. (2014). El concepto de consumo socialmente responsable y su medición. Una revisión de la literatura. *Estudios Gerenciales*, *30*(132), 287-300.

Okazaki, S., & Taylor, C. R. (2013). Social media and international advertising: theoretical challenges and future directions. *International marketing review*,*30*(1), 56-71.

Organisation, R. (1992). E*nvironmental behavior, North America, Canada, Mexico, United States*. Roper. Survey Commissioned by SC Johnson and Son, Inc.

Parra, C. (2010). *Empresas con Conciencia.* Editorial Viceversa, España.

Pavot, W., & Diener, E. (1993). Review of the satisfaction with life scale. *Psychological Assessment*, *5*(2), 164.

Philippe, F. L., Vallerand, R. J., Houlfort, N., Lavigne, G. L., & Donahue, E. G. (2010). Passion for an activity and quality of interpersonal relationships: The mediating role of emotions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *98*(6), 917.

Podsakoff, N. P., Shen, W., & Podsakoff, P. M. (2006). The role of formative measurement models in strategic management research: review, critique, and implications for future research. In D. J. Ketchen, & D. D. Bergh (Eds.), *Research Methodology in Strategy and Management,* 197-252. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Post, J., & Preston, L. (2012). *Private management and public policy: The principle of public responsibility*. Stanford University Press.

Quazi, A. (2013). Consumer Social Responsibility (CSR): A Neglected Aspect of Social Responsibility Discourse, paper presented at the *Fourth Annual Asian Business and Management Conference*, Osaka, Japan.

Quazi, A., Amran, A., & Nejati, M. (2016). Conceptualizing and measuring consumer social responsibility: a neglected aspect of consumer research. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, *40*(1), 48-56.

Reder, A. (1994). *In Pursuit of Principle and Profit: Business Success through Social Responsibility*. Putnam: New York.

Rialp, A., & Rialp, J. (Eds.) (2006). International marketing research: opportunities and challenges in the 21st century. *International Marketing Research*, *17,* 1-13..

Ricky, C. Y. (2007). Applying ethical concepts to the study of 'Green' consumer behaviour: An analysis of Chinese consumers' intentions to bring their own shopping bags. *Journal of Business Ethics, 14*(3), 66-91.

Rigdon, E. E. (2012). Rethinking partial least squares path modeling: In praise of simple methods. *Long Range Planning*, *45*(5), 341-358.

Rivera, J. J., Bigne, E., & Curras-Perez, R. (2016). Effects of Corporate Social Responsibility perception on consumer satisfaction with the brand. *Spanish Journal of Marketing-ESIC*, *20*(2), 104-114.

Roberts, J. A. (1995). Profiling levels of socially responsible consumer behavior: a cluster analytic approach and its implications for marketing. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, *3*(4), 97-117.

Roberts, J. A. (1996). Will the real socially responsible consumer please step forward? *Business Horizons*, *39*(1), 79-83.

Roberts, P. W., & Dowling, G. R. (2002). Corporate reputation and sustained superior financial performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, *23*(12), 1077-1093.

Rönkkö, M. (2014). The effects of chance correlations on partial least squares path modeling. *Organizational Research Methods*, *17*(2), 164-181.

Rönkkö, M., & Evermann, J. (2013). A critical examination of common beliefs about partial least squares path modeling. *Organizational Research Methods*, *16*(3), 425-448.

Rönkkö, M., McIntosh, C. N., & Antonakis, J. (2015). On the adoption of partial least squares in psychological research: Caveat emptor. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *87*, 76-84.

Rönkkö, M., McIntosh, C. N., Antonakis, J., & Edwards, J. R. (2016). Partial least squares path modeling: Time for some serious second thoughts. *Journal of Operations Management*, *47*, 9-27.

Rönkkö, M., McIntosh, C. N., & Aguirre-Urreta, M. I. (2016). Improvements to PLSc: Remaining problems and simple solutions. *Unpublished Working Paper*. Retrieved from http://urn.fi/URN:NBN:fi:aalto-201603051463

Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Rossiter, J. R. (2002). The C-OAR-SE procedure for scale development in marketing. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, *19*(4), 305-335.

Ruiz, S., Lardín, R. & López, I. (2016). I will do it if I enjoy it! The moderating effect os seeking sensory pleasure when exposed to participatory CSR Campaigns. *Frontiers in Psychology, 6*, 1-10.

Sánchez, G. (2013). *PLS path modeling with R*. Berkeley: Trowchez Editions.

Sánchez-Perez, M., & Iniesta-Bonillo, M. A. (2004). Consumers felt commitment towards retailers: Index development and validation. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *19*(2), 141-159.

Schwartz, S. H. (1977). Normative influences on altruism. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, *10*, 221-279.

Senécal, C. B., Vallerand, R. J., & Vallières, É. F. (1992). Construction et validation de l'Échelle de la Qualité des Relations Interpersonnelles (EQRI). *European Review of Applied Psychology/Revue Européenne de Psychologie Appliquée*, *42*, 315–322.

Sethi, S.P. (1975). Dimensions of corporate social responsibility. *California Management Review, 17*, 58.

Shanka, T., & Gopalan, G. (2005). Socially Responsible Consumer Behavior–Higher Education Students' Perceptions. In *Conference of Corporate Responsibility. ANZMAC*.

Shaw, D., & Shiu, E. (2002). An assessment of ethical obligation and self‐identity in ethical consumer decision‐making: a structural equation modelling approach. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, *26*(4), 286-293.

Singh, N. (2009). Exploring socially responsible behaviour of Indian consumers: An empirical investigation. *Social Responsibility Journal*, *5*(2), 200-211.

Singhapakdi, A., Vitell, S. J., Rallapalli, K. C., & Kraft, K. L. (1996). The perceived role of ethics and social responsibility: A scale development. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *15*(11), 1131-1140.

Smith, N. C., Palazzo, G., & Bhattacharya, C. B. (2010). Marketing's consequences: Stakeholder marketing and supply chain corporate social responsibility issues. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, *20*(04), 617-641.

Snider, J., R. P. Hill & D. Martin (2003). Corporate Social Responsibility in the 21st Century: A View from the World's Most Successful Firms. *Journal of Business Ethics, 48,* 175-187.

Sood, J., & Nasu, Y. (1995). Religiosity and nationality: An exploratory study of their effect on consumer behavior in Japan and the United States. *Journal of Business Research*, *34*(1), 1-9.

Spector, P. E. (1992). *Summated rating scales construction: An introduction* (Quantitative Applications in the Social Sciences, Paper No. 82). Sage Publications, Newbury Park, CA.

Steenkamp, J. B. (2017). Corporate Social Responsibility. In *Global Brand Strategy*, 209-238. Palgrave Macmillan UK.

Steiner, G.A. (1971). *Business and society*. New York: Random House.

Stevens, J. (1996). *Applied multivariate statistics for the social sciences*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.

Stigson, B. (2002). Pillars of change: business is finally learning that taking care of the environment and meeting social responsibilities makes good business sense. In *Forum for Applied Research and Public Policy, 16*(4), 23.

Stone, G., Barnes, J. H., & Montgomery, C. (1995). Ecoscale: a scale for the measurement of environmentally responsible consumers. *Psychology & Marketing*, *12*(7), 595-612.

Straughan, R. D., & Roberts, J. A. (1999). Environmental segmentation alternatives: a look at green consumer behavior in the new millennium. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *16*(6), 558-575.

Thornton, S. C., Henneberg, S. C., & Naudé, P. (2014). Conceptualizing and validating organizational networking as a second-order formative construct. *Industrial Marketing Management*, *43*(6), 951-966.

Tognacci, L. N., Weigel, R. H., Wideen, M. F., & Vernon, D. T. (1972). Environmental quality: how universal is public concern? *Environment and Behavior*, *4*(1), 73-86.

Triandis, H. C. (1989). The self and social behavior in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review*, *96*(3), 506.

Triandis, H. C. (1995). *Individualism & collectivism*. Boulder, CO: Westview press.

Tucker, L. R., Dolich, I. J., & Wilson, D. (1981). Profiling environmentally responsible consumer-citizens. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *9*(4), 454-478.

Turker, D. (2009). Measuring corporate social responsibility: A scale development study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *85*(4), 411-427.

Uusitalo, O., & Oksanen, R. (2004). Ethical consumerism: a view from Finland. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, *28*(3), 214-221.

Valle, P. O. D., Rebelo, E., Reis, E., & Menezes, J. (2005). Combining behavioral theories to predict recycling involvement. *Environment and Behavior*, *37*(3), 364-396.

Valor, C., Díaz, E. M., & Merino, A. (2016). The Discourse of the Consumer Resistance Movement Adversarial and Prognostic Framings through the Lens of Power. *Journal of Macromarketing*, *37*(1), 72-84.

Van der Wiele, T., Kok, P., McKenna, R., & Brown, A. (2001). A corporate social responsibility audit within a quality management framework. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *31*(4), 285-297.

Van Kenhove, P., De Wulf, K., & Steenhaut, S. (2003). The relationship between consumers' unethical behavior and customer loyalty in a retail environment. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *44*(4), 261-278.

Van Liere, K. D., & Dunlap, R. E. (1981). Environmental Concern Does it Make a Difference How it's Measured? *Environment and Behavior*, *13*(6), 651-676.

Van Marrewijk, M. (2001). The Concept and Definition of Corporate Social Responsibility. *Amsterdam: Triple P Performance Centre*.

Vining, J. & Ebreo, A. (1990). What makes a recycler? A comparison of recyclers and nonrecyclers. *Environment and Behavior*, *22*(1), 55-73.

Vitell, S. J. (2003). Consumer Ethics Research: Review, Synthesis and Suggestions for the Future. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *43*(1/2), 33-47.

Vitell, S. J. (2015). A case for consumer social responsibility (CnSR): Including a selected review of consumer ethics/social responsibility research. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *130*(4), 767-774.

Votaw, D. (1973). *Genius Becomes Rare*. In D. Votaw & S. P. Sethi (Eds.). *The corporate dilemma: Traditional values versus contemporary problems*: 11-45. Englewood Cliffs, NJ, Prentice Hall.

Walton, C. (1967). *Corporate Social Responsibilities*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Wartick, S. L., & Cochran, P. L. (1985). The evolution of the corporate social performance model. *Academy of Management Review*, *10*(4), 758-769.

Webb, D. J., Mohr, L. A., & Harris, K. E. (2008). A re-examination of socially responsible consumption and its measurement. *Journal of Business Research*, *61*(2), 91-98.

Webster Jr, F. E. (1975). Determining the characteristics of the socially conscious consumer. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *2*(3), 188-196.

Wetzels, M., Odekerken-Schröder, G., & Van Oppen, C. (2009). Using PLS path modeling for assessing hierarchical construct models: Guidelines and empirical illustration. *MIS Quarterly*, *33*(1), 177-195.

Willis, A. (2003). The role of the global reporting initiative's sustainability reporting guidelines in the social screening of investments. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *43*(3), 233-237.

Witt, P., & Rode, V. (2005). Corporate brand building in start-ups. *Journal of Enterprising Culture*, *13*(03), 273-294.

Woodward-Clyde. (1999). *Key Opportunities and Risks to New Zealand's Export Trade from Green Market Signals*, final paper, Sustainable Management Fund Project 6117. New Zealand Trade and Development Board, Auckland.

World Business Council for Sustainable Development. (1999). *Corporate Social Responsibility: Meeting Changing Expectations*. World Business Council for Sustainable Development, Geneva.

World Business Council for Sustainable Development. (2000). *Corporate Social Responsibility: Making Good Business Sense*. World Business Council for Sustainable Development, Geneva.

Yan, J., & She, Q. (2011). Developing a trichotomy model to measure socially responsible behaviour in China. *International Journal of Market Research*, *53*(2), 253-274.