The relationship between demographics and consumers' propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on social responsibility

by

Iman Hassani

A thesis

presented to the University of Waterloo
in fulfilment of the
thesis requirement for the degree of
Master of Environmental Studies

in

Sustainability Management

Waterloo, Ontario, Canada, 2018
© Iman Hassani 2018

Author's Declaration

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public.

Abstract

This research aims to understand the relationship between demographic factors and socially conscious consumption behaviors. Research has been conducted on the relationship between demographic factors and green or socially conscious behavior. Most of these studies provide a snapshot of a certain segment of the population at a given point in time. However, the current study is looking at the influence of demographic factors across countries *and* over time. The importance of this topic is in understanding actual consumer behavior and identifying consumers' intentions and needs.

Using the GlobeScan Radar database, over 76,000 survey responses from 18 countries between 2007 to 2013 were analyzed¹. Respondents in each year and country were asked whether they consider punishing or rewarding a company based on the perceived level of social responsibility. Chi square tests were the main form of analysis that was used in this study to investigate the existence of any relationship between demographic factors (including gender, age, income, level of education, country, and year) and the degree to which a consumer actively punishes or rewards a company based on social responsibility. The findings showed there is a relationship between the studied demographic factors and the consumers' propensity; however only the factor of country showed a strong association, other analyzed variable associations were weak.

This study is useful for policymakers, market researchers, academic researchers, and businesses as it provides a comprehensive picture of consumers' views and their changes over time on a global scale. This research provides a comprehensive picture of the impact of

¹ The numbers for each variable varied depending on the valid number of cases.

demographic factors on consumers' behavior. Based on the high number of respondents in this study, we were able to assess with a high degree of statistical confidence, the effects of gender, age, income, education, country, and year on a consumers' propensity to actively reward or punish companies based on their perceived level of social responsibility.

Keywords: Corporate social responsibility, Rewarding, Punishing, Demographics, Consumer behavior, Socially conscious consumerism

Acknowledgements

I would first like to thank my supervisor Prof. Lynes for being so supportive. The door to her office was always open to me, whenever I needed her guidance. I could not have imagined having a better advisor and mentor for my study.

Besides, I am so grateful to have the chance to have access to such a comprehensive dataset that was provided through a recent partnership between University of Waterloo and GlobeScan. I would like to thank all my professors, especially, Prof. Wood for his insightful comments as the committee member and also Prof. Dias for the encouragements.

Finally, I must express my profound gratitude to my wife who has always been there for me. She is beyond words. I also would like to thank my family especially my parents and in-laws for providing me with unfailing support and continuous encouragement throughout my life, my years of study and my research.

Table of Contents

Author's Declaration	ii
Abstract	iii
Acknowledgements	V
List of Tables	ix
List of Figures	xi
Chapter 1 – Introduction	1
The interface between Corporate Social Responsibility and Consumerism	2
The impact of social responsibility on consumers choices	3
Understanding what influences consumption patterns	4
Corporate social responsibility from the perspective of the consumer	5
Exploring Socially Responsible Consumption	5
Socially responsible purchase intention	6
Factors affecting socially responsible purchase intention	7
Influences on Purchase Intention	8
A model of Socially Conscious Consumerism	9
An overview of demographic influences on purchase intention	10
Research Overview	12
Research objectives and contributions	12
Thesis structure	13
Chapter 2: Literature review	15
The emergence of socially conscious consumerism	15
Socially conscious consumer segmentation	18
Differences among people from different countries	19
Demographics	20
Gender	22
Income	24
Age	25
Marital status and number of children	26
Education	27
Country	29
Year	

Chapter 3 – Research Methods	31
Research Approach	31
Data collection	31
Data Analysis	34
Limitations	36
Chapter 4 – Results	38
Introduction	38
Descriptive statistics	39
Relationship between demographic variables and respondents' propens company	•
Gender	47
Income	48
Age	50
Education	51
Country	53
Year	55
Rewarding	57
Model Fitting Information	57
Pseudo R-Square	57
Parameter Estimates	57
Punishing	61
Model Fitting Information	61
Pseudo R-Square	61
Parameter Estimates	61
Chapter 5 – Discussion, summary, and conclusion	65
Introduction	65
Main findings of the research	65
Conclusion	70
Gender	70
Income	71
Age	72
Education	73
Country	74
Year	75
Contributions of the research	78

Future studies	79
References	81
Appendix A – Analyzed cases for each country and year	93
Appendix B – Rewarding and punishing behaviors for each country	94

List of Tables

Table 1. An overview of the literature related to the effect of demographics on environmental	
behavior	
Table 2. The categories of analyzed factors	
Table 3. An overview of the number of valid and missing cases	.35
Table 4. Descriptive statistics including Std. Deviation, Variance, and number of valid and missing	
cases	
Table 5. Dependant Variable 1 (Rewarding) frequencies	
Table 6. Dependant Variable 2 (punishing) frequencies	.40
Table 7. Independent variable 1 (gender) frequencies	.41
Table 8. Independent variable 2 (income) frequencies	.42
Table 9. Independent variable 3 (age) frequencies	.43
Table 10. Independent variable 4 (education) frequencies	.44
Table 11. Independent variable 5 (country) frequencies	.45
Table 12. Independent variable 6 (year) frequencies	.46
Table 13. Chi square between gender and rewarding	.47
Table 14. Cramer's V, gender and rewarding	.47
Table 15. Chi square, gender and punishing	. 48
Table 16. Cramer's V, gender and punishing	. 48
Table 17. Chi square, income and rewarding	.49
Table 18. Cramer's V, income and rewarding	.49
Table 19. Chi square, income and punishing	. 49
Table 20. Cramer's V, income and punishing	.50
Table 21. Chi square, age and rewarding	.50
Table 22. Cramer's V, age and rewarding	.50
Table 23. Chi square, age and punishing	.51
Table 24. Cramer's V, age and punishing	.51
Table 25. Chi square, education and rewarding	.52
Table 26. Cramer's V, education and rewarding	.52
Table 27. Chi square, education and punishing	. 53
Table 28. Cramer's V, education and punishing	.53
Table 29. Chi square, country and rewarding	.54
Table 30. Cramer's V, country and rewarding	.54
Table 31. Chi square, country and punishing	.54
Table 32. Cramer's V, country and punishing	. 55
Table 33. Chi square, year and rewarding	.55
Table 34. Cramer's V, year and rewarding	.55
Table 35. Chi square, year and punishing	
Table 36. Cramer's V, year and punishing	.56
Table 37. Model fitting information, rewarding	
Table 38. R-Square, rewarding	
Table 39. Parameter estimates, rewarding	
Table 40. Model fitting information, punishing	
Table 41. R-Square, punishing	.61
Table 42 Parameter estimates inunishing	64

Table 43. Summary of the points from the literature and results	77
Table 44. Influential factors of socially conscious behaviors	80

List of Figures

Figure 1. A model of socially conscious consumerism	10
Figure 2 - The sustainability movement	16
Figure 3 - Countries that were surveyed as part of the GlobeScan Radar database	34
Figure 4. Independent variables (IV) and dependent variables (DV) used in this research	the method
of the research	36
Figure 5. The consideration of rewarding a socially responsible company	38
Figure 6. The consideration of punishing a socially responsible company	39
Figure 7. Independent variable 1 (gender) frequencies	41
Figure 8. Independent variable 2 (income) frequencies	42
Figure 9. Independent variable 3 (age) frequencies	43
Figure 10. Independent variable 4 (education) frequencies	44
Figure 11. Independent variable 5 (country) frequencies	45
Figure 12. Independent variable 6 (year) frequencies	46
Figure 13. Propensity for rewarding by country	59
Figure 14. Propensity for punishing by country	63
Figure 15, propensity for rewarding by country	68
Figure 16, propensity for punishing by country	69
Figure 17 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Australia	94
Figure 18 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Australia	94
Figure 19 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Brazil	95
Figure 20 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Brazil	95
Figure 21 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Canada	96
Figure 22 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Canada	96
Figure 23 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Chile	97
Figure 24 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Chile	97
Figure 25 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in China	98
Figure 26 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in in China	98
Figure 27 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in France	99
Figure 28 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in France	99
Figure 29 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Germany	100
Figure 30 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Germany	100
Figure 31 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Greece	101
Figure 32 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Greece	101
Figure 33 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in India	102
Figure 34 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in India	102
Figure 35 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Indonesia	103
Figure 36 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Indonesia	103
Figure 37 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Kenya	104
Figure 38 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Kenya	104
Figure 39 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Mexico	105
Figure 40 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Mexico	105
Figure 41 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Nigeria	106
Figure 42 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Nigeria	106

Figure 43 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Peru	107
Figure 44 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Peru	107
Figure 45 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Russia	108
Figure 46 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Russia	108
Figure 47 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in South Korea	109
Figure 48 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in South Korea	109
Figure 49 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in the UK	110
Figure 50 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in the UK	110
Figure 51 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in the USA	111
Figure 52 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in USA	111

Chapter 1 – Introduction

Involving socially responsible approaches into companies' strategies can be beneficial for societies and businesses simultaneously. Mohr et al. (2001) suggests integrating Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) strategies, which he referred to as "a company's commitment to minimizing or eliminating any harmful effects and maximizing its long-run beneficial impact on society" (p. 47), into companies' activities is necessary to meet consumers' expectations. Peattie (2003) contends that effective green marketing strategies can provide differentiation by addressing environmental needs of consumers and recalibrating the basic rules of marketing. Furthermore, providing reliable information for consumers is required because the public is willing to buy sustainable products with trustworthy information (Peattie, 2003). In order to effectively shift consumption patterns by implementing corporate social responsibility programs in an sustainable and responsible way, there is a need to identify and understand the reasons behind consumers' purchasing decisions. Finding factors affecting consumers' propensity toward environmentally and socially friendly purchases have been discussed widely in the literature (e.g. Chekima et al., 2016; Joshi & Rahman, 2015; Kaufmann, Panni, Mohammad Fateh Ali Khan, & Orphanidou, 2012; Rahnama & Rajabpour, 2017; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975; Peattie, 2010; Thogersen, 2004). While there are a variety of influential factors that affect the decision-making process, the effect of demographics such as gender, age and level of education have been widely cited in the literature as having an important impact an individual's tendency to participate in socially conscious consumerism (e.g. Dettmann & Dimitri, 2009; Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmilch, Sinkovics, & Bohlen, 2003; Fisher, Bashyal, & Bachman, 2012; Robinson & Smith, 2002). While many of these studies provide a snapshot of the influence of demographics on certain populations at a given point in time,

few – if any - studies investigate the influence of demographic factors across countries *and* over time. This research aims to understand the relationship between demographic factors and socially conscious consumption behaviors by looking at data from 18 countries that has been collected by GlobeScan from 2007 to 2013.

To set the context for this study, this next section begins by discussing marketing and its link to sustainability. Subsequently, green marketing is discussed: how green marketing emerged, its importance, followed by an overview of factors that influence socially conscious consumerism.

The interface between Corporate Social Responsibility and Consumerism

The increasing social awareness of environmental issues is linked to the enormous amount of environmental pollution that has stemmed from industrial development worldwide (Y. S. Chen, 2013; Moon, 2007). The current level of consumption is not sustainable and is one of the main contributors to environmental deterioration (Ottman, 2011). Staying on the right path of sustainable development requires a shift from conventional consumption to consumption that integrates both social and environmental considerations (Polonsky, 2011). A lack of adequate information on how to promote socially responsible consumers' behavior is hindering the growth of markets that embrace socially conscious consumerism (Chekima et al., 2016). Separating economy, technology, global population, and non-sustainable consumption from the negative impacts on the environment is not possible; major environmental degradation and social problems, such as, climate change, water and air pollution, deforestation, and acid rain are caused by human activities (Chekima et al., 2016; Chen & Chai, 2010). In order to preserve the environment and meeting the Sustainable Development Goals (2015), sustainability should be considered in all parts of business. Chen

(2010) has identified five reasons to develop green marketing from a corporate perspective: compliance with environmental pressure, obtaining competitive advantage, enhancing brand image, seeking new markets and opportunities, and improving product value.

The impact of social responsibility on consumers choices

There are many studies that suggest CSR programs can positively influence consumers to buy environmentally or socially friendly products (Boztepe, 2012; Connolly, McDonagh, Polonsky, & Prothero, 2007; Jamrozy, 2007; Ottman, 2011; Peattie, 2010; K. Peattie, 2016). However, there is a belief that consumers are more interested in price, performance, function, and even packaging than they are in the sustainable attributes of a product or service (Prescott & Taylor, 2008). Regardless of green features of products' and companies' green initiatives, many consumers remain unconvinced about the truthfulness of firms' green claims (Atkinson & Rosenthal, 2014; Bonini, Hintz, & Mendonca, 2008; Kalafatis, Pollard, East, & Tsogas, 1999; Peattie, 2010). In other words, there is a gap between consumers' views toward socially and environmentally products and their actual purchase intentions.

Many consumers think that environmental and social problems belong to the future and there is nothing to be worry about today; integrating future consequences in consumers' decision-making is not easy (Polonsky, 2011). It is found that there is a tendency to underestimate future environmental problems more than other types of risk involved in purchase decisions (Hendrickx & Nicolaij, 2004). Consumers behave in an environmentally or socially friendly manner for various reasons; for instance, maximizing their own welfare or even considering green consumption as a fashion (Polonsky, 2011). Prothero, McDonagh, & Dobscha (2010) argue that the complexity of environmental problems requires equally complex solutions.

Green marketing as one component of a comprehensive solution can help with environmental conservation (Prothero, McDonagh, & Dobscha, 2010).

Understanding what influences consumption patterns

There is a gap in understanding what role consumers play in altering the current patterns of consumption. Some believe that early research in green marketing tried to understand how to motivate consumers to behave responsibly (e.g. Henion & Kinnear, 1976). However, there is a view that fundamental changes in both consumers' and firms' behavior can lead to wider benefits to the society (D'Souza, Taghian, & Khosla, 2007; Ginsberg & Bloom, 2004; Polonsky, 2011). Polonsky (2011) suggests that the current green marketing paradigm is based on a flawed principle: individualist thinking. He believes that a shift toward making long-term decisions and valuing the natural environment is needed.

Wymer and Polonsky (2015) contend that policies relying on marketing to solve environmental problems are derived from free-market environmentalism. This market-based view considers a minimal role for governments, limited to enforcing contracts and laws. Free-market environmentalism also reduces citizens' role as consumers. Private ownership rather than public ownership, and profit making rather than social value making are the other assumptions of market-based environmentalism (Olssen & Peters, 2005; Wymer & Polonsky, 2015). Market-based solutions also assume that consumers demand good and services that are good for society (Metzger, 2003). Other believe that its governments' responsibility to ease and manage green consumption(Pellizzoni, 2004). Thus, shifting the green marketing focus toward a value-based model due to addressing the real motives of consumers' green-behaviors is required (Polonsky, 2011). The importance of the role that consumers play in changing consumption patterns should not be underestimated. Therefore, it is important to

understand consumer intentions toward environmentally and socially friendly products and services in order to shift consumption patterns toward sustainable ones.

Corporate social responsibility from the perspective of the consumer

It is reported by many that consumers expect companies to engage corporate social responsibility and communicate their responsible their activities (e.g. Lynes & Andrachuk, 2008; Schmeltz, 2012). According to Cone Communications Millennial CSR study (2015), in United States, 91% of millennials would switch brands due to a responsible one; moreover, this study found that around 37% of millennial moms are likely to reward a company due to social responsibility. However, Morsing et al.(2008) claimed that although consumers expect companies to be engaged in socially and environmentally friendly activities, they find it inappropriate if companies explicitly communicate their own good deeds.

Exploring Socially Responsible Consumption

Over the past few decades the integration of responsibility and sustainability in consumption patterns has been discussed by many researchers (Chang & Chen, 2014; Dyson, Farr, & Hollis, 1996). The concept of green consumption refers to recycling, purchasing and using goods causing no or less damage to the environment (Chang & Chen, 2014). Green consumption as a subset of ethical consumption (Carrington, Neville, & Whitwell, 2010) can overlap other consumption concepts such as, sustainable, or responsible consumption. Although green consumption might be assumed to be only related to environmental issues, it is highly intertwined with social and economic aspects of sustainable development (Magnusson, 2003; Peattie, 2010). Various definitions of socially responsible consumption considering different aspects of social and environmental contributions of consumption behaviors are given in the literature. For example, socially conscious consumer is defined by

Webster (1975) 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" (p. 188). Moher (2001) has defined socially responsible consumer 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" (p. 47).

Green consumption behavior pertains to the behavior that has minimal or reduced impact on the environment, such as recycling and purchasing environmentally friendly products (Johnstone & Tan, 2015). Sustainable consumption has been investigated across a wide variety of products and services, such as energy-efficient automobiles, eco-friendly containers, and gasoline products (Davis, 1994; Green & Peloza, 2014; Kronrod, Grinstein, & Wathieu, 2012). Green consumption is about satisfying human needs or wants with minimal detrimental impact on the environment (Pieters, 1991). Green consumer behavior is regarded as purchase choice, product use and post-use, household management, and consumer activism behaviors reflecting some degree of environmental related motivations (Peattie, 2010). Making consumption decisions considering environmental and social issues is defined as green consumer behavior (Peattie, 2010).

Socially responsible purchase intention

Sustainable consumption, which includes environmentally and socially responsible purchase decisions, usually associates with one benefit of two: benefit of other or benefit of self (Green & Peloza, 2014; Peloza, White, & Shang, 2013). Highlighting the benefit of green consumption for other individuals or the society at large is defined as benefit of other. There are various opinions about the reasons behind consumers' interests in corporate social responsibility. Some have stated that consumes evaluate companies based on social and society- centered

values(Griskevicius, Tybur, & Van den Bergh, 2010a; Webb, Mohr, & Harris, 2008), on the contrary, others claim that consumers' judgments are more based on personal and self-centered values(Green & Peloza, 2014; Schmeltz, 2012; White, Macdonnell, & Dahl, 2011).

The benefit of self emphasizes that the main beneficiary is the consumer (Green & Peloza, 2014; Peloza, White, & Shang, 2013b; White & Simpson, 2013). Some scholars believe that green consumption is more about the benefit of other and is more socially oriented(Davis, 1994; Griskevicius, Tybur, & Van den Bergh, 2010b; Webb et al., 2008). From this perspective, purchasing green products is due to the consideration of society and the environment prior to personal benefit. Additionally, Peattie and Crane (2005) suggest that in terms of generating consumers' green purchase intentions, socially and environmentally responsible consumption with the purpose of causing benefit to the society is more effectual than the one that only offers individual benefits. On the other hand, some argue that offering the benefit of self is more effective for encouraging green behaviors (de Groot & Steg, 2008; Stern, 2000). Leonidou, Katsikeas, & Morgan (2013) believe that sustainable behaviors are based on egoistic considerations. In this regard, Peattie(2001) has stated that highlighting costsaving can motivate consumers to purchase green products. Luchs et al.(2010) also find that the process of green consumption without consumer personal benefit will generate resistance toward sustainable products. We cannot ignore the benefit of the self as a strong incentive to consume sustainably.

Factors affecting socially responsible purchase intention

Over the last decades, many studies have been conducted to investigate the determinants of responsible purchase behaviors (Bertrandias & Elgaaied-Gambier, 2014; Chekima et al., 2016). A consumer's inclination to purchase a product is a combination of consumer's interest

and the possibility of buying (Wu, Wu, Lee, & Lee, 2015). It is claimed that consumers' purchase intentions are highly affected by attitudinal variables (Cases, Fournier, Dubois, & Tanner, 2010; Wu et al., 2015).

Purchase intention is addressed in the literature as the predictor of behaviors (Chekima et al., 2016). We can define purchase intention as continuous planning related to making a decision about attempting to buy a specific good or service (Spears & Singh, 2004). Green purchase intention is defined as an individual's willingness to prefer green products than conventional ones (Rashid, Nik Ramli Nik Abdul, 2009). A distinct environmentally friendly behavior to express an individual's concerns for the environment is the other explanation of green purchase intention (Chekima et al., 2016). It is also noted that purchase intention eventually leads to purchase behavior (Chekima et al., 2016). Some represent purchase intention as a proxy for actual purchases and as an accurate measure of future sales(Armstrong, Morwitz, & Kumar, 2000; Ramayah, Lee, & Mohamad, 2010). Green purchase intention is defined as intent or actual purchase of green product with the awareness of its environmentally friendly characteristics (Oliver & Lee, 2010). Demographic characteristics and general attitudes have been identified as major predictors of sustainable behaviors (Sheehan & Atkinson, 2012; Stern, 2000). Moreover, it is reported that people with same demographic charachteristis tend to have similar habits (Solomon, 2016).

Influences on Purchase Intention

The evolution of sustainable and ethical issues in the marketing research area has been integrated with various theories, such as Stakeholder theory, Political Economy Paradigm, Resource-Based View, Institutional Theory, Theory of Planned Behavior, and the Theory of Consumption Value (Leonidou, Leonidou, Palihawadana, & Hultman, 2011). The Theory of

Reasoned Action (TRA) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975) and the Theory of Planned Behavior(TPB) (Ajzen, 1991), which stems from TRA, are the two most widely used theories in the literature explaining green behaviors. The emphasis of these two theories is on attitudes and subjective norms. Moreover, the Norm-Activation-Model and Value-Belief-Norm theories are the other two most widely applied theories to discuss green behaviors (Stern, Dietz, Abel, Guagnano, & Kalof, 1999). Cotte and Trudel(2009) in a systematic review synthesizing 30 year of research on sustainable consumption developed a model to explain the influencing factors of socially conscious consumerism.

A model of Socially Conscious Consumerism

In an extensive review of socially conscious consumerism, Cotte and Trudel (2009) developed a model to explain the process of socially conscious consumerism (Figure 1). There are several different factors that influence the process at the individual level, including demographics, peer influence and government policy. An individual may also take into consideration a company's CSR initiatives in the purchase intention (i.e. willingness to pay a premium or willingness to punish). As highlighted in red in Figure 1 below, this study focuses on two components of Cotte and Trudel's larger framework — one at the input level (i.e. demographics) and the other at the output level (i.e. intention to punish or reward companies for their CSR actions). There are many factors involved in consumer behavior and; demographic is one of those that in the scope of this study we focus on.

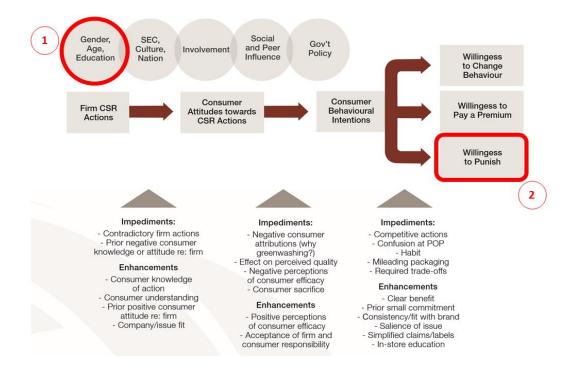


Figure 1. A model of socially conscious consumerism

Source: (Cotte & Trudel, 2009)

An overview of demographic influences on purchase intention

There are many investigations that are dedicated to finding the relation between various demographic variables such as age, location and gender, and green behaviors. For example, one recent study has reported that sustainable behaviors are more common in older individuals; the study suggests that this can be explained by their greater resources and more environmental knowledge than younger ones (Royne, et al., 2016). Moreover, Royne et al. (2016) report that Asian Americans demonstrate more sustainable behavior; this might be because of the cultural influences of family in contrast with the individualism roots in American culture. Besides, in North American and European countries, engagement in environmentally friendly behavior are expressed greater in women than men (Bord & O'Connor, 1997; Stern, Dietz, & Kalof, 1993; Zelezny, Chua, & Aldrich, 2000; Hunter, 2004; McCright, 2010; McCright & Sundström, 2013). However, some studies (Diamantopoulos,

Schlegelmilch, Sinkovics, & Bohlen, 2003; Straughan & Roberts, 1999) claim that since there other important factors affecting purchase intentions, demographics alone can not define eco-sensitive consumers. Roberts (1996) found that, in identifying environmentally conscious consumers, demographics are not as important as other variables such behavior behavioral and related attitudes and personal attitudes.

Research in the area of marketing and sustainability, e.g. studies related to socially conscious consumerism, ethical consumerism, environmentally responsible environmentally responsible products and services, has grown exponentially over the past decade (Cotte & Trudel, 2009; Gunn, 2013). Gunn(2013) in a systematic review from 1993 to 2013, showed that numerous studies have been conducted on consumers' attitudes towards and willingness to pay for green products or services (Carrigan, Moraes, & Leek, 2011; Jansson, Marell, & Nordlund, 2010; Leonidou, Leonidou, & Kvasova, 2010; Oliver & Lee, 2010; Valentine & Bateman, 2011). Likewise, studies on ethical consumerism and socially conscious consumerism have been reviewed by Cotte & Trudel (2009). The vast majority of the empirical studies in this area involve taking a snapshot in time, often of a particular segment. Market research and analytics organizations such as GlobeScan, Environics Analytics and Sustainalytics have seen an important opportunity to produce focused research on a variety of issues related to business, consumers and sustainability; most of the market research reports are not open to public and they are designed for specific clients. However, there are some reports publicly accessible that exemplify the importance of sustainability to market research industry such as, Greendex survey, provided by GlobeScan and Nantional Geography related to consumer choice and the environment, and GSS Sustainability Leaders Reports, provided by GlobeScan.

Research Overview

In a study dedicated to identifying the literature on the role of demographics in profiling green consumers Diamantopoulos et al. (2003) revealed a number of problems with sample procedures of previous studies; narrow samples and geographically restricted samples were among those identified problems. However, through a recent partnership with the University of Waterloo, GlobeScan has provided raw data for this study from 2007 to 2013 on the results of survey research conducted with consumers in 18 countries.

The purpose of this study is therefore to explore trends and change's over time in people's views towards companies' green and socially responsible initiatives. Specifically, this study looks at two questions from the Globescan Radar survey:

- 1) Over the past year, have you considered <u>rewarding</u> a socially responsible company by either buying their products or speaking positively about the company to others? [emphasis added]
- 2) In the past year, have you considered **punishing** a company you see as not socially responsible by either refusing to buy their products or speaking critically about the company to others? [emphasis added]

Research objectives and contributions

This study is dedicated to present a comprehensive picture of the impacts of demographic factors on peoples' views towards their propensity to punish or reward companies for their actions related to CSR. In order to achieve this goal, five demographic factors have been selected: age, gender, education, income, and country. Understanding the relationship between punishing or rewarding and demographic factors is the objective of this study. As data for 18 countries from 2007 to 2013 is analyzed, the findings of this research provide a

comprehensive picture of people's view and changes in their view overtime about green

brands and products. Policy makers, academic researchers, market researchers, and

businesses can be benefited from the findings of the current study.

This study accesses a deep pool of market research data, the likes of which rarely make it into

the academic literature. Most studies that look at the relationships between demographic

data and socially conscious consumerism focus on one point in time in one geographical area;

the current study having data from 2007 to 2013 in 18 countries provides a comprehensive

picture of trends overtime. The number of respondents involved in this study (approximately

76,000) present a unique opportunity to present results with a high degree of statistical

confidence. As the influence of consumers on various markets and businesses is increasing, it

is crucial to brands and companies to address consumers' needs, wants, and preferences

properly. The current research provides a set of influential factors on consumers' purchase

decisions than can be useful for marketers and businesses.

Thesis structure

This thesis is presented in five chapters:

Chapter One – Introduction: Background information is provided in this chapter.

Chapter Two - Literature Review: Academic literature and previous studies related to the

subject of the current research are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter Three – Research Methods: The methodology of this research is described in this

chapter including data collection, data analysis, and limitations.

Chapter Four – Results: This section presents the results of this research

13

Chapter Five – Discussion, summary, and conclusion This part summarizes the steps and findings of the research.

Chapter 2: Literature review

The emergence of socially conscious consumerism

The integration of ethical issues in the academic literature on marketing and consumption patterns has grown exponentially in the past 20 years. Ethical considerations in businesses emerged in the late 1960's. The green consumption revolution started in the 1970s and was largely encouraged by young to middle-age women with children with higher levels of education than average(Ottman, 2011). This segment of the population desired to save their loved ones from harms and secure them for future(Ottman, 2011). Subsequently, 'green marketing' came into prominence in the late 80's and throughout the 90's (Coleman, Bahnan, Kelkar, & Curry, 2011; D'Souza et al., 2007; Horne, 2009). Rising environmentalism and willingness to purchase products that generate a minimum detrimental impact on the environment in the 1990s is noted in the literature (Ottman, 1992; K. Peattie, 2001; Vandermerwe & Oliff, 1990; Wasik, 1996).

Sustainability is playing a critical role in the world in terms of economic and social development (Crane & Matten, 2004). The rising awareness regarding the role of people and industry to preserve the environment has led to the modification of consumers' behaviors and companies' production ways (Chekima et al., 2016). Many authors have identified that sustainability issue have become important to corporate decision makers (Kiron, Kruschwitz, Haanaes, & Velken, 2012; Lynes & Andrachuk, 2008; Martin & Schouten, 2012; Ottman, 2011).

THE SUSTAINABILITY MOVEMENT NEARS A TIPPING POINT

Some 70% of respondents who say their companies have put sustainability on the management agenda say they have done so in the past six years — and 20% say it's happened in the past two years.

Cumulative Number of Businesses, out of 2618 Total Respondents

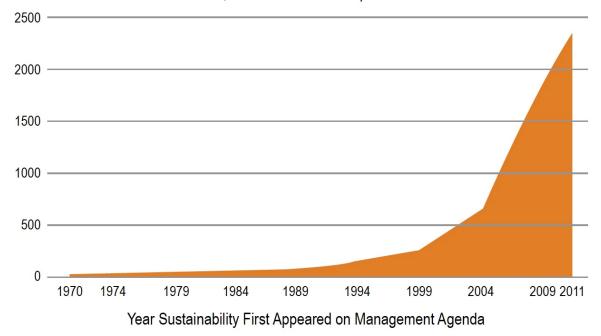


Figure 2 - The sustainability movement

Source: (Kiron et al., 2012, p.69)

They have stated that the reasons for this significance are public sensitivity, stricter regulation, and growing stakeholder pressure focused on environmental preservation (Banerjee, Iyer, & Kashyap, 2003; Hult, 2011; Maignan & Ferrell, 2004). It is also mentioned that many customers have begun to shift their preferences to environmentally friendly products and services (Kotler, 2011; Luchs et al., 2010). It is emphasized by Lubin and Esty (2010) that sustainability is an "emerging megatrend". They argue that most executives respond to sustainability challenges due to competitiveness or survival of their organizations.

In the literature, sustainability is regarded as a vital driver to develop green innovations (Huang, Yang, & Wang, 2014).

Markets for ethically produced goods, with a low environmental footprint continues to grow (N. W. Chan & Kotchen, 2014) and yet environmental and social considerations often are incorporated into marketing strategies as an extra feature to gain competitive advantage (Ginsberg & Bloom, 2004). Nielsen(2014) in an international research on corporate social responsibility, surveyed around 30,000 consumers in 60 countries; the findings indicted that 55% of respondents were willing to pay more for socially and environmentally friendly products and more than half of respondents stated that they had bought at least one product or service from a socially or environmentally responsible company. Also, in an study on consumer behavior Forbes(2010) reported that more than 88% of consumers expect companies to improve society and the environment while trying to achieve their business goals. Additionally, most of US consumers are socially and environmentally conscious about the food they eat.

Some studies have shown that despite the increasing number of companies implementing green initiatives, there is a resistance from consumers to use products that can reduce carbon footprint(Cherrier,H., Szuba, M. & Ozcaglar-Toulouse, 2012). In most cases, the sustainability attributes of products only matter if other more prominent product features are present and meet consumer expectations (Jagel,T., Keeling, K.Reppel, A., & et al., 2012; Lim, Yong, & Suryadi, 2014).

Today, we can see sustainability as a popular stance amongst businesses and consumers. For example, a study by GlobeScan (2016) revealed that 40 percent of the global public are "aspirational consumers" who care about the brand and its activities in order to take

responsible actions for the world. Environmental and social activities are among those actions. From a business perspective, well-known brands, such as Toyota, Nike, and IKEA are trying to provide corporate social responsibility reports to demonstrate their desire to preserve the environment and solve major social issues(Coleman et al., 2011).

Socially conscious consumer segmentation

Consumers who are more concerned with the environment and social problems are more willing to purchase environmentally and socially friendly products and even pay more for a green product(Laroche, Bergeron, & Forleo, 2001). While the socially and environmentally conscious market segment is growing fast, investigating social influences and factors affecting responsible consumption are becoming more popular (Chang & Chen, 2014). Consumers' demographic, level of income, and buying power have been identified as major factors affecting green purchase intentions and price sensitivity(Rahman & Haque, 2011; Weisstein, Asgari, & Siew, 2014).

Market segmentation based on social and environmental consciousness is highly regarded in the literature. For example, Ginsberg and Bloom(2004) segment consumers into 5 groups based on their tendency to go green: the Greenback Green (6%) and True Blue Green (9%) who really care about the environment and willingly pay a premium for green products, the Spouts(31%) who are concerned with environmental issues but perceive green products as expensive, the Grousers(19%) who have low level of environmental knowledge, the Basic Browns(33%) who are focused on their daily need and are not concerned about the environment. In terms of segmentation based on gender, it is reported by several studies that females are more interested in green behaviors and more intended to purchase green

products (Chekima et al., 2016; Davidson & Freudenburg, 1996; Kalamas, Cleveland, & Laroche, 2014; Rezai, Mohamed, & Shamsudin, 2011; Zelezny, Chua, & Aldrich, 2000).

Differences among people from different countries

One popular aspect of consumer behavior studies is to investigate differences amongst people of various countries. Across countries, the interest in green marketing and societal marketing is different (Auger, Devinney, & Louviere, 2007). For example, it is supposed that in western countries where much of the environmental pollution is made, people are more interested in responsible consumption (M. J. Polonsky, Garma, & Landreth Grau, 2011). In an investigation by Cone (2007), it was claimed that the environment is among top four priorities for American consumers; additionally, 47 percent of respondents reported buying green products. Demographic characteristics and general attitudes have been identified as major predictors of sustainable behaviors (Sheehan & Atkinson, 2012; Stern, 2000).

Some studies state that green marketing research had been extensively conducted in western countries, while minimal research has been done in this field in developing countries (Yadav & Pathak, 2016; Hartmann & Ibanez, 2006; Juwaheer, Pudaruth, & Noyaux, 2012; Konuk, 2015). Further studies can be conducted in developing countries to understand the reasons of green purchase intention (Joshi & Rahman, 2015). Findings of a study by Polonsky et al.(2014) in Asian economies reveals that there is a strong positive relationship between environmental concerns and environmental behaviors. Additionally, the influence of educational background and age on green consumption behavior has been noted in the literature(Lee, 2008; Stern, 2000; Yang, Lu, Zhu, & Su, 2015).

Without considering cultural context, which is defined as the accumulation of shared meaning, rituals, norms and traditions, understanding consumer behavior is not possible.

Economic factors also are important in terms of consumption choices (Solomon, 2016). The economy of countries is also important in terms of consumption decisions. However, Alladi Venkatesh (1995)believed that the interaction between economy and culture is complicated and has been changed overtime. He has explained that in pre-modern era, there was no distinction between economy and culture; in modern era, economy and culture were treated as two seprate concepts; and in postmodern-postindustrial era, culture subsumes economy. All in all, people in different countries have different consumption habits and attitudes.

Demographics

Statistics that gauge observable aspects of a population are demographics; for example, birth rate, age, and income (Solomon, 2016). Due to the use of demographic data in locating, predicting, and segmenting the market for many products from home mortgages to can openers, marketers are interested in changes and trends of demographics (Solomon, 2016). Many authors have reported a meaningful relationship between demographics and environmental behaviors; demographics include age, gender, education level, occupation, income level and family size (Bekhet & Al-alak, 2011; Sang & Bekhet, 2015; Yau, 2012; Yuan & Zuo, 2013; Zhao, Gao, Wu, Wang, & Zhu, 2014). The role of demographics in terms of predicting pro-environmental behaviors was noted in the early studies of the green marketing area(Anderson Jr & Cunningham, 1972; Berkowitz & Lutterman, 1968). Demographics can be used in identifying green consumers and describing green market segments(D'Souza et al., 2007; Royne, Thieme, Levy, Oakley, & Alderson, 2016). Even though there is a strong relationship between demographics and purchasing green products (Makower & Pike, 2008), opposite beliefs exist. According to Straughan & Roberts (1999), although many of past research had notified the importance of demographic factors in terms of environmentalism,

psychographic criteria is a more useful profiling method. Roberts (1996) also found similar results that demographics cannot be the only predictor of environmentally friendly behaviors.

In a study by Panzone et al. (2016), it is confirmed that socio-demographic characteristics are important determinants of actual sustainable consumption. It is also found that education increases environmental concerns and directly influences sustainable consumption. Other demographic measures also are reported to have a predicting role in terms of proenvironmental attitude; however, their direct influence on sustainable consumption was not found by these measures (Panzone et al., 2016).

In the green marketing literature, evidence for both influence and lack of influence of demographics on green behaviors are apparent but they mostly support that demographics are influential. A study summarizing studies from 1970 through 1996 found that age, education, and income are influential in terms of green behaviors (Roberts, 1996). The influence of education, ethnicity, and income on pro-environmental behaviors were reported by an investigation on actual expenditure on organic food (Dettmann & Dimitri, 2009). In addition, Kalantari et al.(2007) stated that environmental attitudes of Iranian consumers were highly influenced by demographic factors, such as age, gender, income, education. Among demographic factors, income emerged as the most influential one. Furthermore, the predicting role of age and education on purchase intentions and frequency of purchasing organic foods were reported by Magnusson et al. (2003).

In contrary, Diamantopoulos et al. (2003) in an extensive research demonstrated that although socio-demographic factors, gender, number of children, education, and social class, can shape environmental attitudes, they have no impact on environmental knowledge and behaviors. He also asserted that without considering all aspects of the environmental

consciousness construct, profiling green consumers accurately is not possible. In another study in India, age, gender, education, and marital status had no impact on environmentally friendly behaviors, while income was identified amongst predictors of these kinds of behaviors(Khare, 2014). Another study among Swiss consumers showed that education, occupational level, employment status, and income are unrelated to sustainable behaviors(Tanner & Kast, 2003).

There are many studies related to identifying the role of demographics in the realm of proenvironmental behaviors. The results of a study by Royne et al. (2016) exposed that men are more involved in energy-related green behaviors than women, while females are more engaged in food-related green behaviors than males. In terms of ethnicity, the results revealed that Asians are more active in energy-related, water-reduction, and other ecofriendly behaviors than other ethnics. Age had a significant impact on green behaviors as well; the findings indicated that as people get older, they are more likely to perform green behaviors. In this research, no significant link was found between education and sustainable behaviors. Moreover, Gilg, Barr, & Ford (2005) reported that environmentalists are more likely to be older, richer, liberal in political thinking, owner-occupiers, and females. Laroche et al. (2001) in a study dedicated to targeting consumers who are willing to pay more for environmentally friendly products discovered that in this segment, consumers are more likely to be female, married, with at least one child at home.

Gender

In many societies, gender differentiation starts at very early age. Pink apparels and toys are designed for girls and blue ones are designed for boys. Almost all footwears have specified types for men or women(Solomon, 2016). There have been many controversial discussions

around gender differentiation and gender abuse in the marketing and advertising world that are out of the scope of this research. Segmenting consumers in the market and positioning products based on gender has been a usual way of marketing(Solomon, 2016). Gender has been identified correlated with environmentally friendly behaviors (Straughan & Roberts, 1999). The impact of gender on each specific pro-environmental behavior might be different. For example, a study by Fisher et al.(2012) indicates that gender is important in terms of using green products and recyclable bags but has no impact on separating trash for recycling and turning off lights while leaving a room.

Many authors believe that females are more intended to purchase green product and more likely to perform environmentally friendly behaviors (Davidson & Freudenburg, 1996; Kalamas et al., 2014; Matthes, Wonneberger, & Schmuck, 2014; Rezai et al., 2011; Zelezny et al., 2000). It is also reported that environmentally conscious actions are observed more in women's behavior than men's (Mainieri, Barnett, Valdero, Unipan, & Oskamp, 1997). Moreover, a review by Fisher et al. (2012) summarizing how demographics impact green purchases from 1998 to 2011 discovered that women are more likely to behave in an environmentally friendly manner. Unexpectedly, Félonneau & Becker (2008) has claimed that expressing more explicit pro-environmental behaviors by women might be due to their tendency to answer desirably when they are questioned about sustainable consumption.

The higher tendency of women to perform environmentally friendly behaviors than men has been noted by many(Anderson & Hansen, 2004; Furlow & Knott, 2009; Laroche et al., 2001). Lee (2009) in a study on young consumers in Hong Kong has examined the influence of gender on environmental attitude, environmental concern, perceived seriousness of environmental problems, perceived environmental responsibility, peer influence, self-identity in

environmental protection, and green purchasing behavior. The results indicate that females are more concerned, more influenced by peers, and more responsible than men in terms of environmental issues; men scored higher on self-identity and environmental protection. Furthermore, in an international survey dedicated to identifying gender differences in proenvironmental attitude covering 14 countries, Zelezny et al. (2000) discovered that women are more pro-environment than men in terms of attitude and behavioral pattern. Additionally, the results of a study by Fisher et al.(2012) demonstrates that 16.2 percent of women strongly agreed that they use green products whereas only 7.4 percent of men strongly agreed with this statement.

Although many researchers are admitting females are more intended to perform green behaviors, Davidson & Freudenburg (1996) stated that the influence of gender on environmentalism is not global and can be different from one country to another. In this respect, Diamantopoulos et al. (2003) claimed that there are many studies admitting that men have more environmental knowledge and act accordingly. Moreover, lack of gender's influence on the attitude toward green products amongst undergraduate students in main private universities in Malaysia was reported by Chen & Chai (2010).

Based on the literature review first hypothesis of this study is the following:

 H_1 : There is a relationship between the gender of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility.

Income

People who approximately have equal levels of income tend to have similar taste in music, clothing, leisure activities, and other habits(Solomon, 2016). Obviously, there are other factors involved in their habits, but income is one of the important ones that marketers are

interested in because it determines consumers' purchasing power and potential markets (Solomon, 2016). Income has been identified as an important predictor of green behaviors by many researchers (Kalantari et al., 2007; Yam-Tang & Chan, 1998). However, there are some studies that identified age and gender as more important variables than income in predicting green behaviors (Do Paco & Raposo, 2009; K. Lee, 2008; K. Lee, 2009; Mostafa, 2007). The International Institute for Sustainable Development (2006) reported that income has a positive relationship with performing environmentally friendly behaviors. This statement was supported by the results of a study by Fisher et al. (2012); the more consumers earn, the more they are likely to perform green behaviors. Besides, another study suggested that high-income people are more intended to express favorable attitudes verbally about eco-labels, but the study did not found gender influential in this regard (D'Souza, Taghian, & Lamb, 2006).

Based on the literature review second hypothesis of this study is the following:

 H_2 : There is a relationship between the income level of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility.

Age

We can find a set of shared value among consumers of an age group, although they can be different in many other ways. For example, we all know that teens might be attracted to some products that their parents have no interest in (Solomon, 2016). Robert(1996) reviewing the literature, clarified that previous studies had found various results about the impact of age on green behaviors; some studies reported that environmentally friendly behaviors are more common amongst younger people; others did not find green behaviors related to age differences(Roberts, 1996). However, the results of his own research using a nationwide survey in the US exposed the impact of age on ecologically conscious behaviors; it showed

that older people are more likely to exhibit such behaviors. Additionally, age was found significantly correlated with ecologically conscious behaviors among college students in a study by Straughan & Roberts (1999). Another research in the same year on Canadian and Hong Kong female supermarket customers found younger consumers are more likely to purchase green products (Chan, 1996). Nevertheless, a recent study finds that although young consumers are more concerned about the environment, performing green behaviors are more common among older consumers (Panzone et al., 2016).

Another study focusing on Portuguese consumers identified three clusters in terms of segmenting consumers based on their concerns about the environment. The green activists consumers, the most concerned group, were most between 25-34 and 45-54 (Do Paco & Raposo, 2009). Moreover, consumers over 55 years of age were identified as the most prolific users of environmentally friendly products in the US by a countrywide survey (ICOM Information & Communication, 2008). Within this group, women between 55-59 year-old were more than twice as likely to buy green as the average consumers. The likeliness of buying green product among males from 65 to 69 was more than 1.7 times more than the average Americans.

Based on the literature review third hypothesis of this study is the following:

 H_3 : There is a relationship between the age of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility.

Marital status and number of children

Due to the effect of family structure on consumers' spending priorities, marital status and the number of children are important demographics variables (Solomon, 2016). Moreover, other factors might be involved; parents who are seeking healthier options for their children

can be a good example of the impact of family structure on purchase decisions(Solomon, 2016). The influence of marital status and number of children has been extensively studied in the literature(Fisher et al., 2012; Laroche et al., 2001; Loureiro, McCluskey, & Mittelhammer, 2002). According to Laroche et al. (2001), married consumers are more likely to show environmentally friendly behaviors; however, Fisher et al.(2012) reported that marital status has no meaningful link to green behaviors except using recycle bags. It is found that people with children are more likely to consider the environment in their behaviors(Fisher et al., 2012). In another study by Loureirro et al (2002) women with children under the age of 18 were the most willing to pay more for environmentally friendly apples; the study was conducted at two grocery stores in Portland, Oregon area. Moreover, Laroche et al. (2001) suggested that there was a positive relationship between the number children and the exhibition of environmentally friendly behaviors; in contrary, Fisher et al.(2012) concluded that there is no signification relationship between the number of children and green behaviors.

Although family size including marital status and number of children has been discussed as an influential factor on consumers' attitudes and intentions, in the current study, due to lack of enough information, this factor is not analyzed.

Education

The majority of studies dedicated to identifying the role of education in predicting green behaviors reported that higher education raises awareness about sustainability issues (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003) and motivates to performing environmentally friendly consumer behavior (Schwartz & Miller, 1991; Yuan & Zuo, 2013). It is also noted that because highly educated people are better informed, they have higher desire to protect the

environment (Torgler & Garcia-Valiñas, 2007). In a study, Paco et al. (2009) in a study demonstrated that people with the highest level of concerns about the environment were those with the highest level of education. However, no significant relationship was found between the level of education and green behaviors except the positive relationship between the level of education and using recycle bags(Fisher et al., 2012).

In China a study showed that people with higher education have more knowledge about environmental issues, are more concerned about the environment and are more intended to purchase green products(Zhao et al., 2014). Chan (1996) in a study of buying behavior of Canadian and Hong Kong consumers found a positive relationship between the level of consumers' education and their willingness to purchase green products. Roberts(1996) also found similar results. Another study examining green consumerism motivational drivers revealed that educational level and gender have a significant moderation effect on green purchase intentions; the study also suggested highly educated individuals and female consumers are more intended to purchase green products (Chekima et al., 2016). Moreover, some studies demonstrated that majority of green restaurants' customers are those with high levels of education(Hu, Parsa, & Self, 2010; Jeong, Jang, Day, & Ha, 2014). Additionally, Zsoka et al.(2013) found that university students have more knowledge about environmental issues and are aware of the need for change in consumers' behaviors compared with school students. Another study in California discovered that individuals with a college degree are more likely to use electrical/hybrid vehicles(Brownstone, Bunch, & Train, 2000).

Based on the literature review forth hypothesis of this study is the following:

 H_4 : There is a relationship between the education level of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility.

Country

The current study having access to a comprehensive database is aiming at exploring the impact of respondents' countries on their intentions to either reward or punish a company based on its social responsibility. As discussed earlier in this chapter, with considering the context, understanding consumer behavior is not possible(Solomon, 2016). People from different countries might have shared consumption behaviors, therefore, the fifth hypothesis of this study is the following:

 H_5 : There is a relationship between the country of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility.

Year

There are numerous factors involved in consumer decision making that can be changed overtime. For example, in 2008, there was a global economic down turn that might impact on consumers' choices. Moreover, Lenski (2013) believes that technology and it changes overtime is crucial to understand and define society. It is also stated that time might be the most important factor in terms of consumer behavior(Nicosia & Mayer, 1976).

In this study, having access to data of for years, we aim to measure this factor; therefore, our sixth hypothesis is developed as follow:

 H_6 : There is a relationship between the year in which survey was conducted and respondents' propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility.

Table 1 summarizes the findings from the literature regarding demographics.

Table 1. An overview of the literature related to the effect of demographics on environmental behavior

Gender		
There is a relationship	There is no relationship	It depends
 Kalamas, Cleveland, & Laroche, 2014; Minieri, Barnett, Valdero, Unipan, & Oskamp, 1997; Matthes, Wonneberger, & Schmuck, 2014; Straughan & Roberts, 1999; Zelezny, Chua, & Aldrich, 2000 	 Chen & Chai, 2010; D'Souza, Taghian, & Lamb, 2006. 	 Davidson & Freudenburg, 1996; Félonneau & Becker, 2008; Fisher, Bashyal, & Bachman, 2012; Khare, 2014; Lee, 2009; Royne et al., 2016
Income		
There is a relationship	There is no relationship	It depends
 Kalantari et al., 2007; Yam-Tang & Chan, 1998; The International Institute for Sustainable Development 2006; Fisher et al. 2012 	• Diamantopoulos et al. 2003	 Do Paco & Raposo, 2009; Lee, 2009; Mostafa, 2007; Otto, Neaman, Richards, & Marió, 2016
Age		
There is a relationship	There is no relationship	It depends
 Roberts, 1996; Panzone et al., 2016; Magnusson et al. 2003; Royne et al. 2016; Straughan & Roberts 1999 	Diamantopoulos et al. 2003	 Chan, 1996; ICOM Information & Communication, 2008.
Education		
There is a relationship	There is no relationship	It depends
 Schwartz & Miller, 1991; Yuan & Zuo, 2013; Zhao et al., 2014; Roberts 1996; Panzone et al., 2016; Magnusson et al. 2003; Chan 1996; Brownstone et al., 2000; Chekima et al. 2016; Dettmann & Dimitri, 2009 	 Fisher et al 2012; Diamantopoulos et al. 2003 	 Paco et al. 2009 Torgler & Garcia-Valiñas, 2007.

Country

- Without considering cultural context, understanding consumer behavior is not possible. Economic factors also are important in terms of consumption choices (Solomon, 2016).
- Alladi Venkatesh (1995) contends that the interaction between economy and culture is complicated and has changed over time.
- Studies Should be conducted in developing countries to understand the reasons of green purchase intention (Yadav & Pathak, 2016; Hartmann & Ibanez, 2006; Juwaheer, Pudaruth, & Noyaux, 2012; Konuk, 2015; Joshi & Rahman, 2015).

Vear

Numerous factors are involved in consumer decision making can change over time (e.g economic recessions, etc). Nicosia & Mayer (1976) contend that time might be the most important factor in terms of consumer behavior

Chapter 3 – Research Methods

Research Approach

The objective of the research approach used in this study was to analyze a very large sample size of data to determine: a) if/how demographic factors influence the degree to which an individual feels the need to punish or reward companies on their perceived social responsibility, and b) if there have been fluctuations or changes over time with respect to the aforementioned variables, and c) how these empirical trends compare to the literature on this topic.

The current research uses a quantitative method to analyze the collected data. Like other quantitative methods, this research sees data through a positivist view. Since we want to find out if there I any relationship between categorical variables, chi-square test using SPSS software is used. subsequently, for understanding the direction of the identified relationships, ordinal regression is performed. Moreover, the literature review of this study focuses on discussing socially and environmentally responsible consumption, and the influence of demographics. As follows, the process of data collection and analysis is explained.

Data collection

The data used in this study was provided by GlobeScan, a reputable international market-research company. For the past two decades GlobeScan has been tracking societal views and expectations of business through an annual survey that is conducted in an average of 25 countries per year. This current study uses a part of GlobScan's Radar database including respondents' demographics and views toward punishing or rewarding a company based on its social responsibility. Relationships between demographic variables such as, age,

education, gender, income and country were tested against the following two survey questions:

- 1. Over the past year, have you considered <u>rewarding</u> a socially responsible company by either buying their products or speaking positively about the company to others?
- 2. In the past year, have you considered **punishing** a company you see as not socially responsible by either refusing to buy their products or speaking critically about the company to others? [emphasis added]

For both questions, respondents had three options to choose from:

- Not considered doing this
- Considered this, but did not actually do it
- You have actually done this in the past year

Further information about categorizing and coding the analyzed variables are provided in table 2:

Table 2. The categories of analyzed factors

Variable	Categories				
Gender	1=Male, 2=Female				
Income	1=Very low, 2=Low, 3=Average, 4=High, 5=Very high				
Age	1=Less than 18 years, 2=18 to 24, 3=25 to 34, 4=35 to 44, 5=45 to 54, 6=55 to 64, 7=65+				
Education	1=No formal education, 2=Some Elementary School, 3=Elementary School completed, 4=Some High School, 5=High School Completed, 6=Some College/University, 7=Completed university or equivalent/University degree/Diploma, 8=Post graduate degree				
Country	1=Australia, 2=Brazil, 3=Canada, 4=Chile, 5=China, 6=France, 7=Germany, 8=Greece, 9=India, 10=Indonesia, 11=Kenya, 12=Mexico, 13=Nigeria, 14=Peru, 15=Russia, 16=South Korea, 17=UK, 18=USA				
Year	7= 2007, 9=2009, 11=2011, 13=2013				

Beginning in 1999, GlobeScan has conducted annual surveys on a representative sample of approximately 1,000 adults in each of the countries. Among these samples, the respondents

had answered the demographic questions as well as the two questions related to rewarding/punishing companies on their social responsibility. Data was collected by GlobeScan each year by face-to-face surveys in developing nations and over the telephone in industrialized countries. Raw data sets for the surveys results were provided by GlobeScan for all of the years in which the Radar survey has been conducted. Some anomalies in the data were noted including year-to-year variations in the countries that are surveyed as well as in the types of questions that are asked. After going through all of the data it was found that there were 4 years of data that could be analyzed in terms of the questions that were the focus on this study (2007, 2009, 2011, and 2013). Likewise, the countries in which surveys results were available for at least three years included the following: Australia, Brazil, Canada, Chile, China, France, Germany, Greece, India, Indonesia, Kenya, Mexico, Nigeria, Peru, Russia, South Korea, UK, USA. In some years, data for more countries than those listed above is available. In the below map (Figure 3) we can see the countries surveyed by GlobeScan. The details about the number of analyzed cases in this study for each country and year are provided in appendix A. The total amount of analyzed responses in this research is 76,023². Respondents in each year and country were asked whether they have considered or done punishing or rewarding a company based on the perceived level of social responsibility.

² The number for each variable varied depending on the valid number of cases.

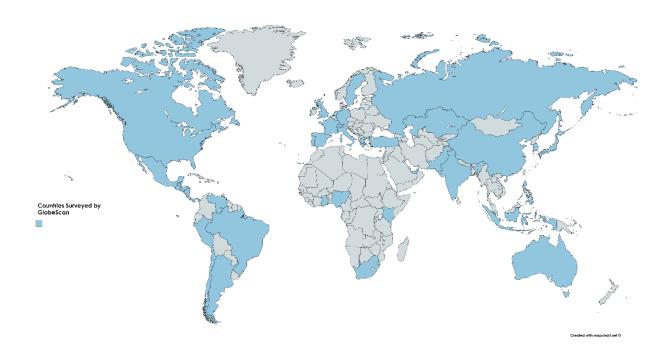


Figure 3 - Countries that were surveyed as part of the GlobeScan Radar database

Data Analysis

The data provided by GlobeScan was categorized for each year separately. As there were some differences from year-to-year in how the demographics questions were asked, not all factors could be tested for all countries and years in which the survey was completed. Therefore, inconsistent information was cleared; also, in order to perform statistical tests and comparing the impact of the years and countries in which surveys were conducted, all of the data were combined in one SPSS file (The details about the number of valid and missing cases are provided in table 2).

Table 3. An overview of the number of valid and missing cases

	Statistics									
								D5.		
				D1.	D2.	D3.	D4.	Population	Countr	
		Rewarding	Punishing	Gender	Income	Age	Education	density	у	Year
N	Valid	62726	69248	76023	66292	75678	75556	76023	76023	76023
	Missing	13297	6775	0	9731	345	467	0	0	0

SPSS was used as the main tool to conduct the data analysis. Specifically, within SPSS, chi square test of independence was the primary mode of analysis that was used to determine whether there was a relationship between the independent and dependent variables. This type of test was selected because chi-squared tests are particularly useful in determining relationships between categorical variables (Greenwood & Nikulin, 1996). A chi square test was calculated for each demographic factor and consumers' propensity for rewarding or punishing companies based on their social responsibility (Figure 4 provides an overview of the independent and dependent variables that were analyzed). Additionally, using ordinal regression, the direction of the association between participants' propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility and the year of survey and the country of participants, were tested.

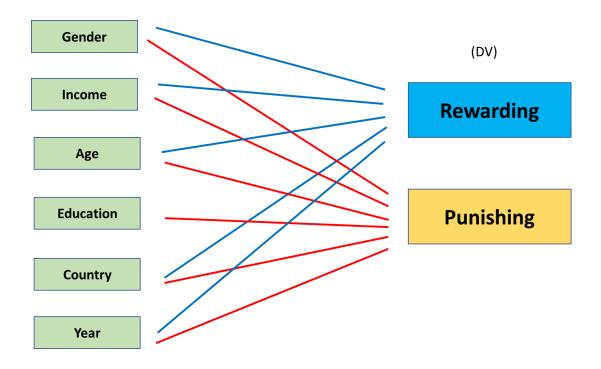


Figure 4. Independent variables (IV) and dependent variables (DV) used in this research the method of the research

Limitations

Broadly, there are both pros and cons in conducting quantitative research. Critics argue that quantitative methods ignore the fact that respondents might interpret same survey item differently. Although there are some tests to measure the accuracy, critics state that the meaning does not get enough attention, thus producing a disjuncture between research and real life (Bryman, 2015). Furthermore, quantitative research assumes an objectivist ontology. Some argue that quantitative methods assume that social reality exists independently of individual will or consciousness.

Beyond some of the above challenges of relying on quantitative date, there are some specific limitations for this study that should be considered. As the data for each year was collected separately, categorizing the responses and finding the relationship between variables has some limitations. Some data was not able to be used because of these inconsistencies from

year to year. The point that might limit the current research is that number of responses per country might not be a specific proportion of those countries' population.

Chapter 4 – Results

Introduction

This chapter is dedicated to the results of this research which demonstrate whether there is a relationship between respondents' propensity for punishing or rewarding companies based on social responsibility, and other variables such as gender, income, age, and education and, the country and year in which surveys were conducted.

Figures 5 and 6 show the percentage of respondents who have: 1) not considered punishing or rewarding, 2) considered but did not actually done rewarding or punishing, or 3) done rewarding or punishing companies based on social responsibility. The tables for each country are provided in appendix B.

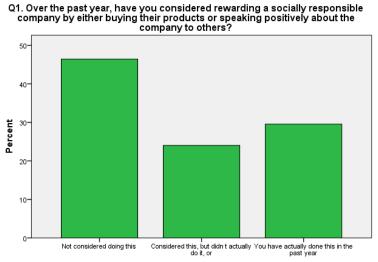


Figure 5. The consideration of rewarding a socially responsible company



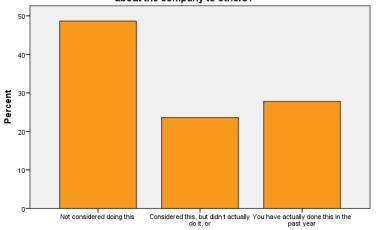


Figure 6. The consideration of punishing a socially responsible company

Descriptive statistics

The following tables presents the descriptive statistics including frequencies for each dependant and independent variable (Table 4 to 12 and Figure 7 to 12).

Table 4. Descriptive statistics including Std. Deviation, Variance, and number of valid and missing cases

				Statis	tics				
		Q1. Over the past	Q2. In the past						
		year, have you	year, have you						
		considered	considered						
		rewarding a	punishing a						
		socially	company you see						
		responsible	as not socially						
		company by either	responsible by						
		buying their	either refusing to						
		products or	buy their products						
		speaking	or speaking						
		positively about	critically about the						
		the company to	company to						
-		others?	others?	D1 . Gender	D2. Income	D3. Age	D4. Education	Country	Year
N	Valid	62726	69248	76023	66292	75678	75556	76023	76023
	Missing	13297	6775	0	9731	345	467	0	0
Std. De	eviation	.855	.849	.500	1.211	1.592	1.600	5.11975	2.255
Variand	ce	.731	.720	.250	1.467	2.535	2.561	26.212	5.084

Table 5. Dependant Variable 1 (Rewarding) frequencies

Q1. Over the past year, have you considered rewarding a socially responsible company by either buying their products or speaking positively about the company to others?

			_		Cumulative
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Percent
Valid	Not considered doing this	29120	38.3	46.4	46.4
	Considered this, but didn t actually do it, or	15071	19.8	24.0	70.5
	You have actually done this in the past year	18535	24.4	29.5	100.0
	Total	62726	82.5	100.0	
Missing	DK/NA	3054	4.0		
	System	10243	13.5		
	Total	13297	17.5		
Total		76023	100.0		

Table 6. Dependant Variable 2 (punishing) frequencies

Q2. In the past year, have you considered punishing a company you see as not socially responsible by either refusing to buy their products or speaking critically about the company to others?

					Cumulative
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Percent
Valid	Not considered doing this	33695	44.3	48.7	48.7
	Considered this, but didn t actually do it, or	16338	21.5	23.6	72.3
	You have actually done this in the past year	19215	25.3	27.7	100.0
	Total	69248	91.1	100.0	
Missing	DK/NA	4151	5.5		
	System	2624	3.5		
	Total	6775	8.9		
Total		76023	100.0		

Table 7. Independent variable 1 (gender) frequencies

D1 . Gender							
					Cumulative		
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Percent		
Valid	Male	37845	49.8	49.8	49.8		
	Female	38178	50.2	50.2	100.0		
	Total	76023	100.0	100.0			

Figure 7. Independent variable 1 (gender) frequencies

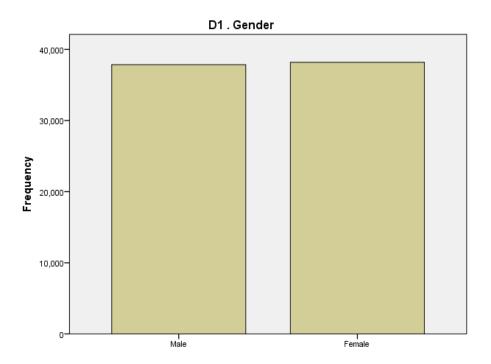


Table 8. Independent variable 2 (income) frequencies

D2. Income Cumulative Valid Percent Percent Percent Valid Very low 11069 14.6 16.7 16.7 15344 20.2 23.1 39.8 Average 20787 71.2 27.3 31.4 High 12253 18.5 89.7 16.1 Very high 9.0 10.3 100.0 Total 87.2 100.0 66292 Missing DK/NA 9731 12.8

Figure 8. Independent variable 2 (income) frequencies

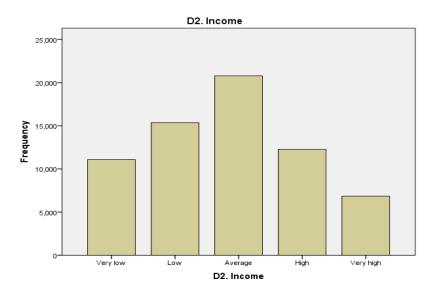


Table 9. Independent variable 3 (age) frequencies

D3. Age								
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent			
Valid	Less than 18 years	440	.6	.6	.6			
	18 to 24	10860	14.3	14.4	14.9			
	25 to 34	17037	22.4	22.5	37.4			
	35 to 44	15603	20.5	20.6	58.1			
	45 to 54	13110	17.2	17.3	75.4			
	55 to 64	9692	12.7	12.8	88.2			
	65+	8936	11.8	11.8	100.0			
	Total	75678	99.5	100.0				
Missing	DK/NA	345	.5					
Total		76023	100.0					

Figure 9. Independent variable 3 (age) frequencies

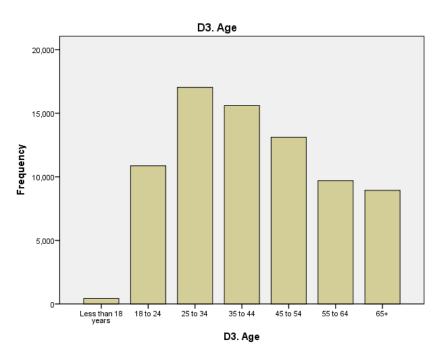


Table 10. Independent variable 4 (education) frequencies

D4. Education Cumulative Valid Percent Percent Frequency Percent Valid No formal education/cannot 1707 2.2 2.3 2.3 read or write 2922 3.8 3.9 6.1 Some of elementary school Completed elementary school 6027 7.9 8.0 14.1 Some of High/Secondary 10096 13.3 13.4 27.5 Completed High/Secondary 34.9 62.4 School Some of college university 8460 11.2 73.6 Completed university or 15934 21.0 21.1 94.7 equivalent/Univ deg/Diploma Post Graduate Degree 4041 5.3 5.3 100.0 75556 99.4 100.0 Missing DK/NA 467 .6

76023

100.0

Figure 10. Independent variable 4 (education) frequencies

Total

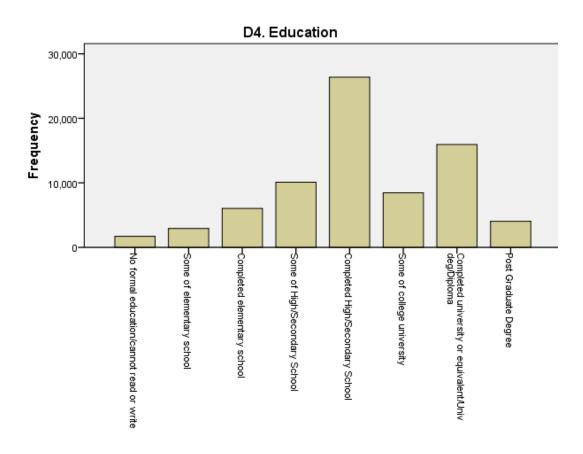


Table 11. Independent variable 5 (country) frequencies

	Country							
					Cumulative			
-		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Percent			
Valid	Australia	3607	4.7	4.7	4.7			
	Brazil	3204	4.2	4.2	9.0			
	Canada	4913	6.5	6.5	15.4			
	Chile	4400	5.8	5.8	21.2			
	China	4800	6.3	6.3	27.5			
	France	3813	5.0	5.0	32.5			
	Germany	4034	5.3	5.3	37.8			
	Greece	4000	5.3	5.3	43.1			
	India	6239	8.2	8.2	51.3			
	Indonesia	4000	5.3	5.3	56.6			
	Kenya	4002	5.3	5.3	61.8			
	Mexico	3800	5.0	5.0	66.8			
	Nigeria	3800	5.0	5.0	71.8			
	Peru	4329	5.7	5.7	77.5			
	Russia	4031	5.3	5.3	82.8			
	South Korea	4032	5.3	5.3	88.1			
	UK	5001	6.6	6.6	94.7			
	USA	4018	5.3	5.3	100.0			
	Total	76023	100.0	100.0				

Figure 11. Independent variable 5 (country) frequencies

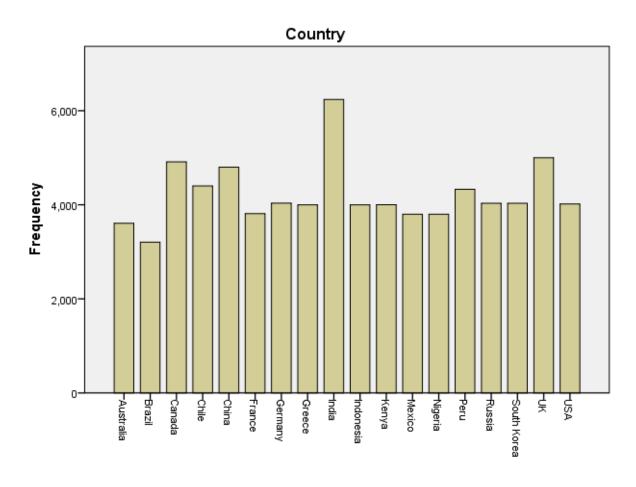
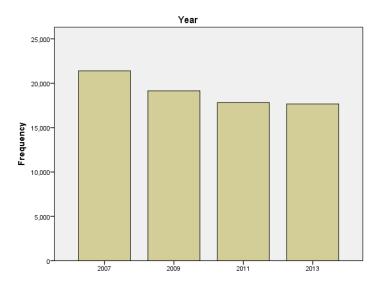


Table 12. Independent variable 6 (year) frequencies

Year								
					Cumulative			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Percent			
Valid	2007	21401	28.2	28.2	28.2			
	2009	19143	25.2	25.2	53.3			
	2011	17814	23.4	23.4	76.8			
	2013	17665	23.2	23.2	100.0			
	Total	76023	100.0	100.0				

Figure 12. Independent variable 6 (year) frequencies



Relationship between demographic variables and respondents' propensity to punish or reward a company

Gender

A chi square test of independence (Table 13) was calculated to understand whether there is an association between the **gender** of participants and their propensity for **rewarding** a company based on its social responsibility. A significant relationship emerged, $\chi^2(2) = 6.94$, p=0.031. Cramer's V (Table 14) showed the relationship as being very weak, Cramer's V=0.011.

Table 13. Chi square between gender and rewarding

Chi-Square Tests

	-		Asymptotic Significance (2-
	Value	df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.947 ^a	2	.031
Likelihood Ratio	6.947	2	.031
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.242	1	.039
N of Valid Cases	62726		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7435.79.

Table 14. Cramer's V, gender and rewarding

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.011	.031
	Cramer's V	.011	.031
N of Valid Cases		62726	

A chi square test of independence (Table 15) was calculated to understand whether there is an association between the **gender** of participants and their propensity for **punishing** a company based on its social responsibility. A significant relationship emerged, $\chi^2(2) = 21.041$, p=0.000. Cramer's V (Table 16) showed the relationship is very weak, Cramer's V=0.017.

Table 15. Chi square, gender and punishing

Chi-Square Tests

			Asymptotic
			Significance (2-
	Value	Df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	21.041 ^a	2	.000
Likelihood Ratio	21.042	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	16.699	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	69248		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8073.45.

Table 16. Cramer's V, gender and punishing

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.017	.000
	Cramer's V	.017	.000
N of Valid Cases		69248	

Income

A chi square test of independence (Table 17) was calculated to understand whether there is an association between the **income** level of participants and their propensity for **rewarding** a company based on its social responsibility. A significant relationship emerged, $\chi^2(8) = 503.338$, p=0.000. Cramer's V (Table 18) showed the relationship is very weak, Cramer's V=0.068.

Table 17. Chi square, income and rewarding

•	. .		
			Asymptotic
			Significance (2-
	Value	Df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	503.338a	8	.000
Likelihood Ratio	495.746	8	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	377.949	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	54655		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1411.06.

Table 18. Cramer's V, income and rewarding

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.096	.000
	Cramer's V	.068	.000
N of Valid Cases		54655	

A chi square test of independence (Table 19) was calculated to understand whether there is an association between the **income** level of participants and their propensity for **punishing** a company based on its social responsibility. A significant relationship emerged, $\chi^2(8)$ =1170.624, p=0.000. Cramer's V (Table 20) showed the relationship is very weak, Cramer's V=0.099.

Table 19. Chi square, income and punishing

Chi-Square Tests

			Asymptotic
			Significance (2-
	Value	Df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1170.624 ^a	8	.000
Likelihood Ratio	1137.517	8	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	968.639	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	60184		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1524.61.

Table 20. Cramer's V, income and punishing

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.139	.000
	Cramer's V	.099	.000
N of Valid Cases		60184	

Age

A chi square test of independence (Table 21) was calculated to understand whether there is an association between the **age** of participants and their propensity for **rewarding** a company based on its social responsibility. A significant relationship emerged, $\chi^2(12) = 217.854$, p=0.000. Cramer's V (Table 22) showed the relationship is very weak, Cramer's V=0.042.

Table 21. Chi square, age and rewarding

Chi-Square Tests

			Asymptotic
			Significance (2-
	Value	Df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	217.854 ^a	12	.000
Likelihood Ratio	220.967	12	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	12.453	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	62399		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 93.87.

Table 22. Cramer's V, age and rewarding

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.059	.000
	Cramer's V	.042	.000
N of Valid Cases		62399	

A chi square test of independence (Table 23) was calculated to understand whether there is an association between the **age** of participants and their propensity for **punishing** a company based on its social responsibility. A significant relationship emerged, $\chi^2(12)$ =384.665, p=0.000. Cramer's V (Table 24) showed the relationship is very weak, Cramer's V=0.053.

Table 23. Chi square, age and punishing

Chi-Square Tests

			Asymptotic Significance (2-
	Value	Df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	384.665ª	12	.000
Likelihood Ratio	388.828	12	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	164.237	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	68924		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 101.06.

Table 24. Cramer's V, age and punishing

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.075	.000
	Cramer's V	.053	.000
N of Valid Cases		68924	

Education

A chi square test of independence (table 25) was calculated to understand whether there is an association between the **education** level of participants and their propensity for **rewarding** a company based on its social responsibility. A significant relationship emerged, $\chi^2(14)$ =2205.579, p=0.000. Cramer's V (Table 26) showed the relationship is very weak, Cramer's V=0.133.

Table 25. Chi square, education and rewarding

	-		Asymptotic
			Significance (2-
	Value	Df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2205.579a	14	.000
Likelihood Ratio	2191.754	14	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	1838.485	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	62352		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 303.97.

Table 26. Cramer's V, education and rewarding

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.188	.000
	Cramer's V	.133	.000
N of Valid Cases		62352	

A chi square test of independence (Table 27) was calculated to understand whether there is an association between the **education** level of participants and their propensity for **punishing** a company based on its social responsibility. A significant relationship emerged, $\chi^2(14)$ =3151.711, p=0.000. Cramer's V (Table 28) showed the relationship is weak, Cramer's V=0.151.

Table 27. Chi square, education and punishing

	-		Asymptotic
			Significance (2-
	Value	Df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3151.711a	14	.000
Likelihood Ratio	3160.817	14	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	2771.893	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	68839		

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 311.96.

Table 28. Cramer's V, education and punishing

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.214	.000
	Cramer's V	.151	.000
N of Valid Cases		68839	

Country

A chi square test of independence (Table 29) was calculated to understand whether there is an association between the **country** of participants and their propensity for **rewarding** a company based on its social responsibility. A significant relationship emerged, $\chi^2(34)$ =9160.154, p=0.000. Cramer's V (Table 30) showed the relationship is moderately strong, Cramer's V=0. 270.

Table 29. Chi square, country and rewarding

	-		Asymptotic
			Significance (2-
	Value	Df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9160.154 ^a	34	.000
Likelihood Ratio	9355.609	34	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	228.569	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	62726		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 655.93.

Table 30. Cramer's V, country and rewarding

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.382	.000
	Cramer's V	.270	.000
N of Valid Cases		62726	

A chi square test of independence (Table 31) was calculated to understand whether there is an association between the **country** of participants and their propensity for **punishing** a company based on its social responsibility. A significant relationship emerged, $\chi^2(34)$ =9961.509, p=0.000. Cramer's V (Table 32) showed the relationship is moderately strong, Cramer's V=0. 268.

Table 31. Chi square, country and punishing

Chi-Square Tests

			Asymptotic
			Significance (2-
	Value	Df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9961.509a	34	.000
Likelihood Ratio	10002.058	34	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.988	1	.320
N of Valid Cases	69248		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 732.34.

Table 32. Cramer's V, country and punishing

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.379	.000
	Cramer's V	.268	.000
N of Valid Cases		69248	

Year

A chi square test of independence (Table 33) was calculated to understand whether there is an association between the **year** of surveys and participants' propensity for **rewarding** a company based on its social responsibility. A significant relationship emerged, $\chi^2(6) = 83.984$, p=0.000. Cramer's V (Table 34) showed the relationship is very weak, Cramer's V=0.026.

Table 33. Chi square, year and rewarding

Chi-Square Tests

	-		Asymptotic
			Significance (2-
	Value	Df	sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	83.984ª	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	84.621	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.158	1	.013
N of Valid Cases	62726		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2262.60.

Table 34. Cramer's V, year and rewarding

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.037	.000
	Cramer's V	.026	.000
N of Valid Cases		62726	

A chi square test of independence (Table 35) was calculated to understand whether there is an association between the **year** of surveys and participants' propensity for **punishing** a company based on its social responsibility. A significant relationship emerged, $\chi^2(6)$ =83.984, p=0.000. Cramer's V (Table 36) showed the relationship is very weak, Cramer's V=0.026.

Table 35. Chi square, year and punishing

Chi-Square Tests

•					
			Asymptotic		
			Significance (2-		
	Value	Df	sided)		
Pearson Chi-Square	712.612a	6	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	712.564	6	.000		
Linear-by-Linear Association	407.791	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases	69248				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3871.22.

Table 36. Cramer's V, year and punishing

Symmetric Measures

			Approximate
		Value	Significance
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.101	.000
	Cramer's V	.072	.000
N of Valid Cases		69248	

Rewarding

Model Fitting Information

The significant chi-square statistic (p=0.000) in the following table (Table 37) indicates that the final model gives a significant improvement over the baseline intercept-only model. This tells us that the model gives better predictions than if we just guessed based on the marginal probabilities for the outcome categories.

Table 37. Model fitting information, rewarding

Model Fitting Information

Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	63292.804			
Final	55783.391	7509.413	38	.000

Link function: Logit.

Pseudo R-Square

What constitutes a "good" R2 (Table 38) value depends upon the nature of the outcome and the explanatory variables. Here, the pseudo R2 values (Nagelkerke = 14.7%) indicates that analyzed factors explain 14.7% of the variation between respondents in terms of rewarding a company based on its social responsibility.

Table 38. R-Square, rewarding

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.129
Nagelkerke	.147
McFadden	.065

Link function: Logit.

Parameter Estimates

This part is dedicated to parameter estimates (Table 39) which explains the change in the response associated with a one-unit change of the predictor, while all other variables being held constant. The results are as follows:

- Females are 6.1% more likely than males to reward a company based on its social responsibility.
- There is a positive relationship between income and respondents' propensity for rewarding a company based on its social responsibility. People with higher level of income are more likely to reward a socially responsible company by either buying their products or speaking positively about the company to others.
- Respondents in the age group of 35 to 44 are the ones with higher propensity for rewarding a company based on its social responsibility. The order of age groups from the one with higher propensity to lower propensity is as follow:
 35 to 44, 45 to 54, 25 to 34, 18 to 24, 55 to 64, 65+, and less than 18 years.
- With one exception, we can see a positive relationship between education and respondents' propensity for rewarding a company based on its social responsibility; however, participants with no formal education/cannot read or write showed a higher tendency to reward a socially responsible company than the ones who completed elementary school and lower tendency than the ones who have some of high/elementary school degrees.
- The results for the impact of country on respondents' propensity for rewarding a company based on its social responsibility is shown in Figure 13.

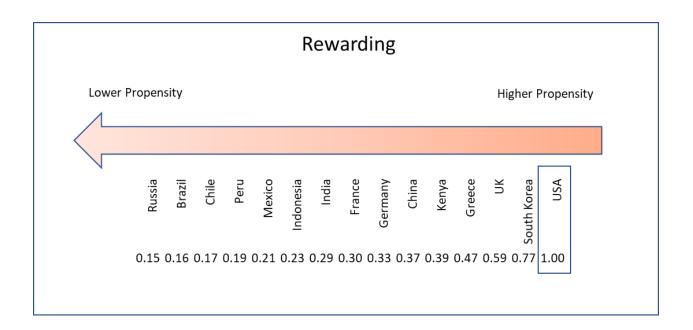


Figure 13. Propensity for rewarding by country

Note1: The odds of respondents from each country rewarding a company based on its social responsibility is compared with the odds of respondents from USA.

Note2: The results for Australia, Canada, and Nigeria was not significant, therefore, they are not included.

 The order of years from the one in which respondents showed higher propensity to reward companies to the one in which they showed lower propensity is as follow: 2011, 2013, 2007, 2009.

Table 39. Parameter estimates, rewarding

Parameter Estimates

								ence Interval
		Estimate	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Threshold	[Q1 = 1]	-1.556	.061	642.740	1	.000	-1.676	-1.436
	[Q1 = 2]	409	.061	44.888	1	.000	528	289
Location	[DDD1=1]	060	.017	12.845	1	.000	093	027
	[DDD1=2]	0 a			0			
	[DDD2=1]	293	.035	68.194	1	.000	362	223
	[DDD2=2]	208	.033	40.846	1	.000	272	144
	[DDD2=3]	185	.030	36.985	1	.000	244	125
	[DDD2=4]	175	.032	29.573	1	.000	238	112
	[DDD2=5]	0ª			0			
	[DDD3=1]	340	.139	5.998	1	.014	613	068
	[DDD3=2]	.124	.036	11.839	1	.001	.054	.19
	[DDD3=3]	.193	.033	34.479	1	.000	.128	.25
	[DDD3=4]	.215	.033	43.631	1	.000	.151	.279
	[DDD3=5]	.209	.033	39.876	1	.000	.144	.27
	[DDD3=6]	.113	.035	10.563	1	.001	.045	.18
	[DDD3=7]	0 a			0			
	[DDD4=1]	520	.071	54.237	1	.000	658	38
	[DDD4=2]	670	.062	118.438	1	.000	791	54
	[DDD4=3]	632	.050	158.607	1	.000	730	53
	[DDD4=4]	485	.045	118.588	1	.000	572	39
	[DDD4=5]	340	.040	72.284	1	.000	418	26
	[DDD4=6]	282	.044	40.839	1	.000	368	19
	[DDD4=7]	162	.040	16.106	1	.000	241	08
	[DDD4=8]	0ª			0			
	[Country1=1.00]	036	.052	.484	1	.487	137	.06
	[Country1=2.00]	-1.850	.060	965.554	1	.000	-1.966	-1.73
	[Country1=3.00]	015	.052	.083	1	.774	117	.08
	[Country1=4.00]	-1.774	.053	1140.401	1	.000	-1.877	-1.67
	[Country1=5.00]	996	.051	388.816	1	.000	-1.095	89
	[Country1=6.00]	-1.208	.052	530.630	1	.000	-1.311	-1.10
	[Country1=7.00]	-1.111	.051	474.717	1	.000	-1.211	-1.01
	[Country1=8.00]	761	.054	201.979	1	.000	866	65
	[Country1=9.00]	-1.230	.050	615.858	1	.000	-1.328	-1.13
	[Country1=10.00]	-1.479	.053	782.012	1	.000	-1.582	-1.37
	[Country1=11.00]	943	.053	316.603	1	.000	-1.047	83
	[Country1=12.00]	-1.546	.052	883.232	1	.000	-1.648	-1.44
	[Country1=13.00]	.010	.052	.037	1	.847	092	.11
	[Country1=14.00]	-1.655	.053	972.280	1	.000	-1.759	-1.55
	[Country1=15.00]	-1.899	.056	1142.478	1	.000	-2.009	-1.78
	[Country1=16.00]	262	.049	28.123	1	.000	359	16
	[Country1=17.00]	535	.049	119.035	1	.000	631	43
	[Country1=18.00]	0ª			0			
	[Year=7]	003	.027	.013	1	.909	056	.04
	[Year=9]	062	.027	5.336	1	.021	115	00
	[Year=11]	.029	.027	1.171	1	.279	024	.08
	[Year=13]	.023	.021	1.171	0	.213	.024	.50.

Link function: Logit.

Note:

Q1= Over the past year, have you considered rewarding a socially responsible company by either buying their products or speaking positively about the company to others?
DDD1= Gender, DDD2= Income, DDD3= Age, DDD4 = Education.

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Punishing

Model Fitting Information

The significant chi-square statistic (p=0.000) in Table 40 indicates that the final model gives a significant improvement over the baseline intercept-only model. This tells us that the model gives better predictions than if we just guessed based on the marginal probabilities for the outcome categories.

Table 40. Model fitting information, punishing

Model Fitting Information

Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	67979.183			
Final	59549.865	8429.318	38	.000

Link function: Logit.

Pseudo R-Square

What constitutes a "good" R2 value (Table 41) depends upon the nature of the outcome and the explanatory variables. Here, the pseudo R2 values (Nagelkerke = 15%) indicates that analyzed factors explain a 15% of the variation between respondents in terms of rewarding a company based on its social responsibility.

Table 41. R-Square, punishing

Pseudo R-Square

Cox and Snell	.131
Nagelkerke	.150
McFadden	.067

Link function: Logit.

Parameter Estimates

This part is dedicated to parameter estimates (Table 42) which explains the change in the response associated with a one-unit change of the predictor, while all other variables being held constant. The results are as follows:

- Males are 4.3% more likely than females to punish a company based on its social responsibility.
- There is a positive relationship between the income level of respondents and their propensity for punishing a company based on its social responsibility. People with higher level of income are more likely to punish a socially responsible company by either buying their products or speaking positively about the company to others.
- Respondents in the age group of 55 to 64 are the ones with higher propensity for punishing a company based on its social responsibility. The order of age groups from the one with higher propensity to lower propensity is as follow:
 55 to 64, 45 to 54, 25 to 34, 35 to 44, 18 to 24, 65+, and less than 18 years.
- With one exception, we can see a positive relationship between education level of respondents and their propensity for punishing a company based on its social responsibility; however, participants with no formal education/cannot read or write showed a higher tendency to punish a socially responsible company than the ones who completed elementary school and lower tendency than the ones who have some of high/elementary school degrees.
- The results for the impact of country on respondents' propensity for punishing a company based on its social responsibility is shown in figure 14.

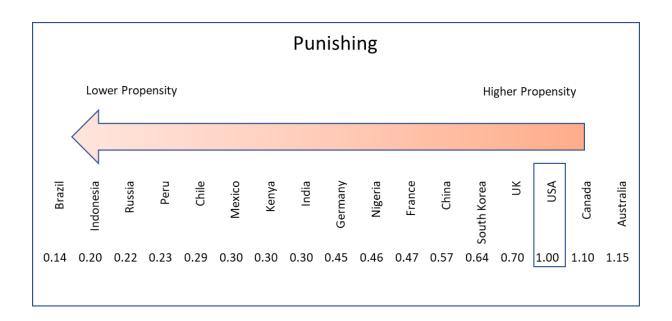


Figure 14. Propensity for punishing by country

Note1: The odds of respondents from each country rewarding a company based on its social responsibility is compared with the odds of respondents from USA.

Note2: The result for Greece was not significant therefore, it is not included in the above table.

 The order of years from the one in which respondents showed higher propensity to punish companies to the one in which they showed lower propensity is as follow: 2007, 2009, 2013, 2011

Table 42. Parameter estimates, punishing

Parameter Estimates

			Param	neter Estima	ates			
							95% Confid	ence Interval
		Estimate	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Threshold	[Q2 = 1]	-1.179	.055	452.235	1	.000	-1.288	-1.070
	[Q2 = 2]	018	.055	.107	1	.743	126	.090
Location	[DDD1=1]	.042	.016	6.709	1	.010	.010	.073
	[DDD1=2]	0 a			0			
	[DDD2=1]	324	.034	90.222	1	.000	391	257
	[DDD2=2]	256	.031	66.982	1	.000	317	195
	[DDD2=3]	230	.029	62.775	1	.000	287	173
	[DDD2=4]	177	.031	33.244	1	.000	238	117
	[DDD2=5]	0 ^a			0			
	[DDD3=1]	524	.138	14.510	1	.000	794	254
	[DDD3=2]	.095	.034	7.649	1	.006	.028	.162
	[DDD3=3]	.149	.031	22.917	1	.000	.088	.209
	[DDD3=4]	.143	.031	21.559	1	.000	.082	.203
	[DDD3=5]	.225	.031	51.862	1	.000	.163	.286
	[DDD3=6]	.235	.033	51.638	1	.000	.171	.299
	[DDD3=7]	0 a			0			
	[DDD4=1]	608	.069	76.722	1	.000	744	472
	[DDD4=2]	816	.060	183.000	1	.000	934	698
	[DDD4=3]	712	.048	221.369	1	.000	806	618
	[DDD4=4]	564	.042	178.910	1	.000	647	482
	[DDD4=5]	385	.037	105.254	1	.000	458	311
	[DDD4=6]	161	.041	15.144	1	.000	242	080
	[DDD4=7]	127	.038	11.340	1	.001	201	053
	[DDD4=8]	0 a			0			
	[Country1=1.00]	.139	.048	8.397	1	.004	.045	.233
	[Country1=2.00]	-1.975	.059	1130.668	1	.000	-2.090	-1.860
	[Country1=3.00]	.097	.048	4.115	1	.042	.003	.191
	[Country1=4.00]	-1.229	.049	625.743	1	.000	-1.325	-1.133
	[Country1=5.00]	560	.047	143.670	1	.000	651	468
	[Country1=6.00]	762	.048	251.867	1	.000	857	668
	[Country1=7.00]	796	.047	283.967	1	.000	888	703
	[Country1=8.00]	017	.050	.108	1	.742	115	.082
	[Country1=9.00]	-1.191	.048	609.817	1	.000	-1.286	-1.097
	[Country1=10.00]	-1.632	.051	1013.337	1	.000	-1.732	-1.531
	[Country1=11.00]	-1.191	.051	545.167	1	.000	-1.291	-1.091
	[Country1=12.00]	-1.220	.049	631.708	1	.000	-1.315	-1.125
	[Country1=13.00]	776	.049	248.229	1	.000	873	679
	[Country1=14.00]	-1.465	.050	871.707	1	.000	-1.563	-1.368
	[Country1=15.00]	-1.515	.052	863.423	1	.000	-1.616	-1.414
	[Country1=16.00]	449	.046	97.075	1	.000	538	359
	[Country1=17.00]	363	.045	63.888	1	.000	453	274
	[Country1=18.00]	0 a			0			
	[Year=7]	.323	.023	201.218	1	.000	.278	.367
	[Year=9]	.239	.023	109.830	1	.000	.194	.283
	[Year=11]	063	.024	7.177	1	.007	109	017
							20	
Link functio	[Year=13]	0ª	.327		0		.103	

Note:

Q2= Over the past year, have you considered punishing a socially responsible company by either buying their products or speaking positively about the company to others?

DDD1= Gender, DDD2= Income, DDD3= Age, DDD4 = Education.

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Chapter 5 – Discussion, summary, and conclusion

Introduction

This study started by discussing consumption and sustainability - and the links between the two. Factors influencing purchase behaviors and intentions also are discussed in the literature review part. Additionally, previous studies discussing the impacts of demographic factors on purchase behaviors are explained.

As mentioned in the second chapter, many demographic characteristics of a population can influence the intention to purchase socially responsible products. Although the impact of some demographic characteristics e.g. education may be clearer; there is not a concrete consensus between researchers regarding the impact of others e.g. age. The fact that these studies were conducted in different countries with a variety of societal and cultural backgrounds could be the reason behind these discrepancies. Moreover, most studies that look at the relationships between demographic data and socially conscious consumerism at one point in time in one geographical area; the current study having data from 2007 to 2013 in 18 countries provides a comprehensive picture of trends overtime. Respondents in each year and country were asked whether they consider punishing or rewarding a company based on the perceived level of social responsibility. In chapter two (Table 1), an overview of the literature related to the effect of demographics on environmental behaviour was presented.

Main findings of the research

Investigating the impact of demographics on consumers' propensity for punishing or rewarding companies based on social responsibility, the findings are as follow:

- There is a relationship between the **gender** of respondents and their propensity for
 rewarding a company based on its social responsibility; however, this relationship is
 very weak. Females are 6.1% more likely than males to reward a company based on
 its social responsibility.
- There is a relationship between the **gender** of respondents and their propensity for
 punishing a company based on its social responsibility; however, this relationship is
 very weak. Males are 4.3% more likely than females to punish a company based on its
 social responsibility.
- There is a positive relationship between the **income** level of respondents and their propensity for **rewarding** a company based on its social responsibility; however, this relationship is very weak. People with higher level of income are more likely to reward a socially responsible company by either buying their products or speaking positively about the company to others.
- There is a positive relationship between the **income** level of respondents and their propensity for **punishing** a company based on its social responsibility; however, this relationship is very weak. People with higher level of income are more likely to punish a socially responsible company by either buying their products or speaking positively about the company to others.
- There is a relationship between the **age** of respondents and their propensity for **rewarding** a company based on its social responsibility; however, this relationship is very weak. Respondents in the age group of 35 to 44 are the ones with higher propensity for rewarding a company based on its social responsibility. The order of age groups from the one with higher propensity to lower propensity is as follow:

 35 to 44, 45 to 54, 25 to 34, 18 to 24, 55 to 64, 65+, and less than 18 years.

- There is a relationship between the **age** of respondents and their propensity for **punishing** a company based on its social responsibility; however, this relationship is very weak. Respondents in the age group of 55 to 64 are the ones with higher propensity for punishing a company based on its social responsibility. The order of age groups from the one with higher propensity to lower propensity is as follow: 55 to 64, 45 to 54, 25 to 34, 35 to 44, 18 to 24, 65+, and less than 18 years.
- There is a relationship between the **education** level of respondents and their propensity for **rewarding** a company based on its social responsibility; however, this relationship is weak. With one exception, we can say this relationship is positive; however, participants with no formal education/cannot read or write showed a higher tendency to reward a socially responsible company than the ones who completed elementary school and lower tendency than the ones who have some of high/elementary school degrees.
- There is a relationship between the **education** level of respondents and their propensity for **punishing** a company based on its social responsibility; however, this relationship is weak. With one exception, we can say this relationship is positive relationship; however, participants with no formal education/cannot read or write showed a higher tendency to punish a socially responsible company than the ones who completed elementary school and lower tendency than the ones who have some of high/elementary school degrees.
- There is a relationship between the country of respondents and their propensity for rewarding a company based on its social responsibility; this relationship is moderately strong. The results for the impact of country on respondents' propensity for rewarding a company based on its social responsibility is shown in figure 15.

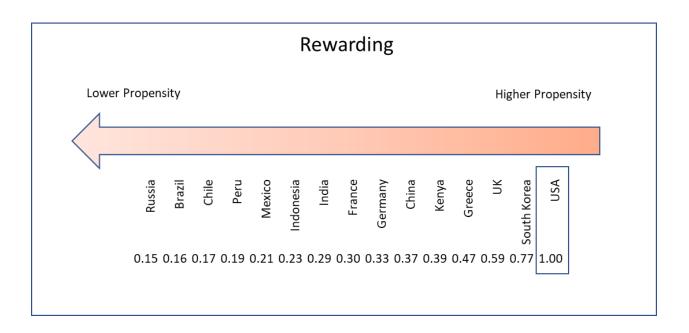


Figure 15, propensity for rewarding by country

Note1: The odds of respondents from each country rewarding a company based on its social responsibility is compared with the odds of respondents from USA.

Note2: The results for Australia, Canada, and Nigeria was not significant, therefore, they are not included.

There is a relationship between the country of respondents and their propensity for
punishing a company based on its social responsibility; this relationship is
moderately strong. The results for the impact of country on respondents' propensity
for punishing a company based on its social responsibility is shown in figure 16.

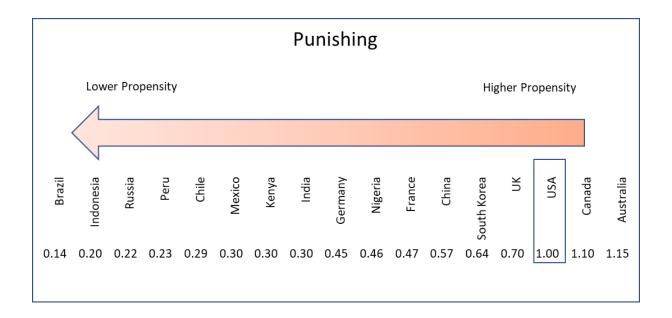


Figure 16, propensity for punishing by country

Note1: The odds of respondents from each country punisging a company based on its social responsibility is compared with the odds of respondents from USA.

Note2: The result for Greece was not significant therefore, it is not included in the above table.

- There is a relationship between the **year** in which surveys were conducted and participants' propensity for **rewarding** a company based on its social responsibility; however, this relationship is very weak. The order of years from the one in which respondents showed higher propensity to reward companies to the one in which they showed lower propensity is as follow: 2011, 2013, 2007, 2009.
- There is a relationship between the **year** in which surveys were conducted and participants' propensity for **punishing** a company based on its social responsibility; however, this relationship is very weak. The order of years from the one in which respondents showed higher propensity to punish companies to the one in which they showed lower propensity is as follow: 2007, 2009, 2013, 2011.

Conclusion

As we discussed in in Chapter 2, many factors are involved in consumer behavior. The findings of this study show that our suggested model (Figure 4) fits the data and demographic factors are associated with consumers' propensity for rewarding or punishing companies; however, this association is weak. Only the factor of country had a moderately strong relationship with consumers' propensity for rewarding or punishing based on social responsibility. According to the model presented in Chapter 1 (Figure 1), demographics are influential in terms of consumer behavior, but there are many other factors involved. The pseudo R2 values (Tables 29 and 32) indicate that analyzed factors explain a relatively small proportion of the variation between respondents in terms of the propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on social responsibility. This is just as we would expect because there are other characteristics and factors that impact on consumer behavior (Figure 1). Therefore, this study suggests that other influential factors in terms of consumers decision making should be investigated. Additionally, although our R^2 shows that the analysis is explain a relatively small proportion of the variation, this does not contradict the fact that there is a statistically significant difference in terms of respondents' propensity for punishing a company based on its social responsibility with different demographics. In the following, the conclusion for each factor is discussed.

Gender

As we found a relationship between gender and respondents' propensity for rewarding and punishing companies based on social responsibility, the results of our study is consistent with numerous studies that have found a relationship between gender and socially conscious consumer behavior (e.g. Kalamas, Cleveland, & Laroche, 2014; Mainieri, Barnett, Valdero, Unipan, & Oskamp, 1997; Matthes, Wonneberger, & Schmuck, 2014; Straughan & Roberts,

1999; Zelezny, Chua, & Aldrich, 2000). However, the identified relationship was weak. Moreover, Fisher et al.(2012) have argued that the impact of gender on each specific proenvironmental behavior might be different. For example, gender is important in terms of using green products and recyclable bags but has no impact on separating trash for recycling and turning off lights while leaving a room. Similarly, our findings showed that the influence of gender on socially responsible behavior can be different for each specific behavior: rewarding and punishing. Our research indicates that males are more likely than females to punish companies base on social responsibility; however, in terms of rewarding, females are more likely than males.

All in all, our H_1 is accepted: There is a relationship between the gender of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility.

Income

The results of this study in terms of finding a relationship between income level of respondents and their propensity for rewarding and punishing companies based on social responsibility was similar to the results of numerous studies that found a relationship between income and environmentally friendly behaviors (e.g. Kalantari et al., 2007; Yam-Tang & Chan, 1998; The International Institute for Sustainable Development 2006; Fisher et al.2012). However, the relationship was found weak. Additionally, our findings indicate the relationship between income and propensity for rewarding and punishing companies for being or not being socially responsible is positive. People with higher level of income are more likely to reward or punish a company based on its social responsibility by either buying their products or speaking positively about the company to others. This finding was similar to ones from the International Institute for Sustainable Development (2006) that reported income has a positive relationship with performing environmentally friendly behaviors. Fisher

et al.(2012) also stated that the more consumers earn, the more they are likely to perform green behaviors.

In conclusion, H_2 is accepted: There is a relationship between the income level of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility.

Age

Numerous studies have found a relationship between age and environmentally friendly behaviors (e.g. Roberts, 1996; Panzone et al., 2016; Magnusson et al. 2003; Royne et al. 2016; Straughan & Roberts 1999). Our research found similar results; there is a relationship between the age of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility; however, this relationship is very weak.

With respect to the direction of the relationship there were various findings in the literature. In terms of performing green behaviors research in the US have shown that older people are more likely than younger ones to exhibit such behaviors (Roberts, 1996; Panzone et al., 2016; Magnusson et al. 2003; Royne et al. 2016). Another study reported that among female customers of supermarkets in Canada and Hong Kong, younger ones are more likely to purchase green products (Chan, 1996) However, in the US, consumers over 55 years of age were identified as the most prolific users of environmentally friendly products (ICOM Information & Communication, 2008). Moreover, within this group, women between 55-59 year-old were more than twice as likely as the average consumers to buy green. Do Paco & Raposo, (2009) showed that the likeliness of buying green product among males from 65 to 69 was more than 1.7 times more than the average Americans. The green activist consumers, the most concerned group, were most between 25-34 and 45-54.

Our research showed that respondents in the age group of 35 to 54 are the ones with higher propensity for rewarding a company based on its social responsibility; and those in the age of less than 18 and more than 65 the ones with lower propensity. The order of age groups from the one with higher propensity to lower propensity is as follow: 35 to 44, 45 to 54, 25 to 34, 18 to 24, 55 to 64, 65+, and less than 18 years. In terms of punishing, respondents in the age of 45 to 64 are the ones with higher propensity for punishing a company based on its social responsibility; and respondents with the age of less than 18 and more than 65 are the ones with lower propensity. The order of age groups from the one with higher propensity to lower propensity is as follow: 55 to 64, 45 to 54, 25 to 34, 35 to 44, 18 to 24, 65+, and less than 18 years.

All in all, H_3 is accepted: There is a relationship between the age of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility.

Education

Numerous studies have found a relationship between education and environmentally friendly behaviors (e.g. Schwartz & Miller, 1991; Yuan & Zuo, 2013; Zhao et al., 2014; Roberts 1996; Panzone et al., 2016; Magnusson et al. 2003; Chan 1996; Brownstone et al., 2000; Chekima et al. 2016; Dettmann & Dimitri, 2009). Similarly, our findings indicate that there is a relationship between education and respondents' propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on social responsibility. However, this relationship was weak.

With one exception, our findings indicate that this relationship is positive; however, participants with no formal education/cannot read or write showed a higher tendency to reward or punish a socially responsible company than the ones who completed elementary school and lower tendency than the ones who have some of high/elementary school degrees. Majority of evidence in the literature were supporting the idea that higher education raises

awareness and concern about sustainability issues (Diamantopoulos et al., 2003; Paco et al. 2009), and motivates to perform environmentally friendly consumer behavior (Schwartz & Miller, 1991; Yuan & Zuo, 2013; Zhao et al., 2014; Roberts 1996; Panzone et al., 2016; Magnusson et al. 2003). It is also noted that because highly educated people are better informed, they have better desire to protect the environment (Torgler & Garcia-Valiñas, 2007). There is a positive relationship between the level of education of consumers and their willingness to purchase green, sustainable or organic products (Chan 1996; Brownstone et al., 2000; Chekima et al., 2016; Dettmann & Dimitri, 2009). Moreover, some studies have demonstrated that majority of green restaurants' customers are those with high levels of education (Hu et al., 2010; Jeong et al., 2014). However, Fisher et al (2012) claimed no meaningful relationship was found between the level of education and green behaviors except the positive relationship between the level of education and using recycle bags.

All in all, H_4 is accepted: There is a relationship between the education level of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility.

Country

Many of the studies in the literature provide a snapshot of the influence of demographics on certain populations at a given point in time, few studies investigate the influence of demographic factors across countries. In the literature, it is reported that across countries, the interest in green consumption and socially responsible consumption is different (Auger et al., 2007). For example, it is supposed that in western countries where much of the environmental pollution is made, people are more interested in responsible consumption (M. J. Polonsky et al., 2011). In an investigation by Cone (2007), it was claimed that the environment is among top four priorities for American consumers; additionally, 47 percent of

respondents reported buying green products. Demographic characteristics and general attitudes have been identified as major predictors of sustainable behaviors (Sheehan & Atkinson, 2012; Stern, 2000). Findings of a study by Polonsky et al.(2014) in Asian economies reveals that there is a strong positive relationship between environmental concerns and environmental behaviors.

The findings of our research showed that the most influential factor in terms of respondents' propensity for rewarding or punishing companies based on social responsibility is country. This relationship was moderately strong. Different cultures, norms, economy and many other factors can be involved in the behavior of consumers from different countries. Our results showed that USA, South Korea, and UK are the countries with higher propensity for rewarding companies based on social responsibility and Russia, Brazil, Chile, and Peru are the ones with lower propensity for rewarding; moreover, Australia, Canada, USA, UK, and South Korea are the countries with higher propensity for punishing companies based on social responsibility, and Brazil, Indonesia, Russia, Peru, and Chile are the ones with lower propensity for punishing. We can conclude that H_5 is accepted: There is a relationship between the country of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility.

Year

There are numerous factors involved in consumer decision making that can be changed overtime. For example, Lenski (2013) believes that technology and it changes overtime is crucial to understand and define society; he argues that more than any other factors, crazes of each period of time can impact on consumption patterns. It is also stated that time might

be the most influential factor of consumer behavior(Nicosia & Mayer, 1976). In this study we found that there is a relationship between the year in which surveys were conducted and participants' propensity for rewarding and punishing a company based on social responsibility; however, the relationship was very weak.

The order of years from the one in which respondents showed higher propensity to reward companies to the one in which they showed lower propensity is as follow: 2011, 2013, 2007, 2009. The order of years from the one in which respondents showed higher propensity to punish companies to the one in which they showed lower propensity is as follow: 2007, 2009, 2013, 2011. As we can see in 2009 and 2007, during global economic downturn, respondents showed low propensity for rewarding but high propensity for punishing; this might be due to the economic condition. We suggest that further studies on the events and global issues in each year is needed to shed light on the changes in consumer behavior.

In conclusion, H_6 is accepted: There is a relationship between the year in which each survey was conducted and respondents' propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility.

Following table (Table 43) summarizes the points from the literature and the findings of this study.

Table 43. Summary of the points from the literature and results

Gender			
Summary of the literature review			Results
There is a relationship	There is no relationship	It depends	
Kalamas, Cleveland, & Laroche, 2014; Minieri, Barnett, Valdero, Unipan, & Oskamp, 1997; Matthes, Wonneberger, & Schmuck, 2014; Straughan & Roberts, 1999; Zelezny, Chua, & Adrich, 2000	Chen & Chai, 2010; Davidson & F D'Souza, Taghian, & Lamb, Félonneau & 2006. Lee, 2009; R	Davidson & Freudenburg, 1996; Félonneau & Becker, 2008; Fisher, Bashyal, & Bachman, 2012; Khare, 2014; Lee, 2009; Royne et al., 2016	There is a relationship between the gender of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility, however, this relationship is very weak. Females are 6.1% more likely to reward a company based on its social responsibility than males; however, males are 4.3% more likely to punish a company based on its social responsibility than females
Income			
Summary of the literature review			Results
There is a relationship	There is no relationship	It depends	
Kalantari et al., 2007; Yam-Tang & Chan, 1998; The International Institute for Sustainable Development 2006; Fisher et al. 2012	Diamantopoulos et al. 2003	Do Paco & Raposo, 2009; Lee, 2009; Mostafa, 2007; Otto, Neaman, Richards, & Marió, 2016	There is a positive relationship between the income level of respondents and their propensity for rewarding and punishing a company based on its social responsibility; however, this relationship is very weak. People with higher level of income are more likely to reward or punishish a socially responsible company by either buying their products or speaking positively about the company to others.
Age			
Summary of the literature review			Results
There is a relationship	There is no relationship	It depends	
Roberts, 1996; Panzone et al., 2016; Magnusson et al. 2003; Royne et al. 2016; Straughan & Roberts 1999	Diamantopoulos et al. 2003	Chan, 1996; ICOM Information & Communication, 2008.	There is a relationship between the age of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility; however, this relationship is very weak. Respondents in the age group of 35 to 44 are the ones with higher propensity for rewarding a company based on its social responsibility. The order of age groups from the one with higher propensity for rewarding to lower propensity is as follow: 35 to 44, 45 to 54, 25 to 64, 65+, and less than 18 years. Respondents in the age group of 55 to 64 are the ones with higher propensity for punishing a company based on its social responsibility. The order of age groups from the one with higher propensity for punishing is as follow: 55 to 64, 45 to 54, 25 to 34, 18 to 24, 65+, and less than 18 years.
Education			
Summary of the literature review			Results
There is a relationship	There is no relationship	It depends	
1; Yuan & Zuo, 2013; rrs 1996; Panzone et al., 2003; Chan 1996; 0; Chekima et al. 2016; 009		Paco et al. 2009; Torgler & Garcia- Valiñas, 2007.	There is a relationship between the education level of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on its social responsibility; however, this relationship is weak. With one exception, we can say, for rewarding this relationship is positive; however, participants with no formal education/cannot read or write showed a higher tendency to reward a socially responsible company than the ones who completed elementary school and lower tendency than the ones who have some of high/elementary school degrees. Moreover, with one exception, we can say this relationship for punishing is positive relationship; however, participants with no formal education/cannot read or write showed a higher tendency to punish a socially responsible company than the ones who completed elementary school and lower tendency than the ones who high/elementary school degrees.
Country			
Summary of the literature review			Results
Without considering cultural context, understanding consumer behavior is not possible.	ınding consumer behavior is omon, 2016).	s not possible. Economic factors also are	There is a relationship between the country of respondents and their propensity for rewarding and punishing a company based on its social responsibility, this relationship is moderately strong. USA, South Korea, and UK are the countries with higher propensity for rewarding companies based on social
 - Alladi Venkatesh (1995) contends that the interaction between economy and culture is complicated and has changed over time. 	raction between economy a	and culture is complicated and has	responsibility and Russia, Brazil, Chile, and Peru are the ones with lower propensity for rewarding. Australia, Canada, USA, UK, and South Korea are the countries with higher propensity for punishing companies based on social responsibility, and Brazil. Indonesia. Russia. Peru, and Chile are the ones with
Journal of British and the conducted in developing countries to understand the reasons of green purchase intention (Yadav & Pathak. 2015; Harmann & Pathak. 2015; Joshi & Rahman.	untries to understand the resheer. Pudaruth. & Novaux	sasons of green purchase intention (Yadav 2012: Konuk. 2015: Joshi & Rahman.	lower properties for purishing.
2015).			
Year			
Summary of the literature review			Results
Numerous factors are involved in consumer decision making can change over time (e.g. economic recessions, etc). Nicosia & Mayer (1976) contend that time might be the most important factor in terms of consumer behavior	ision making can change ow t be the most important fac	er time (e.g economic recessions, etc). tor in terms of consumer behavior	There is a relationship between the year in which surveys were conducted and participants' propensity for rewarding and punishing a company based on its social responsibility, however, this relationship is very weak. The order of years from the one in which they showed higher propensity to reward companies to the one in which they showed lower propensity is as follow: 2011, 2013, 2007, 2009. The order of years from the one in which respondents showed higher propensity to punish companies to the one in which they showed lower propensity is as follow: 2007, 2009, 2013, 2011.

Contributions of the research

This study is useful for policymakers, market researchers, academic researchers, and businesses due to providing a comprehensive picture of consumers' views and their changes over time all around the world. Some of the contributions are as follows: addressing the society's concerns and consumers' preferences, discovering potential markets and pairing actual market research with academic research. While many of these studies provide a snapshot of the influence of demographics on certain populations at a given point in time, few – if any - studies investigate the influence of demographic factors across countries and over time. This research aims to understand the relationship between demographic factors and socially conscious consumption behaviors by looking at data from 18 countries that has been collected by GlobeScan from 2007 to 2013. This research provides a comprehensive picture of the impact of demographic factors on consumers' behavior. Based on the high number of respondents in this study, we are able to assess with a high degree of statistical confidence, the effects of gender, age, income, education, and country on consumers' propensity to actively reward or punish companies based on their perceived level of social responsibility.

Future studies

Understanding the reasons behind consumers decisions has been crucial to marketers and businesses from many years ago. This study using comprehensive data give the marketers, businesses, policymakers, and academia a big picture of global consumers' propensity for rewarding punishing companies based on their social responsibility. The findings of this study showed although demographics are influential, their effect is weak; also, our suggested model explains 15% of the variance. Therefore, we recommend that other factors involved in consumers' decision making be investigated to reach a more comprehensive understanding of consumer behavior. There is another important question to be answered: why consumers purchase green products? To find an answer to this question, we need to investigate factors affecting consumers' intentions to buy. In this regard, a table of identified influential factors in terms of socially conscious behaviors (Table 44) by previous research is provided that can be useful for further investigations on consumer behavior.

The current research show trends from 2007 to 2013 for 18 countries. Using these results, further investigations can be done to find out the reasons behind changes in people's behavior. The results showed that there is moderately strong association between country of respondents and their propensity for rewarding or punishing a company based on their social responsibility. Therefore, we suggest that the future studies focus on the differences among countries. Each year and each country can be exclusively investigated. There could be specific political, economic, cultural or event that caused these changes. Finding the relationship between specific situations and changes in behavior can also help us to predict future possible behaviors.

Table 44. Influential factors of socially conscious behaviors

						ı	denti	fied F	actor	S					
Study	Price Or Related Promotions	Quality Or Products Attributes	Performance	Availability	Frust	Knowledge Or Awareness	Subjective Norms Or Social	Attitude	Perceived Value	Environmental Concerns	Perceived risk	Satisfaction	Beliefs	Personal norms	Environmental effectiveness
(Muposhi & Dhurup, 2016)	х	х	х	х	•										
(Onel, 2016)							Х	Х						Х	
(Velnampy & Achchuthan, 2016)						х		х							х
(Lam, Lau, & Cheung, 2016)					х				х			х			
(Ritter, Borchardt, Vaccaro, Pereira, & Almeida, 2015)						х	x	x							
(J. Wu, Wu, Lee, & Lee, 2015)									х		х				х
(Joshi & Rahman, 2015)	х			х	х	х	х			х					
(Eze & Ndubisi, 2013)	х						Х	Х	Х						
(Carrete, Casta, Felix, Centeno, & González, 2012)	х						x		x		х				
(Y. Chen & Chang, 2012)									х		х				
(Cherian & Jacob, 2012)								х			х				
(Boztepe, 2012)	х		Х			х									
(Smith and Paladinio 2010)						х	х			х					
(Robinson & Smith, 2002)							х	х					х		

References

Achrol, R. S., & Kotler, P. (2012). Frontiers of the marketing paradigm in the third millennium. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 40(1), 35-52. doi:10.1007/s11747-011-0255-4

Ahmad, S. N. B., & Juhdi, N. (2008). Consumer's perception and purchase intentions towards organic food products: Exploring the attitude among malaysian consumers. 16th Annual Conference on Pacific Basin Finance, Economics, Accounting and Management, Brisbane, Australia,

AMA. (2017). Retrieved from https://www.ama.org/resources/Pages/Dictionary.aspx?dLetter=G

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

Anderson, R. C., & Hansen, E. N. (2004). The impact of environmental certification on preferences for wood furniture: A conjoint analysis approach. Forest Products Journal, 54(3), 42.

Armstrong, J. S., Morwitz, V. G., & Kumar, V. (2000). Sales forecasts for existing consumer products and services: Do purchase intentions contribute to accuracy? International Journal of Forecasting, 16(3), 383-397.

Arvola, A., Vassallo, M., Dean, M., Lampila, P., Saba, A., Lähteenmäki, L., & Shepherd, R. (2008). Predicting intentions to purchase organic food: The role of affective and moral attitudes in the theory of planned behavior. Appetite, 50(2-3), 443-454. doi:10.1016/j.appet.2007.09.010

Atkinson, L., & Rosenthal, S. (2014). Signaling the green sell: The influence of eco-label source, argument specificity, and product involvement on consumer trust. Journal of Advertising, 43(1), 33-45. doi:10.1080/00913367.2013.834803

Auger, P., Devinney, T. M., & Louviere, J. J. (2007). Using best-worst scaling methodology to investigate consumer ethical beliefs across countries. Journal of Business Ethics, 70(3), 299-326. doi:10.1007/s10551-006-9112-7

Banerjee, S. B., Iyer, E. S., & Kashyap, R. K. (2003). Corporate environmentalism: Antecedents and influence of industry type. Journal of Marketing, 67(2), 106-122. doi:10.1509/jmkg.67.2.106.18604

Bekhet, H. A., & Al-alak, B. A. (2011). Measuring e-statement quality impact on customer satisfaction and loyalty. International Journal of Electronic Finance, 5(4), 299-315.

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

Bertrandias, L., & Elgaaied-Gambier, L. (2014). Others' environmental concern as a social determinant of green buying. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 31(6-7), 417-429. doi:10.1108/JCM-05-2014-0966

Billon, M., Ezcurra, R., & Lera-Lopez, F. (2009). Spatial effects in website adoption by firms in european regions. Growth and Change, 40(1), 54-84.

Bonini, S. M. J., Hintz, G., & Mendonca, L. T. (2008). Addressing consumer concerns about climate change. McKinsey Quarterly, (2), 52-61.

Boztepe, A. (2012). Green marketing and its impact on consumer buying behavior. European Journal of Economic and Political Studies (5) (1).,

Brownstone, D., Bunch, D. S., & Train, K. (2000). Joint mixed logit models of stated and revealed preferences for alternative-fuel vehicles. Transportation Research Part B: Methodological, 34(5), 315-338.

Bryman, A. (2015). Social research methods Oxford university press.

Carrigan, M., Moraes, C., & Leek, S. (2011). Fostering responsible communities: A community social marketing approach to sustainable living. Journal of Business Ethics, 100(3), 515-534.

Carrington, M., Neville, B., & Whitwell, G. (2010). Why ethical consumers don't walk their talk: Towards a framework for understanding the gap between the ethical purchase intentions and actual buying behavior of ethically minded consumers. Journal of Business Ethics, , 139-158.

Cases, A. -., Fournier, C., Dubois, P., & Tanner, J. F. (2010). Web site spill over to email campaigns: The role of privacy, trust and shoppers' attitudes. Journal of Business Research, 63(9-10), 993-999. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2009.02.028

Chan, N. W., & Kotchen, M. J. (2014). A generalized impure public good and linear characteristics model of green consumption. Resource and Energy Economics, 37, 1-16.

Chan, T. (1996). Concerns for environmental issues and consumer purchase preferences: A two-country study. Journal of International Consumer Marketing, 9(1), 43-55.

Chang, C. -., & Chen, Y. -. (2014). Managing green brand equity: The perspective of perceived risk theory. Quality and Quantity, 48(3), 1753-1768. doi:10.1007/s11135-013-9872-y

Chekima, B. C., Syed Khalid Wafa, S. A. W., Igau, O. A., Chekima, S., & Sondoh, S. L. (2016). Examining green consumerism motivational drivers: Does premium price and demographics matter to green purchasing? Journal of Cleaner Production, 112, 3436-3450. doi:10.1016/j.jclepro.2015.09.102

Chen, T. B., & Chai, L. T. (2010). Attitude towards the environment and green products: Consumers' perspective. Management Science and Engineering, 4(2), 27.

Chen, Y. S. (2013). Towards green loyalty: Driving from green perceived value, green satisfaction, and green trust. Sustainable Development, 21(5), 294-308. doi:10.1002/sd.500

Chen, Y., & Chang, C. (2012). Enhance green purchase intentions: The roles of green perceived value, green perceived risk and green trust. Management Decision, 50(3), , 502-520.

Chen, Y. (2010). The drivers of green brand equity: Green brand image, green satisfaction, and green trust. Journal of Business Ethics, 93(2), 307-319. doi:10.1007/s10551-009-0223-9

Cherian, J., & Jacob, J. (2012). Green marketing: A study of consumers' attitude towards environment friendly products. Asian Social Science, 8(12), 117-126. doi:10.5539/ass.v8n12p117

Cherrier, H., Szuba, M., & Ozcaglar-Toulouse, N. (2012). Barriers to downward carbon emission: Exploring sustainable consumption in the face of the glass floor. Journal of Marketing Management, , 397-419.

Coleman, L. J., Bahnan, N., Kelkar, M., & Curry, N. (2011). Walking the walk: How the theory of reasoned action explains adult and student intentions to go green. Journal of Applied Business Research, 27(3), 107-116.

Cone Communications Millennial CSR study. (2015), Cone Communications.

Cone, L. (2007). Research Report: 2007 Cone Cause Evolution & Environmental Survey,

Connolly, J., McDonagh, P., Polonsky, M., & Prothero, A. (2007). Green marketing and green consumers: Exploring the myths. The international handbook on environmental technology management (pp. 251-268)

Cotte, J., & Trudel, R. (2009). Socially conscious consumerism. (). Network for Business Sustainability.

Courtney, P., & Errington, A. (2000). The role of small towns in the local economy and some implications for development policy. Local Economy, 15(4), 280-301.

Davidson, D. J., & Freudenburg, W. R. (1996). Gender and environmental risk concerns: A review and analysis of available research. Environment and Behavior, 28(3), 302-339.

Davis, J. J. (1994). Consumer response to corporate environmental advertising. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 11(2), 25-37. doi:10.1108/07363769410058902

De Cannière, M. H., De Pelsmacker, P., & Geuens, M. (2009). Relationship quality and the theory of planned behavior models of behavioral intentions and purchase behavior. Journal of Business Research, 62(1), 82-92. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.01.001

De Groot, J. I. M., & Steg, L. (2008). Value orientations to explain beliefs related to environmental significant behavior: How to measure egoistic, altruistic, and biospheric value orientations. Environment and Behavior, 40(3), 330-354. doi:10.1177/0013916506297831

Dettmann, R. L., & Dimitri, C. (2009). Who's buying organic vegetables? demographic characteristics of US consumers. Journal of Food Products Marketing, 16(1), 79-91.

Diamantopoulos, A., Schlegelmilch, B. B., Sinkovics, R. R., & Bohlen, G. M. (2003). Can socio-demographics still play a role in profiling green consumers? A review of the evidence and an empirical investigation. Journal of Business Research, 56(6), 465-480.

Do Paco, A., & Raposo, M. (2009). "Green" segmentation: An application to the portuguese consumer market. Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 27(3), 364-379.

D'Souza, C., Taghian, M., & Khosla, R. (2007). Examination of environmental beliefs and its impact on the influence of price, quality and demographic characteristics with respect to green purchase intention. Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing, 15(2), 69-78.

D'Souza, C., Taghian, M., & Lamb, P. (2006). An empirical study on the influence of environmental labels on consumers. Corporate Communications, 11(2), 162-173. doi:10.1108/13563280610661697

Dyson, P., Farr, A., & Hollis, N. S. (1996). Understanding, measuring, and using brand equity. Journal of Advertising Research, 36(6), 9-21.

Félonneau, M., & Becker, M. (2008). Pro-environmental attitudes and behavior: Revealing perceived social desirability. Revue Internationale De Psychologie Sociale, 21(4), 25-53.

Ferdous, A. S. (2010). Applying the theory of planned behavior to explain marketing managers perspectives. Journal of International Consumer Marketing, , 2010.

Fisher, C., Bashyal, S., & Bachman, B. (2012). Demographic impacts on environmentally friendly purchase behaviors. Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing, 20(3-4), 172-184. doi:10.1057/jt.2012.13

Furlow, N. E., & Knott, C. (2009). Who's reading the label? millennials' use of environmental product labels. The Journal of Applied Business and Economics, 10(3), 1.

Forbes, James Epstein-Reeves. (2010). Consumers overwhelming want CSR.

Gilg, A., Barr, S., & Ford, N. (2005). Green consumption or sustainable lifestyles? identifying the sustainable consumer. Futures, 37(6), 481-504.

Ginsberg, J. M., & Bloom, P. N. (2004). Choosing the right green-marketing strategy. MIT Sloan Management Review 46, 79.

GlobeScan. (2016). Retrieved from http://www.globescan.com/news-and-analysis/press-releases/press-releases-2016/103-press-releases-2016/390-aspirational-consumers-are-rising-are-brands-ready-to-meet-them.html

Green, T., & Peloza, J. (2014). Finding the right shade of green: The effect of advertising appeal type on environmentally friendly consumption. Journal of Advertising, 43(2), 128-141. doi:10.1080/00913367.2013.834805

Greenwood, P. E., & Nikulin, M. S. (1996). A guide to chi-squared testing John Wiley & Sons.

Griskevicius, V., Tybur, J. M., & Van den Bergh, B. (2010). Going green to be seen: Status, reputation, and conspicuous conservation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 98(3), 392-404. doi:10.1037/a0017346

Gunn, J. (2013). Systematic review of the green marketing literature from 1973 to 2013. (Unpublished Masters degree). University of Waterloo,

Hendrickx, L., & Nicolaij, S. (2004). Temporal discounting and environmental risks: The role of ethical and loss-related concerns. Journal of Environmental Psychology, 24(4), 409-422.

Henion, K., & Kinnear, T. (1976). Ecological marketing, american marketing association.

Horne, R. E. (2009). Limits to labels: The role of eco-labels in the assessment of product sustainability and routes to sustainable consumption. International Journal of Consumer Studies, 33(2), 175-182.

Hu, H., Parsa, H., & Self, J. (2010). The dynamics of green restaurant patronage. Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, 51(3), 344-362.

Huang, Y., Yang, M., & Wang, Y. (2014). Effects of green brand on green purchase intention. Marketing Intelligence and Planning, 32(3), 250-268. doi:10.1108/MIP-10-2012-0105

Hult, G. T. M. (2011). Market-focused sustainability: Market orientation plus! Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 39(1), 1-6. doi:10.1007/s11747-010-0223-4

ICOM Information & Communication. (2008). Older demographics biggest users of green products, .

Ikeshoji, M., & Enkawa, T. (2004). A study on the relation between customer satisfaction index and business conditions. Quality-Tokyo-, 34(4), 90-99.

Jagel, T., Keeling, K.Reppel, A., & et al. (2012). Individual values and motivational complexities in ethical clothing consumption: A means-end approach: A means-end approach. Journal of Marketing Management, , 373-396.

Jain, S. K., & Kaur, G. (2004). Green marketing: An indian perspective. Decision (0304-0941), 31(2)

Jamrozy, U. (2007). Marketing of tourism: A paradigm shift toward sustainability. International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research, , 117-130.

Jansson, J., Marell, A., & Nordlund, A. (2010). Green consumer behavior: Determinants of curtailment and eco-innovation adoption. Journal of Consumer Marketing, , 358-370.

Jeong, E., Jang, S. S., Day, J., & Ha, S. (2014). The impact of eco-friendly practices on green image and customer attitudes: An investigation in a café setting. International Journal of Hospitality Management, 41, 10-20.

Johnstone, M. L., & Tan, L. (2015). Exploring the gap between consumers' green rhetoric and purchasing behavior. Journal of Business Ethics, , 311-328.

Jones, P., Hill, C.C., Comfort, D., & al, e. (2008). Marketing and sustainability. Marketing Intelligence And, , 123-130.

Kalafatis, S. P., Pollard, M., East, R., & Tsogas, M. H. (1999). Green marketing and ajzen's theory of planned behavior: A cross-market examination. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 16(5), 441-460. doi:10.1108/07363769910289550

Kalamas, M., Cleveland, M., & Laroche, M. (2014). Pro-environmental behaviors for thee but not for me: Green giants, green gods, and external environmental locus of control. Journal of Business Research, 67(2), 12-22. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2013.03.007

Kalantari, K., Fami, H. S., Asadi, A., & Mohammadi, H. M. (2007). Investigating factors affecting environmental behavior of urban residents: A case study in tehran city-iran. American Journal of Environmental Sciences, 3(2), 67-74.

Kaufmann, H. R., Panni, Mohammad Fateh Ali Khan, & Orphanidou, Y. (2012). Factors affecting consumers'green purchasing behavior: An integrated conceptual framework. Amfiteatru Economic, 14(31), 50.

Khare, A. (2014). Consumers' susceptibility to interpersonal influence as a determining factor of ecologically conscious behavior. Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 32(1), 2-20.

Kim, A. J., & Ko, E. (2012). Do social media marketing activities enhance customer equity? an empirical study of luxury fashion brand. Journal of Business Research, 65(10), 1480-1486.

Kim, Y., & Choi, S. M. (2005). Antecedents of green purchase behavior: An examination of collectivism, environmental concern, and PCE. Advances in Consumer Research, , 592-599.

Kiron, D., Kruschwitz, N., Haanaes, K., & Velken, I. V. S. (2012). Sustainability nears a tipping point. MIT Sloan Management Review, 53(2), 69.

Kotler, P. (2011). Reinventing marketing to manage the environmental imperative. Journal of Marketing, 75(4), 132-135. doi:10.1509/jmkg.75.4.132

Kotler, P., & Armstrong, G. (2016). Principles of marketing. (). Boston: Pearson.

Kronrod, A., Grinstein, A., & Wathieu, L. (2012). Go green! should environmental messages be so assertive? Journal of Marketing, 76(1), 95-102. doi:10.1509/jm.10.0416

Kumar, A., Lee, H., & Kim, Y. (2009). Indian consumers' purchase intention toward a united states versus local brand. Journal of Business Research, 62(5), 521-527.

Lai, C. K., & Cheng, E. W. (2016). Green purchase behavior of undergraduate students in hong kong. The Social Science Journal, , 67-76.

Laroche, M., Bergeron, J., & Barbaro-Forleo, G. (2001). Targeting consumers who are willing to pay more for environmentally friendly products. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 18(6), 503-520. doi:10.1108/EUM000000006155

Laroche, M., Bergeron, J., & Forleo, G. B. (2001). Targeting consumers who are willing to pay more for environmentally friendly products. Journal of Consumer Marketing, , 503-520.

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

Lee, K. (2009). Gender differences in hong kong adolescent consumers' green purchasing behavior. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 26(2), 87-96.

Leonidou, L. C., Leonidou, C. N., & Kvasova, O. (2010). Antecedents and outcomes of consumer environmentally friendly attitudes and behavior. Journal of Marketing Management, 26(13-14), 1319-1344.

Leonidou, C. N., Katsikeas, C. S., & Morgan, N. A. (2013). "Greening" the marketing mix: Do firms do it and does it pay off? Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 41(2), 151-170. doi:10.1007/s11747-012-0317-2

Lenski, G. E. (2013). Power and privilege: A theory of social stratification UNC Press Books.

Lim, W. M. (2016). A blueprint for sustainability marketing: Defining its conceptual boundaries for progress. Marketing Theory, , 232-249.

Lim, W. M., Yong, J. L. S., & Suryadi, K. (2014). Consumers' perceived value and willingness to purchase organic food. Journal of Global Marketing 27(5), , 298-307.

Lin, P., & Huang, Y. (2012). The influence factors on choice behavior regarding green products based on the theory of consumption values. Journal of Cleaner Production, , 11-18.

Loureiro, M. L., McCluskey, J. J., & Mittelhammer, R. C. (2002). Will consumers pay a premium for eco-labeled apples? Journal of Consumer Affairs, 36(2), 203-219.

Lubin, D. A., & Esty, D. C. (2010). The sustainability imperative. Harvard Business Review, 88(5), 42-50.

Luchs, M. G., Naylor, R. W., Irwin, J. R., & Raghunathan, R. (2010). The sustainability liability: Potential negative effects of ethicality on product preference. Journal of Marketing, 74(5), 18-31. doi:10.1509/jmkg.74.5.18

Lynes, J. K., & Andrachuk, M. (2008). Motivations for corporate social and environmental responsibility: A case study of scandinavian airlines. Journal of International Management, 14(4), 377-390.

Magnusson, M. K. (2003). Choice of organic foods is related to perceived consequences for human health and to environmentally friendly behavior. Appetite, , 109-117.

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. doi:10.1177/0092070303258971

Mainieri, T., Barnett, E. G., Valdero, T. R., Unipan, J. B., & Oskamp, S. (1997). Green buying: The influence of environmental concern on consumer behavior. The Journal of Social Psychology, 137(2), 189-204.

Makower, J., & Pike, C. (2008). Strategies for the green economy: Opportunities and challenges in the new world of business McGraw Hill Professional.

Martin, D., & Schouten, J. (2012). Sustainable marketing. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Matthes, J., Wonneberger, A., & Schmuck, D. (2014). Consumers' green involvement and the persuasive effects of emotional versus functional ads. Journal of Business Research, 67(9), 1885-1893. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2013.11.054

McKenzie-Mohr, D. (2011). Fostering sustainable behavior: An introduction to community-based social marketing New society publishers.

McKenzie-Mohr, D., & Schultz, P. W. (2014). Choosing effective behavior change tools. Social Marketing Quarterly, 20(1), 35-46.

Menon, A., & Menon, A. (1997). Enviropreneurial marketing strategy: The emergence of corporate environmentalism as market strategy. Journal of Marketing, 61(1), 51-67.

Metzger, G. E. (2003). Privatization as delegation. Columbia Law Review, 103(6), 1367-1502.

Miller, N. J., & Kean, R. C. (1997). Factors contributing to inshopping behavior in rural trade areas: Implications for local retailers. Journal of Small Business Management, 35(2), 80.

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. Journal of Consumer Affairs, 35(1), 45-72.

Moon, J. (2007). The contribution of corporate social responsibility to sustainable development. Sustainable Development, 15(5), 296-306. doi:10.1002/sd.346

Morgeson, F. V., Mithas, S., Keiningham, T. L., & Aksoy, L. (2011). An investigation of the cross-national determinants of customer satisfaction. Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 39(2), 198-215.

Morsing, M., Schultz, M., & Nielsen, K. U. (2008). The 'Catch 22' of communicating CSR: Findings from a danish study. Journal of Marketing Communications, 14(2), 97-111.

Mostafa, M. M. (2007). A hierarchical analysis of the green consciousness of the egyptian consumer. Psychology & Marketing, 24(5), 445-473.

Mostafa, M. (2009). Shades of green: A psychographic segmentation of the green consumer in kuwait using self-organizing maps. Expert Systems with Applications, , 11030-11038.

Mun, C. C. (2009). A study on consumers' green purchasing intention. Unpublished Thesis Master of Business Administration,

Muposhi, A., & Dhurup, M. (2016). A qualitative inquiry of generation Y consumers' selection attributes in the case of organic products. The International Business & Economics Research Journal (Online), 15(1).

Nicosia, F. M., & Mayer, R. N. (1976). Toward a sociology of consumption. Journal of Consumer Research, 3(2), 65-75.

Nielsen, Global consumers are willing to put their money where their heart is when it comes to goods and services from companies committed to social responsibility. (2014).

Ogikubo, M., Schvaneveldt, S. J., & Enkawa, T. (2009). An empirical study on antecedents of aggregate customer satisfaction: Cross-country findings. Total Quality Management, 20(1), 23-37.

Oliver, J. D., & Lee, S. -. (2010). Hybrid car purchase intentions: A cross-cultural analysis. Journal of Consumer Marketing, 27(2), 96-103. doi:10.1108/07363761011027204

Olssen, M., & Peters, M. A. (2005). Neoliberalism, higher education and the knowledge economy: From the free market to knowledge capitalism. Journal of Education Policy, 20(3), 313-345. doi:10.1080/02680930500108718

Onel, N. (2016). Pro-environmental purchasing behavior of consumers the role of norms. Social Marketing Quarterly, , 1524500416672440.

Ottman, J. (1992). Sometimes consumers will pay more to go green. Marketing News, 26(6), 16.

Ottman, J. (2011). The new rules of green marketing: Strategies, tools, and inspiration for sustainable branding Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Palmer, A. (2012). Introduction to marketing: Theory and practice. 3rd Ed.Oxford: Oxford University Press.,

Panni, M. (2006). The effect of consumerism towards customer attitudinal behavior in food industry in malaysia (unpublished master's thesis). Multimedia University, Melaka, Malaysia,

Panzone, L., Hilton, D., Sale, L., & Cohen, D. (2016). Socio-demographics, implicit attitudes, explicit attitudes, and sustainable consumption in supermarket shopping. Journal of Economic Psychology, 55, 77-95. doi:10.1016/j.joep.2016.02.004

Peattie. (2010). Green consumption: Behavior and norms. Annual Review of Environment and Resources, , 195-228.

Peattie, K., & Charter, M. (2003). Green marketing. The Marketing Book, 5, 726-755.

Peattie, K. (2001). Golden goose or wild goose? the hunt for the green consumer. Business Strategy and the Environment, 10(4), 187-199. doi:10.1002/bse.292

Peattie, K. (2016). Green marketing. The marketing book: Seventh edition (pp. 573-597) doi:10.4324/9781315890005

Peattie, K., & Crane, A. (2005). Green marketing: Legend, myth, farce or prophesy? Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal, 8(4), 357-370. doi:10.1108/13522750510619733

Pellizzoni, L. (2004). Responsibility and environmental governance. Environmental Politics, 13(3), 541-565. doi:10.1080/0964401042000229034

Peloza, J., White, K., & Shang, J. (2013). Good and guilt-free: The role of self-accountability in influencing preferences for products with ethical attributes. Journal of Marketing, 77(1), 104-119. doi:10.1509/jm.11.0454

Pickett-Baker, J., & Ozaki, R. (2008). Pro-environmental products: Marketing influence on consumer purchase decision. Journal of Consumer Marketing, , 281-293.

Pieters, R. G. (1991). Changing garbage disposal patterns of consumers: Motivation, ability, and performance. Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, , 59-76.

Poddar, A., Donthu, N., & Wei, Y. (2009). Web site customer orientations, web site quality, and purchase intentions: The role of web site personality. Journal of Business Research, 62(4), 441-450. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.01.036

Polonsky, M., Kilbourne, W., & Vocino, A. (2014). Relationship between the dominant social paradigm, materialism and environmental behaviors in four asian economies. European Journal of Marketing, 48(3/4), 522-551.

Polonsky, M. J. (1994). Cleaning up green marketing claims: A comparison of regulation in australia and the U.S.A. Journal of Consumer Studies & Home Economics, 18(3), 217-227. doi:10.1111/j.1470-6431.1994.tb00695.x

Polonsky, M. J. (2011). Transformative green marketing: Impediments and opportunities. Journal of Business Research, 64(12), 1311-1319. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2011.01.016

Polonsky, M. J., Garma, R., & Landreth Grau, S. (2011). Western consumers' understanding of carbon offsets and its relationship to behavior. Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics, 23(5), 583-603. doi:10.1108/13555851111183048

Powe, N., & Shaw, T. (2004). Exploring the current and future role of market towns in servicing their hinterlands: A case study of alnwick in the north east of england. Journal of Rural Studies, 20(4), 405-418.

Prescott, M., & Taylor, M. (2008). Every citizen a carbon trader? World Policy Journal, 25(1), 19-28. doi:10.1162/wopj.2008.25.1.19

Prothero, A., McDonagh, P., & Dobscha, S. (2010). Is green the new black? reflections on a green commodity discourse. Journal of Macromarketing, 30(2), 147-159.

Rahman, K. M., & Haque, M. (2011). Exploring price sensitivity of a green brand: A consumers' perspective. World Review of Business Research, 1(2), 84-97.

Ramayah, T., Lee, J. W. C., & Mohamad, O. (2010). Green product purchase intention: Some insights from a developing country. Resources, Conservation and Recycling, 54(12), 1419-1427.

Rashid, Nik Ramli Nik Abdul. (2009). Awareness of eco-label in malaysia's green marketing initiative. International Journal of Business and Management, 4(8), 132.

Rettie, R., Burchell, K., & Riley, D. (2012). Normalising green behaviors: A new approach to sustainability marketing. Journal of Marketing Management 28(3/4), , 420-444.

Rezai, G., Mohamed, Z., & Shamsudin, M. N. (2011). Malaysian consumer's perception towards purchasing organically produces vegetable. Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Business and Economics Research,

Roberts, J. A. (1996). Green consumers in the 1990s: Profile and implications for advertising. Journal of Business Research, 36(3), 217-231. doi:10.1016/0148-2963(95)00150-6

Robinson, R., & Smith, C. (2002). Psychosocial and demographic variables associated with consumer intention to purchase sustainably produced foods as defined by the midwest food alliance. Journal of Nutrition Education and Behavior, 34(6), 316-325.

Royne, M. B., Royne, M. B., Thieme, J., Thieme, J., Levy, M., Levy, M., . . . Alderson, L. (2016). From thinking green to buying green: Consumer motivation makes the difference. Journal of Business Strategy, 37(3), 37-43.

Royne, M. B., Thieme, J., Levy, M., Oakley, J., & Alderson, L. (2016). From thinking green to buying green: Consumer motivation makes the difference. Journal of Business Strategy, 37(3), 37-43. doi:10.1108/JBS-12-2014-0151

Russo, A., Morrone, D., & Calace, D. (2016). The green side of the automotive industry: A consumer-based analysis. Journal of Marketing Development and Competitiveness, , 59.

Sang, Y., & Bekhet, H. A. (2015). Modelling electric vehicle usage intentions: An empirical study in malaysia. Journal of Cleaner Production, 92, 75-83.

Schmeltz, L. (2012). Consumer-oriented CSR communication: Focusing on ability or morality? Corporate Communications: An International Journal, 17(1), 29-49.

Schwartz, J., & Miller, T. (1991). The earth's best friends. American Demographics, 13(2), 26-35.

Sheehan, K., & Atkinson, L. (2012). Special issue on green advertising. revisiting green advertising and the reluctant consumer. Journal of Advertising, , 5-7.

Solomon, M. R. (2016). Consumer behavior buying, having, and being. Boston: Pearson.

Spears, N., & Singh, S. N. (2004). Measuring attitude toward the brand and purchase intentions. Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising, 26(2), 53-66.

Stern, P. C. (2000). Toward a coherent theory of environmentally significant behavior. Journal of Social Issues, 56(3), 407-424.

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.

Tanner, C., & Kast, S. W. (2003). Promoting sustainable consumption: Determinants of green purchases by swiss consumers. Psychology and Marketing, 20(10), 883-902. doi:10.1002/mar.10101

Thogersen, J., & Zhou, Y. (2012). Chinese consumers" adoption of "Green" innovation – the case of organic food. Journal of Marketing Management 28(3/4), , 313-333.

Tilikidou, I., & Delistavrou, A. (2001). Tilikidou, utilisation of selected demographics and psychographics in understanding recycling behavior: A focus on materialism. Greener Management International, 75-94.

Torgler, B., & Garcia-Valiñas, M. A. (2007). The determinants of individuals' attitudes towards preventing environmental damage. Ecological Economics, 63(2), 536-552.

UN. (2015). Retrieved from http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/

Valentine, S. R., & Bateman, C. R. (2011). The impact of ethical ideologies, moral intensity, and social context on sales-based ethical reasoning. Journal of Business Ethics, 102(1), 155-168.

Vandermerwe, S., & Oliff, M. D. (1990). Customers drive corporations. Long Range Planning, 23(6), 10-16. doi:10.1016/0024-6301(90)90096-M

Velnampy, T., & Achchuthan, S. (2016). Green consumerism in sri lankan perspective: An application and extension of theory of planned behavior. Advances in Management and Applied Economics, , 39.

Vermeir, I., & Verbeke, W. (2008). Sustainable food consumption among young adults in belgium: Theory of planned behavior and the role of confidence and values. Ecological Economics, 64(3), 542-553. doi:10.1016/j.ecolecon.2007.03.007

Wasik, J. F. (1996). Green marketing and management: A global perspective Wiley.

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. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2007.05.007

Webster Jr, F. E. (1975). Determining the characteristics of the socially conscious consumer. Journal of Consumer Research, 2(3), 188-196.

Weisstein, F. L., Asgari, M., & Siew, S. -. (2014). Price presentation effects on green purchase intentions. Journal of Product and Brand Management, 23(3), 230-239. doi:10.1108/JPBM-06-2013-0324

White, K., Macdonnell, R., & Dahl, D. W. (2011). It's the mind-set that matters: The role of construal level and message framing in influencing consumer efficacy and conservation behaviors. Journal of Marketing Research, 48(3), 472-485. doi:10.1509/jmkr.48.3.472

White, K., & Simpson, B. (2013). When do (and don't) normative appeals influence sustainable consumer behaviors. Journal of Marketing, 77(2), 78-95. doi:10.1509/jm.11.0278

Wu, J., Wu, C. -., Lee, C. -., & Lee, H. -. (2015). Green purchase intentions: An exploratory study of the taiwanese electric motorcycle market. Journal of Business Research, 68(4), 829-833. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2014.11.036

Wymer, W., & Polonsky, M. J. (2015). The limitations and potentialities of green marketing. Journal of Nonprofit and Public Sector Marketing, 27(3), 239-262. doi:10.1080/10495142.2015.1053341

Yam-Tang, E. P., & Chan, R. Y. (1998). Purchasing behaviors and perceptions of environmentally harmful products. Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 16(6), 356-362.

Yang, D., Lu, Y., Zhu, W., & Su, C. (2015). Going green: How different advertising appeals impact green consumption behavior. Journal of Business Research, 68(12), 2663-2675. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2015.04.004

Yau, Y. (2012). Eco-labels and willingness-to-pay: A hong kong study. Smart and Sustainable Built Environment, 1(3), 277-290.

Yuan, X., & Zuo, J. (2013). A critical assessment of the higher education for sustainable development from students' perspectives - A chinese study. Journal of Cleaner Production, 48, 108-115. doi:10.1016/j.jclepro.2012.10.041

Zelezny, L. C., Chua, P. -., & Aldrich, C. (2000). Elaborating on gender differences in environmentalism. Journal of Social Issues, 56(3), 443-457.

Zhao, H. -., Gao, Q., Wu, Y. -., Wang, Y., & Zhu, X. -. (2014). What affects green consumer behavior in china? A case study from qingdao. Journal of Cleaner Production, 63, 143-151. doi:10.1016/j.jclepro.2013.05.021

Zsóka, Á, Szerényi, Z. M., Széchy, A., & Kocsis, T. (2013). Greening due to environmental education? environmental knowledge, attitudes, consumer behavior and everyday pro-environmental activities of hungarian high school and university students. Journal of Cleaner Production, 48, 128-138. doi:10.1016/j.jclepro.2012.11.030

Appendix A – Analyzed cases for each country and year

		Cour	ntry		
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Australia	3607	4.7	4.7	4.7
	Brazil	3204	4.2	4.2	9.0
	Canada	4913	6.5	6.5	15.4
	Chile	4400	5.8	5.8	21.2
	China	4800	6.3	6.3	27.5
	France	3813	5.0	5.0	32.5
	Germany	4034	5.3	5.3	37.8
	Greece	4000	5.3	5.3	43.1
	India	6239	8.2	8.2	51.3
	Indonesia	4000	5.3	5.3	56.6
	Kenya	4002	5.3	5.3	61.8
	Mexico	3800	5.0	5.0	66.8
	Nigeria	3800	5.0	5.0	71.8
	Peru	4329	5.7	5.7	77.5
	Russia	4031	5.3	5.3	82.8
	South Korea	4032	5.3	5.3	88.1
	UK	5001	6.6	6.6	94.7
	USA	4018	5.3	5.3	100.0
	Total	76023	100.0	100.0	

	Year									
					Cumulative					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Percent					
Valid	2007	21401	28.2	28.2	28.2					
	2009	19143	25.2	25.2	53.3					
	2011	17814	23.4	23.4	76.8					
	2013	17665	23.2	23.2	100.0					
	Total	76023	100.0	100.0						

Appendix B – Rewarding and punishing behaviors for each country

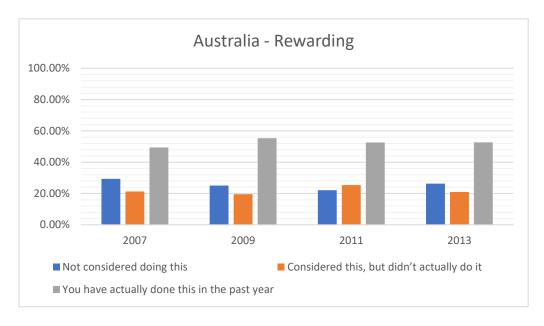


Figure 17 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Australia

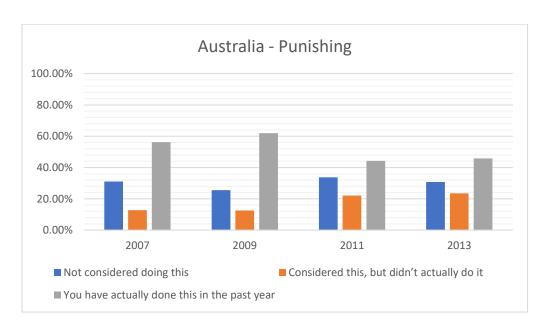


Figure 18 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Australia

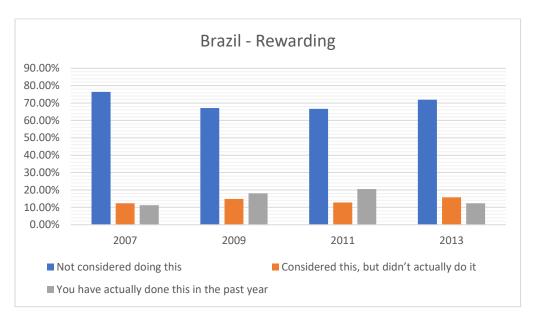


Figure 19 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Brazil

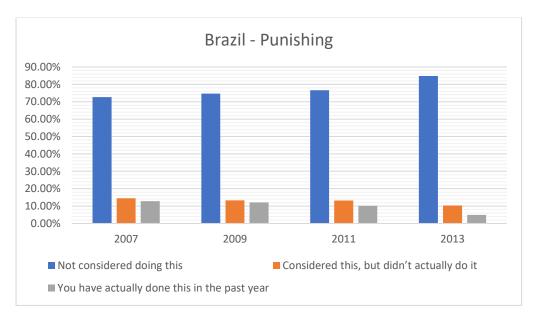


Figure 20 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Brazil

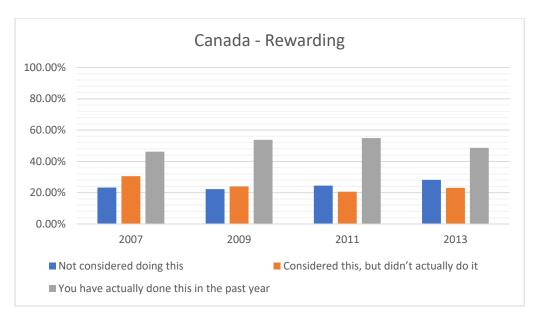


Figure 21 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Canada

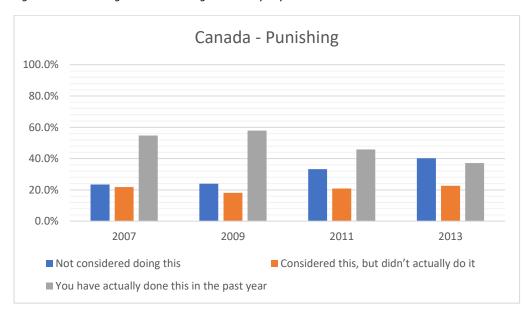


Figure 22 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Canada

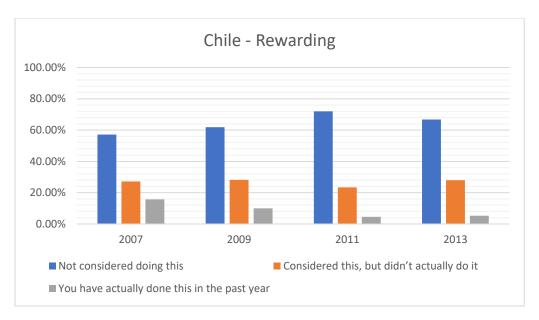


Figure 23 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Chile

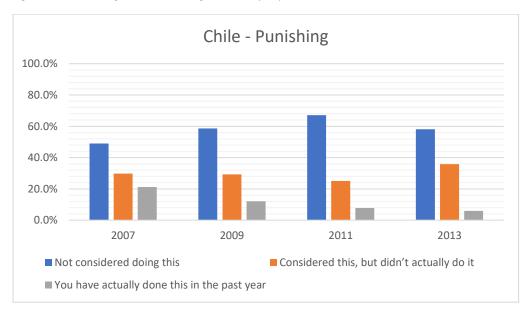


Figure 24 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Chile

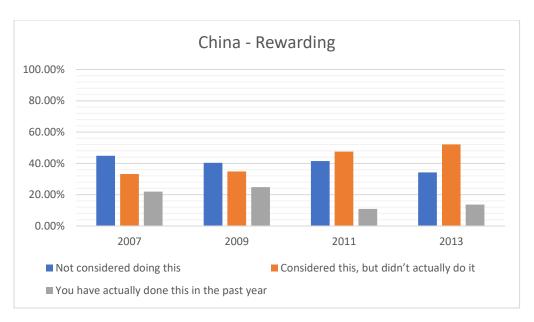


Figure 25 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in China

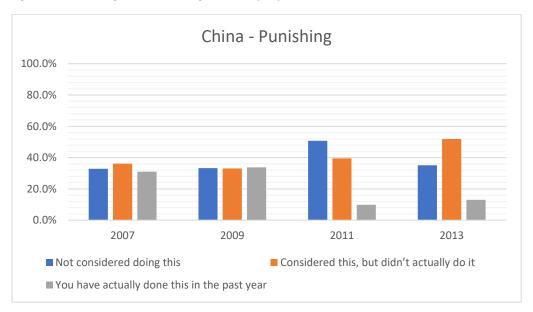


Figure 26 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in in China

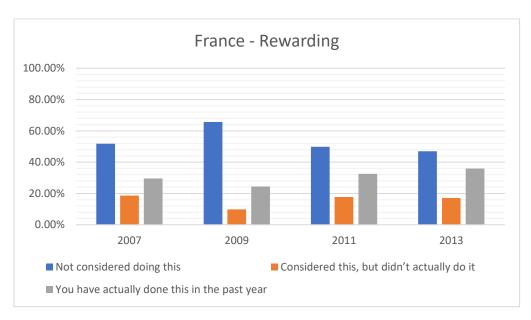


Figure 27 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in France

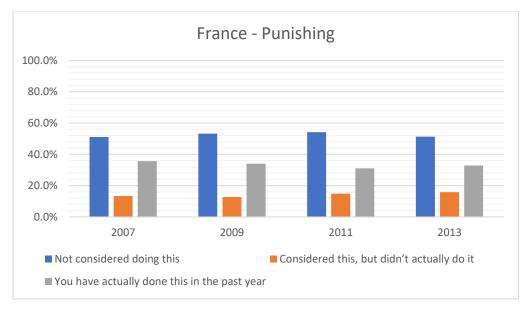


Figure 28 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in France

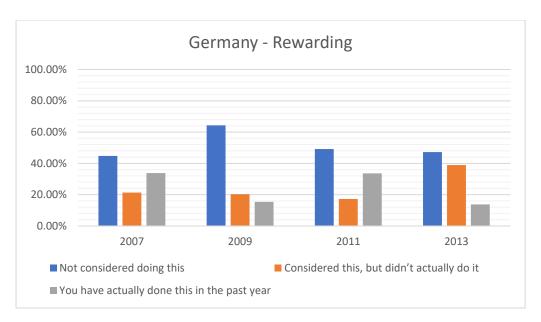


Figure 29 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Germany

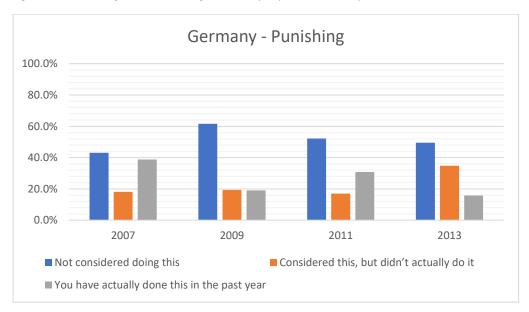


Figure 30 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Germany

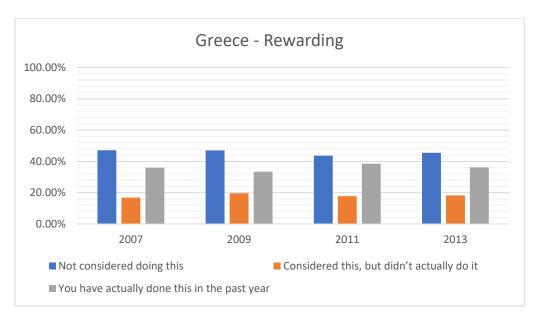


Figure 31 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Greece

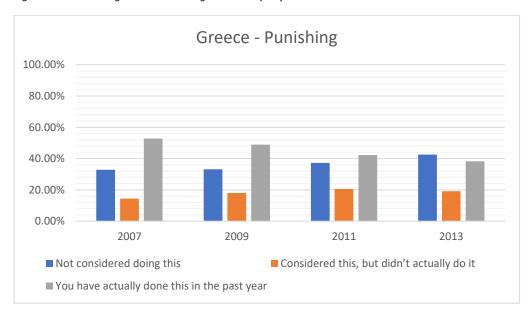


Figure 32 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Greece

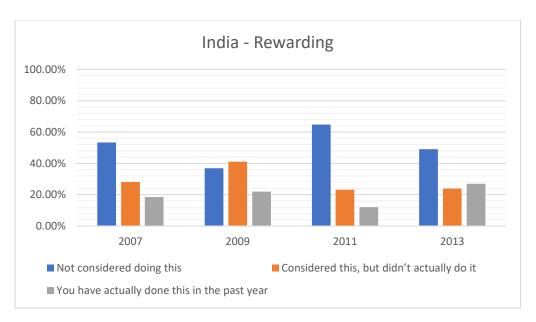


Figure 33 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in India

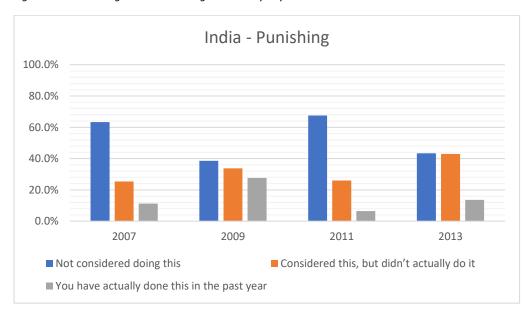


Figure 34 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in India

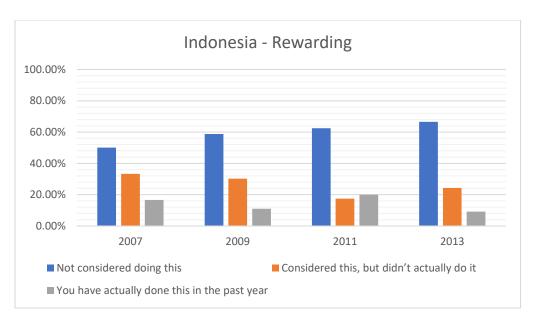


Figure 35 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Indonesia

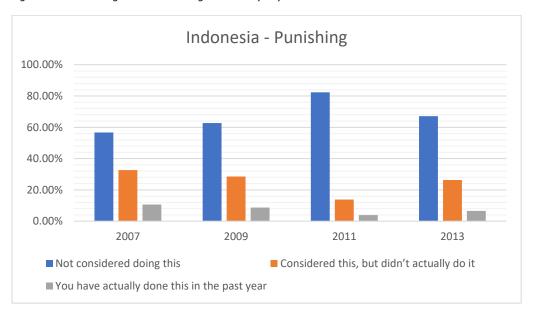


Figure 36 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Indonesia

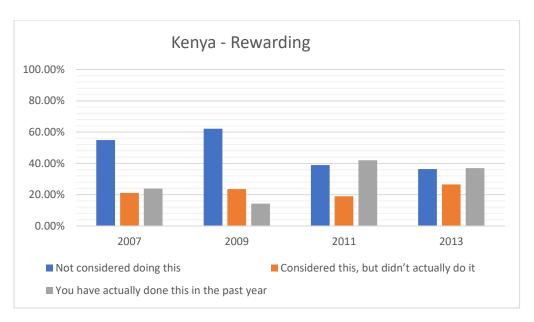


Figure 37 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Kenya

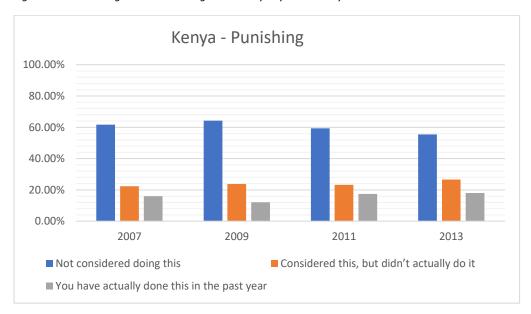


Figure 38 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Kenya

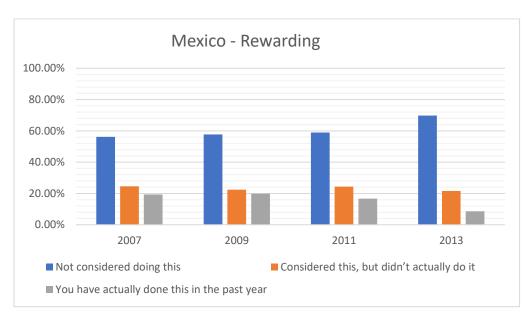


Figure 39 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Mexico

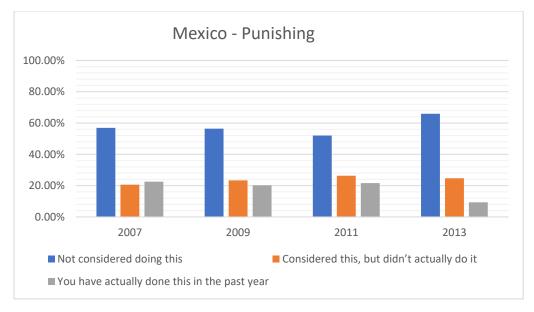


Figure 40 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Mexico



Figure 41 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Nigeria

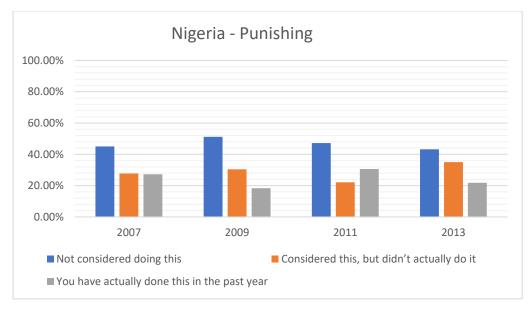


Figure 42 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Nigeria

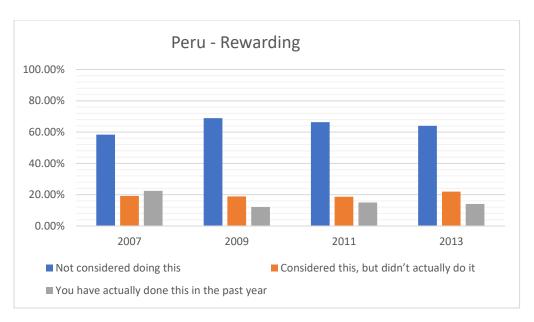


Figure 43 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Peru

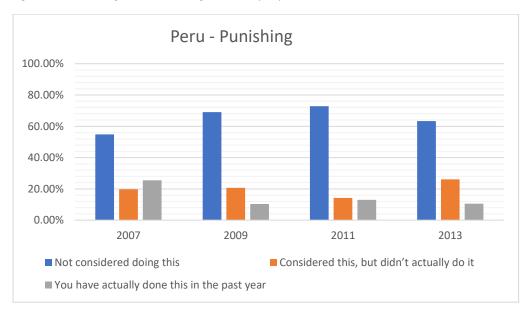


Figure 44 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Peru

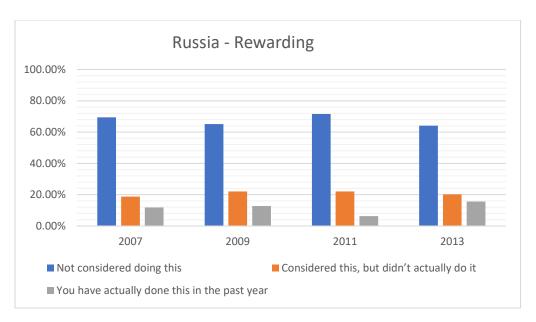


Figure 45 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in Russia

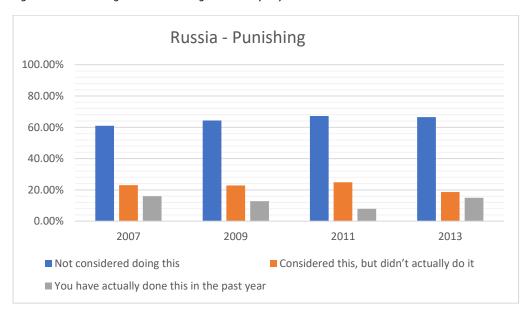


Figure 46 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in Russia

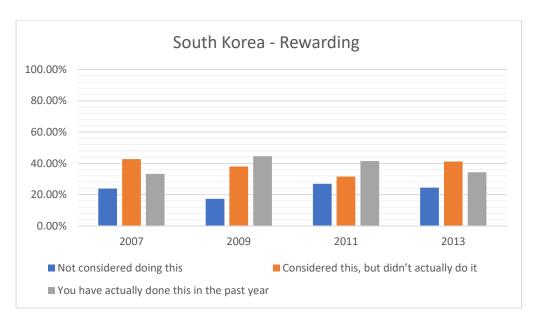


Figure 47 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in South Korea

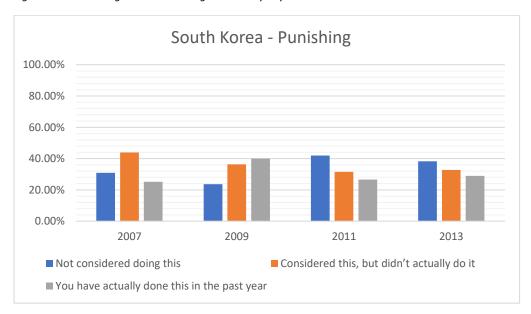


Figure 48 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in South Korea

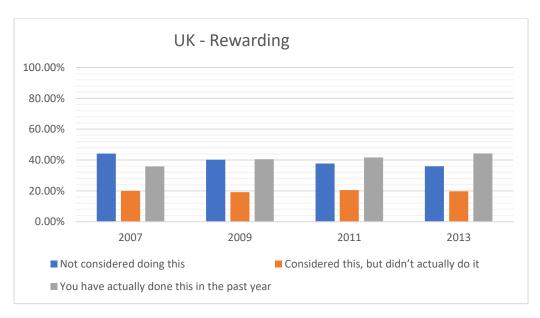


Figure 49 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in the UK

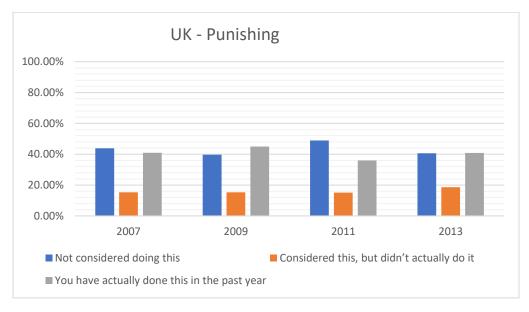


Figure 50 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in the UK

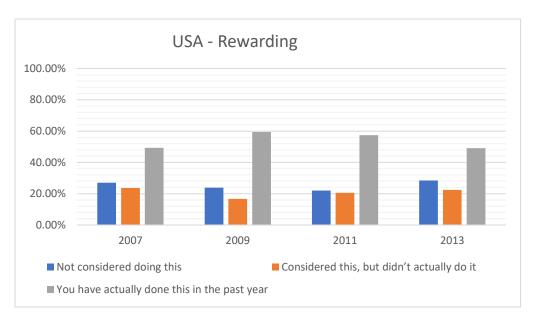


Figure 51 - Rewarding behaviors through the surveyed years in the USA

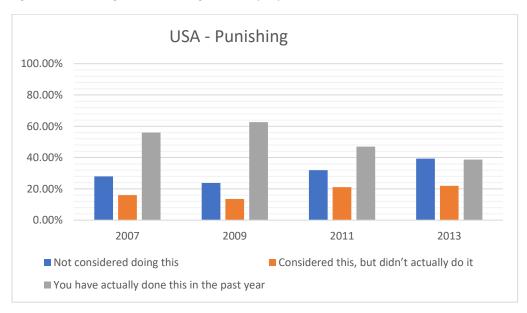


Figure 52 - Punishing behaviors through the surveyed years in USA