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Finding the CSR Sweet Spot

Establishing a Measurement for the Consumer Demand for CSR

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Abstract

The concept of CSR is increasingly important in society, and firms are expected to be profitable while ethical. Deciding how to best engage in CSR activities can be difficult, but using a supply-and-demand framework can help firms to maximize their CSR activities. However, the demand for CSR has been proven difficult to measure, but can perhaps be established when dividing the demand into different components. The purpose of this study is therefore to investigate how consumer awareness, attitude, and buying behavior, in relation to CSR, affect each other; to establish a measurement for consumer demand for CSR. To find an answer, an explanatory and a deductive research approach was used and consumers were surveyed in a quantitative study to establish a measurement for the consumer demand for CSR. This study provides both managerial and theoretical implications to the field of CSR. The theoretical implication lies in contributing empirical evidence into the discussion of supply-and-demand for CSR. Practically, this study informs managers, in the fast fashion industry, that consumer attitude can be used as a measurement when establishing the consumer demand for CSR. It is suggested for future research that it would be interesting to use other control variables to further elaborate on the findings of this study.

Keywords: CSR, demand, consumers, awareness, attitude, buying behavior

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1. Introduction

This chapter begins with a background explaining the importance of CSR in society and offers different perspectives on CSR. Next, the problematization is presented, focusing on the difficulties of aligning the supply and demand for CSR, followed by the purpose of establishing a measurement for consumer demand for CSR, in the fast fashion industry.

1.1. Background

The European Commission has adopted a new regulation that will be launched in the financial year of 2017, making Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) reporting mandatory for major firms (European Commission, 2014). CSR refers to a firm's commitment in creating sustainable economic development, and improving the overall quality of life among employees, communities, and society (WBCSD, 2004). With the new EU regulation, firms with more than 500 employees are forced to disclose information concerning their policies, and commitment to contribute in society (European Commission, 2014). In addition, information about risks, corruption issues, respect for human rights, outcomes regarding environmental matters, and other non-financial activities are required by firms (European Commission, 2014).

The concept of CSR is increasingly important in society, and Carroll and Shabana (2010) states that firms are expected to be profitable while ethical. The pressure for CSR activities is increasing from all stakeholders such as consumers, employees, suppliers, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and governments (McWilliams, Siegel, & Wright, 2006). Consumers demand more communications of CSR and if firms want to exceed in the future they should be more explicit and transparent with their CSR activities (Schmeltz, 2012). The clothing industry has been particularly keen on sustainability, and more specifically fast fashion firms (McNeill & Moore, 2015). Fast fashion is a strategy based on shortening lead times in the production process to deliver new fashion items faster in order to meet consumer demand at its peak (Barnes & Lea-Greenwood, 2006). The fast fashion industry is highly competitive in terms of both cost pressure and ability to respond to the latest trends (Christopher, Lowson, & Peck, 2004). Hence, the increase in consumer demand for CSR (McWilliams *et al.*, 2006) has enforced firms in the fast fashion industry to increase their sustainable activities to meet the demand for CSR (Turker & Altuntas, 2014).

Despite the focus on sustainability, the fast fashion industry is plagued with issues and upsetting discoveries (Reinhard, Schmidt, Rützel, & Zentgraf, 2013). The Swedish fast fashion firm Hennes & Mauritz (H&M) has been continuously criticized for poor working conditions in the factories of their suppliers, and were criticized for terrible working conditions and the lack of safety regulations in sweat-shops in Bangladesh (Larsson Hultin, 2015). Another example of a fast fashion firm that is constantly scrutinized is the Spanish Zara; which after slave-like labor conditions were discovered in Brazil during 2011, promised improvements of their supply chain (Somo, 2015). When firms fail in their CSR obligations, they risk being boycotted by stakeholders (Klein, Smith, & John, 2004). Avoiding to respond to critics when scandals occur is an inefficient strategy, which further increases the risk of boycotts; and tends to jeopardize firm relationships with consumers and other stakeholders (Klein *et al.*, 2004).

Meeting consumer demand for CSR is important (McWilliams et al., 2006), and Carroll and Shabana (2010) argues that CSR activities can be used to enhance the competitive advantage of firms if they manage to build strong relationships with their stakeholders; thus leading to economic value for them and their shareholders. Boonstoppel (2011), on the other hand, argues that there is no significant connection between CSR activities and positive economic value. Subsequent research implies that the connection is vague as the causality is complicated (Wood & Jones, 1995; Weber, 2008). CSR activities seem to generate economic value in terms of creating relationships with consumers (Pivato, Misani, & Tencati, 2008). Also, some results from CSR activities, like consumer relationships, are intangible; therefore it is important for firms to approach CSR with a long term perspective, knowing that all results might not come instantaneously (Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2010). In addition, McWilliams and Siegel (2001) insists on treating CSR as an investment for firms. They maintain that firms investing in CSR activities can differentiate themselves from competitors by adding socially responsible attributes to their products (such as organic goods and fair working conditions in production processes) (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001).

While CRS can be used to create relationships with consumers (Pivato *et al.*, 2008), Morsing, Schultz and Nielsen (2008) argues that consumers are troublesome as they expect firms to be socially responsible, but do not appreciate it when firms are too vocal

about their achievements. On the other hand, if the consumer awareness of firms' CSR activities is low, the activities have a negative or insignificant impact on the firm (Servaes & Tamayo, 2013). In addition, consumers may express a desire for more products with CSR attributes and demand firms be more responsible; while in reality their desire seldom reflects their buying behavior (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006).

1.2. Problematization

It is evident that there is a market for CSR, as both stakeholders and shareholders can prosper from its effects. However, consumers seem difficult to manage, as they expect firms to be more transparent and open with their CSR activities (Schmeltz, 2012), but have reservations when firms are too blatant (Morsing *et al.*, 2008). Thus, deciding how to engage in CSR activities ought to be problematic, but McWilliams and Siegel (2001) argue that by using a supply-and-demand framework, firms can maximize profits while still satisfying the demand for CSR. The supply of CSR is created when firms allocate capital, material and labor for CSR activities, while the demand for CSR largely consist of consumers' awareness, attitude, and buying behavior in relation to CSR (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). However, the demand for CSR has been proven difficult to measure (McWilliams *et al.*, 2006), making it problematic to find the optimal level of CSR where supply and demand for CSR align.

Chapple, Paul, and Harris (2005) stress the importance of successfully aligning the supply and demand for CSR, as creating revenues are vital to cover the costs of CSR activities. If stakeholders do not value particular CSR activities, capital is misused which reduces the competitiveness of firms (Chapple *et al.*, 2005). Barnett (2007) adds further realism to McWilliams and Siegel's supply-and-demand framework by explaining why firms may have problems optimizing their CSR activities. Firms vary in their ability to respond to stakeholder demand, and firms with low capacity to notice and act upon demand consistently undersupply CSR (Barnett, 2007). Daudigeos and Valiorgue (2011) emphasizes the demand side of CSR by stating that CSR is market driven and that firms need to adjust their supply of CSR to meet the demand for CSR. While it is important to cover the costs of CSR (Chapple *et al.*, 2005), and adjust the supply of CSR after the demand (Daudigeos & Valiorgue, 2011), it is troublesome if the demand is difficult to measure (McWilliams *et al.*, 2006).

Bråtenius and Melin (2015) further expands upon the framework laid by McWilliams and Siegel (2001), regarding how to find the ideal level of CSR. By investigating top- and bottom-ranked companies in terms of CSR endeavors, they try to assess what impact CSR has on financial performance in the form of stock returns. Bråtenius and Melin (2015), found that firms with poor CSR activities suffered negative impact on the economic value; while firms with top performing CSR activities were neither rewarded nor punished. As a result it is evident that once supply and demand no longer aligns, when the CSR supply is above the equilibrium point; stakeholders do not reward efforts put into CSR, resulting in unsatisfied shareholders (Bråtenius & Melin, 2015).

However, if stakeholders stop rewarding efforts put in to CSR, does it mean that firms should limit their supply of CSR at this point? Porter and Kramer claims that firms "...are not responsible for all the world's problems, nor do they have the resources to solve them all." (2006, p. 92). Considering this statement, the answer is yes; if firms want to stay competitive they cannot allocate resources to causes just for the sake of being good. Again, firms taking social responsibilities are rewarded by stakeholders, however only to a certain point (Bråtenius & Melin, 2015). Prior discussions have presented similar conclusions, establishing that it is vital for firms to meet stakeholder demand by helping the society, but perhaps only to a certain extent (Mintzberg, 1983; Johnson, 2003).

If firms want to find the ideal level of CSR, they must align their supply with the demand for CSR (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001); but measuring demand is difficult (McWilliams *et al.*, 2006). Consumers may express interest in CSR, while their desire is still not reflected in their buying behavior (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006), or they may not be aware of CSR activities at all (Servaes & Tamayo, 2013). It is evident that firms supplying more CSR activities than demanded are not rewarded (Bråtenius & Melin, 2015), and that misuse of CSR resources is costly (Chapple *et al.*, 2005); but the main issue seems to be estimating the demand for CSR. Since Daudigeos and Valiorgue (2011) argue that CSR is market driven, which is especially true for firms operating within the highly scrutinized fast fashion industry (Reinhard *et al.*, 2013), firms need a better tool to estimate what the market demands. By analyzing different components of consumer demand, more specifically awareness, attitude, and buying behavior, a measurement to establish the demand for CSR can be found. By investigating how consumer awareness, attitude, and

buying behavior affect each other, this study therefore aims to establish a measurement for consumer demand for CSR, in the fast fashion industry.

1.3. Purpose

The purpose of this study is to investigate how consumer awareness, attitude, and buying behavior, in relation to CSR, affect each other; to establish a measurement for consumer demand for CSR.

1.4. Research Question

How do consumer awareness, attitude, and buying behavior, in relation to CSR, affect each other?

1.5. Outline

This study is divided into six chapters. The first chapter introduced the concept of CSR followed by problematizing a supply-and-demand framework for CSR. The second chapter presents a historical background on CSR and a theoretical framework where different aspects of the consumer demand for CSR are elaborated on. The methodological considerations are presented in the third chapter, explaining the focus on quantitative research with a survey. The empirical findings are provided and analyzed in chapter four. Chapter five discusses how the consumers' awareness, attitude, and buying behavior affect each other, and a measurement for demand is established. The final chapter concludes the study, and provides different implications and processual reflections. In addition, limitations and suggestions for future research are presented.

2. Theory

This chapter presents a brief summary of historical perspectives on CSR, followed by an introduction to supply-and-demand with regards to CSR. Key aspects of consumer demand for CSR (awareness, attitude, and buying behavior) are elaborated on. The chapter concludes with a conceptual model.

2.1. The History of CSR

This section provides a review of the historical perspectives on CSR.

2.1.1. Classic Perspective on CSR

The concept of CSR has been theorized to a great extent during the past 50 years. One of the first contributions to the debate came from Levitt (1958), who criticizes firms undertaking social responsibilities by comparing business to warfare; stating that "...it should be fought gallantly, daringly, and above all, not morally." (p. 50). Another classic perspective on CSR, is that a firm's only responsibility is to create value for its shareholders as long as the value is created by legal means (Friedman, 1970). This view is perhaps not as blunt as Levitt (1958), but argues for the same thing, mainly that firms do not have moral or social responsibilities. Instead, governments ought to be responsible for social issues, as firms' resources should be used solely for internal value creation (Friedman, 1970).

2.1.2. Stakeholder Theory

During the following decades it became more evident that shareholders were not the only party interested in the firm business; as there were other stakeholders equally interested in the firm. Freeman (1984) notes that stakeholders were all those affected by or who could affect the outcome of a firm's objective. Internal stakeholders such as employees, owners and investors, and external shareholders such as customers, suppliers, governments, and NGOs should be acknowledged by firms as vital for their business (Freeman, 1984). Donaldson and Preston (1995) expand upon the importance of managerial respond to stakeholder demands, claiming that not listening to stakeholders is "...morally untenable." (p. 88). Therefore, stakeholder theory added a great extent to the CSR discussion, since it showed that being responsible and satisfying stakeholder demand could create financial benefits for firms (McWilliams et al., 2006).

2.1.3. The CSR Pyramid

In addition to how stakeholder theory contributed to the CSR discussion, Carroll (1979) further contributed by introducing a framework to define firm responsibilities. Carroll (1979) argues that CSR should be divided into four different categories of responsibilities, namely economic, legal, ethical and discretionary. Carroll (1991), revisited the framework from 1979 by creating the CSR pyramid, where the discretionary responsibility was changed to philanthropic responsibility. This framework was useful for executives and managers, when dealing with both shareholders and stakeholders; since it could display all the responsibilities of the firm (Carroll, 1991). The categorized responsibilities are presented in the pyramid framework shown in Figure 1 below:

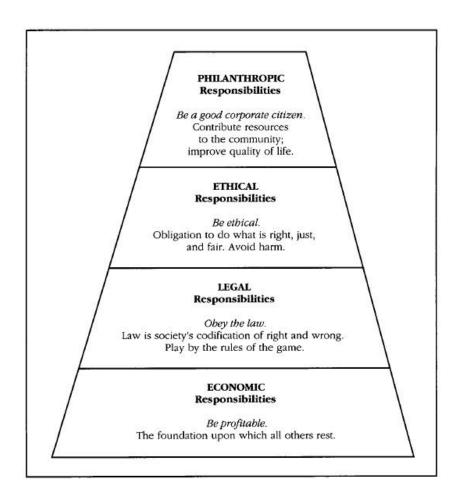


Figure 1. The Pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility (*From:* Carroll, The Pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility: Toward the Moral Management of Organizational Stakeholders, 1991, p. 42)

The foundation of the pyramid is reminiscent of how Friedman (1970) argues that a firm's sole responsibility was to be profitable. However, Carroll (1991) debates that the economic responsibilities should merely be seen as the first step of a taller ladder. Firms

need to establish a foundation built on economic responsibilities, as firms cannot fulfill other responsibilities without the core business operating with profits (Carroll, 1979, 1991). While the legal responsibilities are addressed as essential for all firms in Friedman (1970), the similarities between the different perspectives end when discussing the ethical and philanthropic responsibilities; which can be interpreted as being the essence of CSR (Carroll & Shabana, 2010). The costs of being ethical versus the benefits of ethical activities have been the main driver in the CSR discussion over time, with some research implying that there is a connection between CSR activities and financial performance (Pivato *et al.*, 2008), while some research do not agree (Boonstoppel, 2011). Joyner and Payne (2002) criticizes the urge of finding a link between CSR activities and financial performance, stating that searching for such a link is a waste of time. Finding a link would only serve as a way for managers to quantify the connection between CSR activities and financial performance, but the perks of doing good should be compelling enough to justify ethical activities (Joyner & Payne, 2002). This aligns with the third level of the CSR pyramid, implying that firms have an obligation of doing right.

The top level of the pyramid refers to the philanthropic activities provided by firms, and are desired contributions to the society as being a good corporate citizen at this level is merely voluntary (Carroll, 1991). Philanthropy can be seen as a strategic tool for firms to accomplish financial goals, as the potential goodwill generated by philanthropic activities might attract stakeholders (Lantos, 2001). The paradox of using philanthropy as a strategic tool is that the actual activities still improve the quality of life in society (Saiia, Carroll, & Buchholtz, 2003).

2.2. The Age of CSR

This section describes the importance of CSR in society.

2.2.1. CSR Communication

During the 21st century the world entered a new era of sustainability, as consumers are more aware of environmental issues (Ellis, 2010). Environics International Ltd (1999) conducted a survey exploring consumers' expectations on the new millennium. The survey concluded that CSR activities are important for consumers when forming an impression of firms (Environics International Ltd, 1999). Schmeltz (2012) notes that consumer expectations of CSR activities are difficult to define since the level of consumer

awareness of CSR communication is under-explored. To fill this void, Schmeltz (2012) found in a survey that consumers demand a more direct and open communication by firms concerning their CSR activities. For example, 42 per cent of the respondents were positive to a vague firm CSR statement like "...we are constantly working actively on reducing our CO2 emissions" (Schmeltz, 2012, p. 41), while 72.5 per cent of the respondents were in favor of a more direct and committing statement like "...we have reduced our CO2 emissions by 15 percent – ten years from now it will be reduced by 50 percent." (p. 41). It is evident that firms need to communicate CSR activities in a more direct and transparent way in this new age.

2.2.2. Sustainability Reporting

Sustainability reporting is a common way for firms to communicate CSR activities and it usually accompanies annual reports distributed by firms (Ellerup Nielsen & Thomsen, 2007). While sustainability reporting is used to create transparency, Ellerup Nielsen and Thomsen (2007) argues that firms may present information differently to emphasize favorable outcomes of their CSR activities. Delmas and Burbano (2011) argue that firms might mislead consumers and other stakeholders by either stating falsified information concerning sustainable activities or not communicating CSR activities at all. This is usually referred to as practicing greenwashing, and is a way for firms to seemingly meet the stakeholder demand for green products and services (Delmas & Burbano, 2011). Firms with legitimacy use different standards when reporting CSR activities since it is vital to inform all stakeholders why and how firms are investing its money, as conducting CSR activities is costly (Ellerup Nielsen & Thomsen, 2007). To insure a higher standard in sustainability reports, the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) (http://www.global-reporting.org) offer firms aid when constructing their sustainability reports by forming a widely used standard.

2.3. The Supply of CSR

McWilliams and Siegel (2001) define the supply of CSR as the capital, labor and material firms spend on CSR activities. However, engaging in CSR activities can be challenging as firms are required to make trade-offs to succeed, and it is equally important to decide what to do and what not to do (Porter, 1996). Du, Bhattacharya, and Sen (2007) implies that firms need to integrate their CSR activities into their core business to make it a viable strategy. If CSR is not part of the core business, firms need to allocate resources for CSR

at the expense of the core business (Porter & Kramer, 2006). While favoring a non-CSR-influenced strategy can be profitable in a short-term perspective, it is not a viable strategy when creating long-term value. Instead, firms need to merge CSR with the core business strategy in order to create long-term value (Porter & Kramer, 2006).

When allocating resources for CSR activities firms need to identify areas in society where they are best equipped to make a difference and contribute to achieve shared value between firms and society (Porter & Kramer, 2006). Firms must listen to both internal and external stakeholders to assert which CSR activities that are most desired, in order to efficiently supply CSR (Ellerup Nielsen & Thomsen, 2007). Some of the most common and crucial areas firms are expected to be engaged in (and address in their sustainability reports) are: the health and safety of employees, environmental issues and helping local communities. Failing to meet these expectations might decrease a firm's legitimacy (Ellerup Nielsen & Thomsen, 2007). Conversely, in 2001, McWilliams and Siegel argued that CSR activities could create competitive advantages since it was a differentiation strategy. When major changes occur in industries, firms might need to change their strategies to sustain their competitive advantage (Porter, 1996). Increasingly more firms are engaged in CSR activities; being ethical can thus no longer be seen as a competitive advantage (Bhattacharya, Korschun, & Sen, 2008). However, Carroll and Shabana (2010) notes that CSR activities are important when building relations with stakeholders; so while it is not a differentiation strategy anymore (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001) it can still increase firms' competitiveness.

2.4. The Demand for CSR

This section discusses different components of the consumer demand for CSR, more specifically, consumer awareness, attitude, and buying behavior.

2.4.1. Consumer Awareness

Sen, Bhattacharya, and Korschun (2006) argues that a common mistake made in CSR studies is assuming that consumer awareness of CSR exists, while in reality consumers seem to have low knowledge concerning the very notion of CSR. The basic concept of CSR is that firms have a number of responsibilities in the society (Carroll, 1991). However, it has been proven difficult for firms to communicate what they actually do to

meet these responsibilities (McWilliams *et al.*, 2006), resulting in confused consumers with low awareness of what CSR entails (Mohr, Webb, & Harris, 2001).

Mohr *et al.* (2001) believes that firms should provide education programs for consumers to teach them why CSR activities are important, and why consumers should encourage products with CSR attributes. Sen *et al.* (2006) complies that firms need to put more effort into raising the level of CSR awareness of consumers. They conclude that more aware consumers are good for the firm, as aware consumers are more likely to identify themselves with the firm and its brand, have greater purchase intentions, invest in the firm, and seek employment in sustainable firms (Sen *et al.*, 2006). Using advertising to promote CSR activities could be a way to raise the level of CSR awareness among consumers according to McWilliams and Siegel (2001), since unaware consumers might buy a substitute product without CSR attributes. In addition, mass media can affect consumers' tastes and preferences associated with firms depending on how firms' CSR activities are treated in public press (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001).

When promoting CSR activities to raise the consumer awareness, firms typically use two different types of CSR programs: promotional and institutional (Pirsch, Gupta, & Grau, 2007). With promotional CSR programs firms can raise consumer awareness of their CSR activities through promotional marketing campaigns, consequently promotional CSR programs are short-term profit oriented with focus on generating as much consumer response as possible (Pirsch *et al.*, 2007). Institutional CSR programs are long-term cause oriented, driven by continuous goals, focused on reaching not just consumers, but all stakeholders (Pirsch *et al.*, 2007). According to Pirsch *et al.* (2007), consumers aware of firms developing promotional CSR programs are skeptical and see it as a profit-oriented marketing tool; hence institutional CSR programs are more trustworthy as they are more comprehensive and cause oriented. Dowse (2009) claims that a cause oriented institutional CSR program could be just as profit oriented as promotional CSR programs, since trustworthy CSR activities will increase both purchase intents and word of mouth among consumers.

2.4.2. Consumer Attitude

Attitude is a combination of how people evaluate objects, issues, other people, and then how they rate these from positive to negative (Petty, Wegener, & Fabrigar, 1997). Attitude is intangible as it is a reflection of people's inner feelings and is therefore

difficult to measure, but can be assessed by linking attitude to actual behavior or asking questions (Asiegbu, Powei, & Iruka, 2012). To conceptualize attitude, Petty, Fabrigar and Wegener (2003) concludes that attitude can be divided into three different components: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. The cognitive aspect of attitude includes how people perceive and understand the functionality of an attitude object, and is evaluated by reasoning. The affective aspect discards reasonable thinking, and is the positive and negative emotions towards an attitude object. The final aspect of attitude is actual behavior, based on how people make decisions based on a combination of understandings and feelings about an attitude object (Petty *et al.*, 2003).

Firms engaged in CSR activities experience increased positive consumer attitude (Sen *et al.*, 2006). Consumers might have more affective associations with firms in terms of increased liking and belief, cognitive associations by acquiring a better understanding of what firms stand for, and a greater intent of actually supporting firms with behavior like purchases and loyalty (Sen *et al.*, 2006). However, Beckmann and Langer (2003) notes that negative CSR activities and unethical firm behavior have a greater negative effect on consumer attitude than positive CSR activities. Demographical variables can also affect consumer attitude towards firms and their products, according to a study concerning organic food consumption (Wang & Sun, 2003). Young people and households with higher disposable income preferred organic food, while marital status, gender, and education showed no significant effect on consumer attitude towards organic food (Wang & Sun, 2003).

2.4.3. Consumer Buying Behavior

While consumers may be in favor of CSR activities, several studies show that consumer buying behavior does not align with the attitude; consequently consumers do not always act as they say (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006). Consumers indicate willingness to base their purchase decisions on ethical variables as long as it is convenient, but will not make extra efforts to pursue sustainable purchases (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001). According to Auger and Devinney (2007) there exists a gap between consumer attitude and consumer behavior, this gap partly exists due to how surveys sometimes are too narrowly designed. Auger and Devinney (2007) argue that "...surveys on ethical consumerism have used simple ratings scales that may overstate the importance of the ethical issues, since there are clearly more socially-acceptable answers." (p. 362). Thus, consumers may feel

pressure to answer surveys in an ethical manner to avoid judgement, while in reality other variables are more important when making a purchase decision.

In buying decisions consumers need to consider numerous variables, Boulstridge and Carrigan (2000) argue that the most important variables are product price, convenience, brand familiarity, and quality. Price is a major factor influencing consumers, even if consumers are willing to buy products with CSR attributes for a certain price, they might switch to a substitute product if the price is considerably lower (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). Vermeir and Verbeke (2006) adds that sustainability is also a key factor in consumer buying decisions, while not the strongest influence.

Mohr and Webb (2005) note that CSR attributes can override other variables if accurate and trustworthy information concerning firms' CSR activities are known by consumers. Unethical firms cannot compensate the lack of CSR activities by offering consumers low prices (Mohr & Webb, 2005), which tallies with the fact that unethical firm behavior is punished more than ethical firm behavior is praised (Beckmann & Langer, 2003). If consumers are satisfied with how firms engage in CSR activities, if they support the cause, if the product quality is not reduced, and if they do not have to pay premium prices, there is a positive correlation between CSR activities and consumer buying behavior (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004).

To form an overview of consumer buying behavior, Mohr *et al.* (2001) divides consumers into four subgroups based on their buying behavior concerning products with CSR attributes. The first subgroup consists of *precontemplators*, consumers who do not have CSR attributes as a base when purchasing products. These consumers instead base their purchase on price, quality and convenience. The second group, *contemplators*, do think about CSR and would consider basing purchases on CSR attributes, but it seldom affect the actual buying behavior. The third consumer category is the *action group*, who has knowledge about CSR, believes that CSR is important, make some effort to disregard unethical firms and engage in sustainable activities such as recycling; however, their buying behavior still remains unchanged. The final consumer subgroup, *maintainers*, are socially responsible in their buying behavior if they are satisfied with firms' CSR activities (Mohr *et al.*, 2001).

2.5. Conceptual Model

The purpose of this study is to investigate how consumer awareness, attitude, and buying behavior, in relation to CSR, affect each other; to establish a measurement for consumer demand for CSR. McWilliams and Siegel (2001), use consumer awareness, attitude, and buying behavior as key determinants when assessing the consumer demand for CSR. Their study is however strictly hypothetical, with no empirical material enabling any hypotheses to be accepted. As a result, this study gathers empirical material on consumers' awareness, attitude and buying behavior to establish a measurement for the consumer demand for CSR. To assess what could be a good measurement for the consumer demand for CSR, the relation between consumer awareness, attitude and buying behavior toward CSR is tested (see hypotheses 1-3). The hypotheses are conceptualized in Figure 2 below, which also serves as the conceptual model for this study.

Hypothesis 1: Consumer awareness affects consumer attitude toward CSR.

Hypothesis 2: Consumer awareness affects consumer buying behavior in relation to CSR.

Hypothesis 3: Consumer attitude affects consumer buying behavior in relation to CSR.

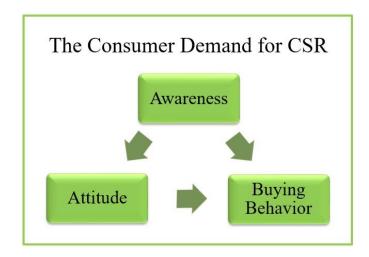


Figure 2. How the consumer awareness, attitude, and buying behavior, in relation to CSR, affect each other.

3. Methodological Considerations

This chapter discusses the theoretical method used in this study, including the decision to use positivism, deduction and quantitative data. The empirical method is then introduced, including the operationalization of the survey.

3.1. Research Philosophy

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009), state that there are different philosophies when conducting research. The philosophy chosen guides the researchers in their research process and the philosophy can be either realism, interpretivism or positivism (Saunders et al., 2009). A realistic philosophy is based on the belief that objects are independent and exist apart from the human mind. Research influenced by a realistic philosophy investigates the forces affecting people instead of investigating people as objects (Saunders et al., 2009). Researchers with an interpretivist philosophy do not believe in generalization, and seek to understand organizations and business situations empathically rather than explanatory (Saunders et al., 2009). According to Bryman and Bell (2015), a positivist research philosophy assumes that only objects recognized by the senses can be seen as real knowledge. Theories and developed hypotheses are used to explain observations, making the result possible to generalize (Saunders et al., 2009). Since this study surveyed people and not their surroundings, a realistic philosophy was not an option. The purpose of the theory was to generate hypotheses that could be compared with the empirical findings to generalize and explain the results; a positivist philosophy was thus used rather than an interpretivist philosophy.

3.2. Research Approach

When conducting research, a qualitative or a quantitative method can be used to gather data. A qualitative method is used when generating non-numerical data and can refer to words, pictures, and video clips (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Qualitative data is usually collected through interviews or focus groups when the study aims to find exploratory results (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). A quantitative method is used to create explanatory results and to gather numerical data, and is usually collected through surveys (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). To establish a measurement for the consumer demand for CSR, a quantitative research approach was required. When analyzing how one variable (consumer awareness) affects another variable (consumer attitude/buying behavior), quantitative data was

required, as it is difficult to transform qualitative data into statistics (Eliasson, 2010). In addition, given the purpose to see how consumer awareness, attitude, and buying behavior affect each other, without going in depth into consumers' perceptions regarding CSR, a quantitative research method was used as it is more appropriate when searching for a general answer, and not going in depth (Eliasson, 2010). The quantitative data gathered when surveying consumers was the primary data for this study. Primary data is the empirical data gathered and analyzed in order to complete a specific research, whereas secondary data is the collection and analysis of empirical data that has already been gathered (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

3.3. Research Design

Different approaches are used to connect theory and research; these are either inductive or deductive (Bryman & Bell, 2015). A study with an inductive approach starts with analyzing empirical findings to connect the data with theory, while a deductive approach starts with a theoretical framework and hypotheses, culminating in collecting empirical data (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Thanks to the positivist research philosophy, this study used a deductive approach as the concept of demand for CSR was theorized and hypotheses were stated before any data was collected. When conducting a study it is important to understand what the result can be used for, and remembering the purpose is essential when constructing the method (Andersen, 1998). An exploratory study is used when seeking new insight into a particular phenomenon, and usually requires qualitative data (Saunders et al., 2009). Descriptive studies aim to portray an accurate description of different situations and requires a clear picture of the studied phenomena (Saunders et al., 2009). When explaining relationships between variables, explanatory studies are suitable. The results from an explanatory study can be converted into statistics and test the correlation and significance (Saunders et al., 2009). In this study an explanatory research approach was used given the purpose of investigating how the consumer awareness, attitude, and buying behavior affect each other.

3.4. Empirical Method

This section discusses the empirical method used in this study, and how the sample for the survey was chosen.

3.4.1. Sample

A nonprobability convenience sample was used when gathering primary data through surveys. When using a nonprobability sampling method all qualified respondents do not have the same chance of being chosen for the sample (Fink, 2003). Students in business administration and teachers at pre- and secondary-school level were chosen to capture a mixture of both younger and older consumers; reminiscent of a nonprobability sample. Students, in particular, were chosen to increase the validity of the study, as surveying students generally results in high response rates (Befring, 1994). 106 students were surveyed during the first minutes of a class, which is called a convenience sample. A convenience sample is collected when the respondents are conveniently available (Fink, 2003). The response rate among the students was 100 %, since 106 surveys were distributed and 106 complete surveys were collected. The teachers were surveyed online as a selected teacher distributed the survey to her colleagues. This was reminiscent of a snowball sample, where a study rely on one individual of a group to recognize other individuals of the population (Fink, 2003). To avoid bias, the chosen individual should not be part of the sample (Fink, 2003), hence the selected teacher in this study did not participate in the survey herself. The survey was distributed online to 60 teachers, with 31 responses, corresponding to a response rate of 52 %.

3.5. Operationalization

In order to conduct a quantitative study, concepts of interest were translated into measurable items and this process is usually referred to as operationalization (Bryman & Bell, 2015). To investigate consumers' awareness, attitude and buying behavior in relation to CSR activities, a survey was conducted. The survey consisted of 10 questions with 1 background question regarding the demographical variable age, which served as a control variable, and 9 questions with different statements the respondents had to consider.

3.5.1. Dependent Variables

A dependent variable is affected by other variables (Saunders *et al.*, 2009), and the dependent variables in this study was the attitude towards CSR activities and the buying behavior among the respondents. The respondents had to consider 20 different attitudinal statements to decide whether it was very important or not important to them. When measuring attitudinal variables, a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7 is often used (Bryman

& Bell, 2015). If the respondents found the statement very important they gave it a score of 7, if they found it neither important nor not important a score of 4 was given, and if it was not important a score of 1 was given. To ask relevant questions that would measure consumer attitude towards CSR activates in the fast fashion industry, the questions had to be based on something. The questions primarily originated from the GRI sustainability reporting guidelines, as they are commonly used by firms when constructing sustainability reports to inform stakeholders about CSR activities (Global Reporting Initative, 2015). However, some aspects in annual reports are naturally more valuable than other aspects to the specific groups (Adams, Hill, & Roberts, 1998). As a result, this study chose to focus on aspects (in the GRI guidelines) that are more relevant to the consumer stakeholders. By dividing statements into 3 categories (environmental, product responsibility, and labor practices), with 20 aspects, the respondents' attitude towards CSR activities could be assessed. To measure buying behavior the respondents had to answer 3 questions inspired by a previous study (Carrigan & Attalla, 2001). By using a Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 7, the respondents had to state how important different aspects are when making a purchase. In addition, the respondents were asked to state how often their purchase is affected by environmental features; and how often their purchase is affected when unethical firm behavior is detected.

3.5.2. Independent Variables

An independent variable affects a dependent variable (Saunders *et al.*, 2009), thus consumer awareness of CSR activities was one of the independent variables in this study. To test the third hypothesis, consumer attitude also served as an independent variable in combination of the dependent variable consumer buying behavior. To assess the awareness, the respondents answered 3 questions in the first section of the survey, partly using the same scales as a previous study (Schmeltz, 2012). The first question used a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7, asking how environmentally aware the respondents were in their daily lives; 7 denoted very aware, 4 denoted neither aware nor not aware, and 1 denoted not aware. The third question used the same labels and the respondents were asked how aware they were of firms' sustainable efforts. The second question read if the respondents strive to become more aware, with the labels ranging from a great extent to a very small extent.

3.6. Reliability

If a study can generate similar results when different researchers replicate the method used, the study has high reliability (Bryman & Bell, 2015). In order to test reliability, the conditions have to be as similar to the original study as possible; and to increase the level of reliability, researchers should measure the same variable using different questions (Eliasson, 2010). To increase the reliability of this study, the different variables were measured with more than one question. Consumer awareness was measured with 3 questions, attitude was measured with 3 questions, and buying behavior was measured with 3 questions. To test the reliability further, a Cronbach's alpha test was used to assess the internal reliability of the survey. Internal reliability measures if the scales on different questions are consistent or not (Bryman & Bell, 2015). In order to reach an acceptable Cronbach's Alpha value for the 3 buying behavior questions, 3 of the 5 statements (concerning how purchase is affected) were removed.

3.7. Validity

When conducting a study, it is important to measure the phenomena accurately to ensure that the study is valid (Eliasson, 2010). Previous research was used as an inspiration to insure valid measurements for this study, as Schmeltz (2012) was used to create the questions for measuring consumer awareness and attitude; while Mohr and Webb (2005) and Carrigan and Attalla (2001) was used to assert buying behavior. To gain validity, it is important to measure what was intended to be measured (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). As a result, the concepts discussed in the theory chapter were used in the survey to ensure that the correct phenomena were measured. When collecting secondary data it is more difficult to assess the validity as researchers do not have complete knowledge of how the data was gathered and presented (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). To increase the validity of secondary data, researchers should gather data as close to the original source as possible (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). However, this study did not rely on any secondary data, as it solely focused on the data collected in the survey.

3.8. Statistical Method

The data from the surveys were analyzed in IBM SPSS Statistics version 23, as it is one of the most commonly used computer software for analyzing quantitative data (Bryman

& Bell, 2015). The statistical analysis began with dividing the respondents into age groups by creating frequency tables. The year of birth of the respondents served as a control variable, and 3 groups were created using the definitions as defined by Strauss and Howe (1991), with Baby Boomers born between 1943-1960, Generation X (1961-1981), and Generation Y (1982-2000). In addition, the respondents were also grouped into 2 different age groups. The first group ranged from 1943 to 1981 and the second group ranged from 1982 to 2000, to see if conditions would change with different age groups. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test is used to assess if data is normally distributed (Saunders et al., 2009), and was used to test the normality of the data in this study. To assert if the consumer awareness, attitude, and buying behavior differed between ages, the non-parametric tests, Kruskal-Wallis H Test and Mann-Whitney U Test, were used. When conducting tests with 3 age groups, a Kruskal-Wallis test was preferred instead of a Mann-Whitney U Test, as it allows comparison between 3 or more groups (Pallant, 2013). With 2 age groups, a Mann-Whitney U Test was used to test differences in consumer awareness, attitude and buying behavior among the respondents. To test the hypotheses, mean values for the responses in the 3 different survey sections (awareness, attitude, and buying behavior) were calculated in Microsoft Excel, which generated 3 different mean variables. The hypotheses were examined with a Spearman rank correlation test in combination with a scatterplot. The first hypothesis examined the mean variable for attitude in combination of the mean variable of awareness level. The second and third hypotheses examined the mean variables for awareness and attitude in combination of mean variable for buying behavior.

4. Empirical Findings

This chapter presents the SPSS results from the survey. Modified tables are used to frame the results, making it more comprehensible but all the original tables appear as appendix.

4.1. Quantitative Results

When reviewing the frequency tables created for the age groups it is noticeable that the majority (78,8%) of the respondents are born between 1982 and 2000. Table 1 demonstrates that respondents born before 1982 are almost equally divided between the first 2 age groups, however they are considerably fewer than those born after 1982. When combining age groups (Table 2), the older generations acquire a higher percentage of the total respondents (21,2%).

Table 1. 3 Age Groups

Year of Birth	Frequency	Percent
1943-1960	13	9,5
1961-1981	16	11,7
1982-2000	108	78,8
Total	137	100,0

Table 2. 2 Age Groups

	1	
Year of Birth	Frequency	Percent
1943-1981	29	21,2
1982-2000	108	78,8
Total	137	100,0

Some of the following results lack full valid answers, as some values are missing in the questions concerning attitude (Appendix 2). Table 3 presents the mean score of the respondents' answers in the survey. The Likert scales ranged from 1 to 7, where attitude receives the highest mean (4,85), while awareness has the lowest mean (2,94). A complete table of all the descriptive statistics is provided in Appendix 14.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mean Attitude	134	1	7	4,85	1,17
Mean Awareness	137	1	7	2,94	1,24
Mean Buying Behavior	137	1	7	3,00	1,38
Valid N (listwise)	134				

A Cronbach's Alpha value above 0,7 is acceptable, but a value above 0,8 is desirable (Pallant, 2013). The Cronbach's Alpha for the 3 questions concerning awareness is 0,929 and the 3 attitude questions consisting of 20 statements have a value of 0,948. The

Cronbach's Alpha for the questions regarding buying behavior is 0,919 (Appendix 3), when statements concerning price, convenience, brand, and quality is excluded. Why these statements were excluded is elaborated on further in the discussion section. However, Table 4 demonstrates an overview of what the respondents deemed most important as purchase influencers.

14,1%
22,3%
24,4%
22,4%
16,8%

Price Convenience Brand Quality Environmental Aspects

Table 4. Purchase Influencers

The result from the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Table 5) prove that the data is not normally distributed, as all values are significant at values below 0,05. As a result, the remaining tests are non-parametric.

Table 5. Tests of Normality

	Kolmogo	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	
Mean Awareness	0,141	137	0,000	
Mean Attitude	0,081	134	0,029	
Mean Buying Behavior	0,127	137	0,000	

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

When conducting a Mann-Whitney U Test, significant values are equal to or less than 0,05 (Asymp. Sig.). The result from the Mann-Whitney U Test (Table 6) shows that there are significant differences in attitude (0,043) and buying behavior (0,018) between ages when using 2 age groups. There is no significant difference in awareness (0,368) when comparing respondents born between 1943-1981 and 1982-2000. If 3 age groups are compared, using a Kruskal-Wallis H Test, none of the variables are significant (see Appendix 5).

Table 6. Test Statistics

	Mean	Mean Buying	Mean
	Attitude	Behavior	Awareness
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,043	0,018	0,368

a. Grouping Variable: 2 Age Groups

In addition, Table 7 presents the mean differences between age groups 1943-1981 and 1982-2000. It is noticeable that the first age group has a greater mean rank in attitude, buying behavior and awareness; however, given Table 6, the differences in awareness are not significant.

Table 7. Mean Ranks 2 Age Groups

2 Age Groups		N	Mean Rank
	1943-1981	26	81,31
Mean Attitude	1982-2000	108	64,18
	Total	134	
	1943-1981	29	84,48
Mean Buying Behavior	1982-2000	108	64,84
	Total	137	
	1943-1981	29	74,86
Mean Awareness	1982-2000	108	67,43
	Total	137	

Table 8 presents all the respondents combined attitude toward different CSR activities. The respondents care the most about aspects concerning labor practices and decent work, while environmental aspects are somewhat less important. Child labor, anti-corruption, and chemical management scores high, while clean water and fair wages are not as prioritized. Table 9 demonstrates a compiled categorical result of the consumer attitude.

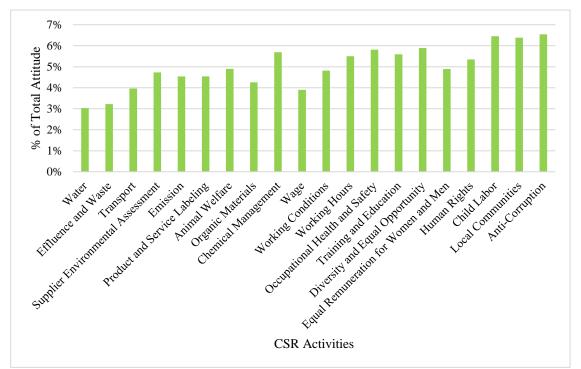
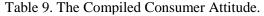
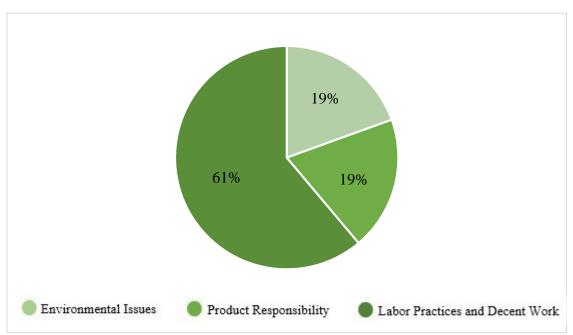


Table 8. Consumer Attitude toward CSR Activities.





By reviewing the results from the Spearman rank correlation test, it is evident that all of this studies' hypotheses are accepted. Results are significant at the 0,05 level, and hypotheses are accepted if tests score values equal or below this level (Pallant, 2013). Hypothesis 1 (Table 10), regarding how consumer awareness affects consumer attitude toward CSR, is accepted since the p-value (0,042) < significant level (0,05). In addition,

the relationship is positive given a positive correlation coefficient (0,176). To assess how strongly the 2 variables correlate, the coefficient of determination is calculated by squaring the correlation coefficient (Pallant, 2013). Awareness and attitude have a shared variance of 3,1% (0,176^2=3,097), meaning that 3,1% of the variance in attitude can be explained by the respondents awareness level.

Table 10. Correlations Hypothesis 1

			Mean Attitude
		Correlation Coefficient	,176*
Spearman's rho	Mean Awareness	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,042
		N	134

^{*.} Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Hypothesis 2 (Table 11) is also accepted, indicating that consumer awareness affects consumer buying behavior in relation to CSR; since the p-value (0,003) < significant level (0,01), with a positive relationship (0,253). Awareness and buying behavior have a shared variance of 6,4%, which demonstrates that 6,4% of buying behavior depends on the respondents awareness level.

Table 11. Correlations Hypothesis 2

			Mean Buying Behavior
		Correlation Coefficient	,253**
Spearman's rho	Mean Awareness	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,003
		N	137

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The result from the final Spearman rank correlation test (Table 12) shows that hypothesis 3, how consumer attitude affects consumer buying behavior in relation to CSR, is accepted as the p-value (0,000) < significant level (0,01). The relationship is positive (0,470) and 22% of buying behavior can be explained by the respondents' attitude.

Table 12. Correlations Hypothesis 3

			Mean Buying Behavior
		Correlation Coefficient	,470 **
Spearman's rho	Mean Attitude	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000
		N	134

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

By adding 2 age groups when testing hypothesis 2 (Table 13), the result show that the older age group have a greater coefficient of determination (24%) compared to the younger age group (3,8%). As a result, 24% of variance in buying behavior can be explained by the awareness level of respondents born between 1943-1981. For other differences among age groups, see Appendix 9.

Table 13. Correlations 2 Age Groups

2 Age Groups		-		Mean Buying Behavior
Spearman's rho	1943-1981	Mean Awareness	Correlation Coefficient	,491**
			Sig. (2-tailed)	0,007
			N	29
	1982-2000	Mean Awareness	Correlation Coefficient	,195*
			Sig. (2-tailed)	0,043
			N	108

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

^{*.} Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

5. Discussion

This chapter discusses the empirical findings in relation to theoretical implications presented in the second chapter.

5.1. Analysis

The empirical findings demonstrate similar patterns as discussed in previous studies. The results demonstrate that consumers are somewhat less aware of CSR activities, and not as aware as Schmeltz (2012) suggests; but perhaps more similar to Sen *et al.* (2006) who states that consumers are not as aware as sometimes believed. Consumers think that CSR activities are somewhat important, indicating a positive attitude toward CSR activities; which aligns with Sen *et al.* (2006) who notes that firms engaged in CSR activities experience positive consumer attitude. Consumers' attitude can however shift if firms are too vocal about their environmental achievements (Morsing *et al.*, 2008), further stressing the importance of understanding the consumer demand, as indicated by Daudigeos and Valiorgue (2011). Vermeir and Verbeke (2006) argue that consumers do not always act as they say, which is apparent in this study as well. While consumer attitude was relatively high, it did not always reflect in their presumed buying behavior. In comparison to Auger and Devinney (2007), who claim that consumers usually beautify their answers in ethical-themed surveys to avoid judgement; the consumers in this study seem more honest as a majority of the mean values are somewhat low.

The results correspond with Boulstridge and Carrigan (2000), who say that price, convenience, brand familiarity and quality are important purchase influencers. The results demonstrate that quality and price are the strongest influencers in buying behavior and that environmental aspects are less important. This result resembles Vermeir and Verbeke (2006), since environmental aspects did influence buying behavior to an extent, but was not the strongest influencer. Consumers' willingness to make purchases based on ethical aspects, but failing act upon it, corresponds with Carrigan and Attalla (2001); who state that convenience is crucial if consumers are to adopt ethical buying behavior. When measuring the mean buying behavior, the most important questions are those measuring environmental based buying behavior. Questions concerning how often purchases are affected by CSR attributes, and affected by unethical firm behavior corresponds with the statement regarding what impact CSR attributes have in relation to other aspects.

Questions about price, convenience, brand familiarity and quality are not comparable with the other questions measuring buying behavior; but are interesting as the result of these questions contradict Mohr and Webb (2005) who notes that CSR attributes can override other variables. Mohr and Webb (2005) argue that this is however only possible if firms' CSR activities are known to consumers, and given the low awareness level of the consumers in this study; the result showing that CSR attributes do not override other variables is plausible.

When assessing how age differences affect awareness, attitude and buying behavior, it is evident that there are significant differences in attitude and buying behavior, but not in awareness. The older consumers seem more willing to base purchases on environmental aspects than the younger consumers, and seem more positive toward CSR activities. This result is contradictory to previous studies claiming that younger consumers are more environmentally conscious than older generations (Wang & Sun, 2003; Schmeltz, 2012). This study never focused on discussing differences in CSR affiliations among ages, but the results proved more interesting than assumed. Hence, this study cannot explain these differences, but the price aspect might be the reason why the younger consumers are less influenced by environmental aspects. Students (the majority of the younger respondents) might have a lower disposable income compared to the older respondents, and might not be able to dedicate funds to ethical consumption.

The different subgroups discussed in Mohr *et al.* (2001), are difficult to detect in this study. The younger consumers show tendencies of being *precontemplators*, as their purchases are more likely influenced by price, quality and convenience, in combination of a low mean value in buying behavior. Considering Schmeltz (2012), the younger respondents in this study should have been labeled as *contemplators* or the *action group*; as younger consumers are environmentally aware and desire CSR activities (Schmeltz, 2012). The older consumers' buying behavior align with Bhattacharya and Sen (2004), as they are more influenced by environmental aspects in their buying behavior but still value price, quality and convenience above environmental aspects. Therefore, the older consumers cannot be labeled as *maintainers*, as they are instead a combination of *contemplators* and the *action group*. These subgroups consider CSR and their buying behavior is sometimes, sometimes not, affected by environmental aspects (Mohr *et al.*, 2001).

When moving on to the hypotheses, the results demonstrate that consumers' awareness level have a positive effect on their attitude toward CSR activities and that awareness also affects consumers' buying behavior in relation to CSR. However, the effect is quite unsubstantial in both cases; which could be troublesome for fast fashion firms, as Sen et al. (2006) argue that more aware consumers are good for the firm. Aware consumers are important for firms when establishing relationships (Sen et al., 2006), which in turn can generate economic value (Pivato et al., 2008). In addition, unaware consumers might overlook products with CSR attributes and buy a substitute, less ethical, product from another firm (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). Firms in the fast fashion industry should therefore strive to raise the awareness level among consumers, as higher awareness evidently leads to more positive attitude and buying intentions. To raise the awareness, firms could perhaps revisit their promotional programs and focus on long term institutional CSR programs. Consumers find institutional CSR programs trustworthy since these programs are comprehensive and cause oriented (Pirsch et al., 2007), and can lead to increased buying behavior (Dowse, 2009). When testing how consumer awareness affects consumer buying behavior in relation to CSR, using 2 age groups, the older consumers are more likely than the younger consumers to increase their buying behavior if their awareness rises. Once again, this study cannot explain the differences between ages, but a possible explanation could be that a majority of the older consumers might have a higher disposable income; making it possible to dedicate more funds to ethical consumption.

The results indicate that attitude have a positive effect on consumer buying behavior in relation to CSR. Given the relatively high coefficient of determination value (22%), it is evident that consumers' attitude is influencing buying behavior to a greater extent than awareness. This result demonstrates that consumer attitude is perhaps the most important factor when measuring the consumer demand for CSR; which contradicts McWilliams and Siegel (2001) who state that consumer awareness, attitude and buying behavior together are key determinants when assessing the demand for CSR. However, creating revenues are vital for all firms, especially for firms engaged in CSR activities as they are costly (Chapple *et al.*, 2005); making the consumers' buying behavior an important component of the demand for CSR. This study shows that more aware consumers do result in increased buying behavior, but positive consumer attitude have far more effect

on buying behavior; implying that consumer attitude can be used to measure the consumer demand for CSR.

It could be argued that measuring consumers' buying behavior to establish the consumer demand for CSR would then suffice, as it would result in undeniable facts and tangible sales figures. On the other hand, CSR is not tangible. To a great extent, CSR is about building relationships and creating goodwill (Sen et al., 2006), that in the long run can create profitable effects for firms (Du et al., 2010). Raising the CSR awareness level among consumers is important to avoid substitute purchases of unethical products (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001); and measuring sales figures will always be important to ensure profitability (Chapple *et al.*, 2005). But, when trying to establish what the demand is, measuring consumers' attitude should be enough as it, in many ways, is a combination of both tangible and intangible aspects (Petty et al., 2003). When dividing attitude into cognitive, affective, and behavioral components (Petty et al., 2003), it covers both the tangible and intangible manners of demand; making it even more plausible to use attitude as a measurement for demand. The respondents with the best understanding and most affection for CSR activities were also the ones who would base purchases on CSR attributes.

Instead of investigating different aspects such as awareness, attitude, and buying behavioral when establishing the demand for CSR (McWilliams & Siegel 2001); settling on surveying consumers' attitude should be enough. Establishing the consumer demand is vital since firms need to manage their resources with care, as implied by Mintzberg (1983) and Johnson (2003). By listening and adjusting to the consumer demand, firms can better manage their resources and more efficiently supply CSR (Ellerup Nielsen & Thomsen, 2007). Again, this is only possible if the demand is known. Firms in the fast fashion industry need to make sure the consumers understand the cause for the CSR engagement, perhaps by providing educational programs informing consumers about CSR, as suggested by Mohr et al. (2001). Most importantly, consumers need to like what the brand and the company stands for to affect their attitude toward CSR (Sen et al., 2006).

6. Conclusion

This chapter concludes the study with a callback to the hypotheses and the conceptual model. The research question is answered and this study's contributions to the field of CSR, as well as managerial implications, and processual reflections are elaborated on, followed by limitations and future research suggestions.

6.1. Concluding remarks

In order to successfully align the supply with the demand, firms need to establish the demand for CSR. When the demand is better known, the fast fashion industry can possibly adjust their supply more efficiently, as supplying inferior CSR activities than demanded can have negative impact on economic value; while exceeding the demand for CSR activities is not rewarded (Bråtenius & Melin, 2015). By measuring consumers' attitude towards CSR, firms in the fast fashion industry indirectly measure the consumer demand for CSR, as indicated by this study. Using consumers' attitude as a measurement for the consumer demand for CSR, originated from elaborating on three hypotheses on how consumers' awareness, attitude, and buying behavior affected each other. The empirical findings demonstrate that attitude had the most effect on consumers' buying behavior in relation to CSR. As buying behavior is an important component of demand, given its tangible nature, it illustrates the value of the effect of consumer attitude, and why it is a good measurement for demand. However, the consumer demand consists of both tangible and intangible aspects which also apply to consumer attitude. This further indicates that measuring consumer attitude can suffice when measuring the consumer demand for CSR. When now reviewing the conceptual model presented in the second chapter, it is evident that investigating attitude is superior to investigating how consumers' awareness, attitude, and buying behavior, in relation to CSR, affect each other. As a result, focusing merely on consumer attitude when measuring the demand for CSR could be preferable.

If firms want to find a *CSR sweet spot*, they need to successfully align their supply with the demand for CSR, as indicated by McWilliams and Siegel (2001). As the supply of CSR is internal and self-regulated the challenge lies in establishing the consumer demand. Previous research demonstrates the difficulties of establishing a measurement for consumer demand for CSR (McWilliams *et al.*, 2006), but this study provides a useful measurement to establish the demand by focusing on consumers' attitude. When the

demand is known, firms can focus on solely providing the CSR activities consumers seem to value and care about. This could create more revenues and individual firms could become more competitive (Chapple *et al.*, 2005). As stated by Porter and Kramer (2006), one firm cannot solve all the world's problems, but would perhaps be more willing to solve a few if it found an ideal level of CSR engagement. By establishing the consumer demand for CSR and aligning the firm supply with that demand, finding the CSR sweet spot is possible.

6.2. Implications and Processual Reflection

This study provides important findings, namely that consumer attitude is the best indicator of the consumer demand for CSR. If managers have some knowledge about market research, they can save both time and resources knowing that attitude deserves their full attention when searching for the consumer demand. Only measuring sales figures to establish the demand for CSR can be misleading, as the results from CSR activities can be long time oriented (Du *et al.*, 2010). Consequently, managers should focus on the consumers' attitude. The theoretical implication lies in contributing empirical evidence into the discussion of supply-and-demand for CSR. The discussion by McWilliams and Siegel (2001) is explicitly hypothetical, and other scientists (as Chapple *et al.*, 2005; Daudigeos & Valiorgue, 2011; Bråtenius & Melin, 2015) have in different ways brought the discussion forward. This study demonstrate that positive consumer awareness and attitude have a positive effect on consumers' buying behavior, in relation to CSR; but attitude have far more effect on buying behavior. This revelation, in combination with the intangible aspects of attitude, makes consumer attitude a good measurement when establishing the consumer demand for CSR.

When reflecting on the lessons learned from this study they are plenty, and will be useful when writing a master thesis. The first lesson, and perhaps the most important is to work with the problematizing thoroughly, and to understand that it has to be rewritten and scrutinized numerous times during the process. A lesson learned from writing the theory chapter is that there are no short-cuts; you have to read a vast amount of articles to be able to understand the material and use the arguments correctly. Another experience gained from this study is that once you understand the underlying statistics used when conducting surveys, asking the right questions is much easier. Also, the expression "kill

your darlings" was a reoccurring message, as many pages that were written never ended up in the final version of the thesis.

6.3. Limitations

A notable limitation could be the differences in age group sizes. While the entire sample was large, the younger consumers constituted almost 80% of the total sample, perhaps making comparison between the two groups skewed. In addition, since the teachers were surveyed online, our influence on the gathering process was limited. Had we gone to the school and distributed the survey, as we did with the students, the number of responses could possibly have been higher. This could have resulted in a more equally divided sample, more representative of a population.

6.4. Future Research

It would be interesting to use other control variables to further elaborate on the findings of this study. The differences in attitude and buying behavior between ages could perhaps be supplemented by collecting information concerning the respondents' disposable income and other demographical variables. With a purpose focusing on how consumers' awareness, attitude, and buying behavior toward CSR differed using many control variables, interesting findings and revelations could be sought. Finally, it would be interesting to complement this study with qualitative study, going more in depth on consumer perception of CSR.

7. List of References

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8. Appendices

This chapter provides all the appendices for this study.

Appendix 1

Frequency Tables for 3 and 2 different age groups.

•	to	tis	T1	CC
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3 Age Groups		
N	Valid	137
19	Missing	0
Minimum		1
Maximum		3

3 Age Groups

	Year of Birth	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1943-1960	13	9,5	9,5	9,5
V -1: 4	1961-1981	16	11,7	11,7	21,2
Valid	1982-2000	108	78,8	78,8	100,0
	Total	137	100,0	100,0	

Statistics

2 Age Groups		
N	Valid	137
IN	Missing	0
Minimum		1
Maximum		2

2 Age Groups

	Year of Birth	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1943-1981	29	21,2	21,2	21,2
Valid	1982-2000	108	78,8	78,8	100,0
	Total	137	100,0	100,0	

Appendix 2

Descriptive Statistics.

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mean Attitude	134	1	7	4,85	1,17
Mean Awareness	137	1	7	2,94	1,24
Mean Buying Behavior	137	1	7	3,00	1,38
Valid N (listwise)	134				

Appendix 3Cronbahc's Alpha for attitude, buying behavior and awareness.

Case Processing Summary Attitude

		N	%
	Valid	134	97,8
Cases	Excludeda	3	2,2
	Total	137	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics Attitude

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0,948	0,948	20

Item Statistics Attitude

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Water	3,67	1,755	134
Effluence and Waste	4,39	1,785	134
Transport	4,21	1,760	134
Supplier Environmental Assessment	4,21	1,756	134
Emission	4,54	1,792	134
Product and Service Labeling	3,95	1,714	134
Animal Welfare	5,28	1,652	134
Organic Materials	3,62	1,720	134
Chemical Management	4,46	1,874	134
Wage	5,10	1,536	134
Working Conditions	5,39	1,486	134
Working Hours	5,19	1,595	134
Occupational Health and Safety	5,46	1,449	134
Training and Education	4,54	1,715	134
Diversity and Equal Opportunity	4,96	1,707	134
Equal Remuneration for Women and Men	5,99	1,409	134
Human Rights	5,92	1,441	134
Child Labor	6,07	1,383	134
Local Communities	5,05	1,533	134
Anti-Corruption	5,05	1,770	134

				Int	Inter-Item Correlation Matrix Attitude	orrelati	on Matr	IX Attitu	ide									
	Ţ	2.	3. 4.	5.	.9	7.	8	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19. 20.
1. Water	1,000																	
2. Effluence and Waste	0,744 1,000	000																
3. Transport	0,738 0,914 1,000	,914 1,	000															
4. Supplier Environmental Assessment	0,725 0,859 0,883	,859 0,	883 1,000	00														
5. Emission	0,717 0,897 0,888	0 268		0,859 1,000	00													
6. Product and Service Labeling	0,629 0,734 0,771	,734 0,		20 95	0,756 0,766 1,000	0												
7. Animal Welfare	0,428 0,445 0,448	,445 0,		0,517 0,431	31 0,356	5 1,000												
8. Organic Materials	0,536 0,474 0,540	474 0,	540 0,5	0,596 0,582	82 0,687	7 0,405	1,000											
9. Chemical Management	0,570 0,640 0,675	,640 0,		0,640 0,710	10 0,710	0,393	0,687	1,000										
10. Wage	0,386 0,403 0,432	,403 0,		0,436 0,429	29 0,350	0,330	0,267	0,298	1,000									
11. Working Conditions	0,410 0,456 0,463	,456 0,		0,502 0,490	90 0,383	3 0,348	0,276	0,372	968'0	1,000								
12. Working Hours	0,441 0,466 0,500	,466 0,	500 0,4	0,458 0,495	95 0,394	4 0,309	0,248	0,401	0,840	688'0	1,000							
13. Occupational Health and Safety	0,382 0,471 0,483	471 0,	483 0,4	0,499 0,490	90 0,428	3 0,279	0,312	0,441	0,814	0,876	0,824	1,000						
14. Training and Education	0,396 0,354 0,376	,354 0,		0,387 0,357	57 0,299	9 0,183	0,235	0,341	0,597	0,584	0,537	0,631 1,000	1,000					
15. Diversity and Equal Opportunity	0,429 0,371 0,388	371 0,	388 0,4	0,455 0,409	09 0,290	0,255	0,278	0,333	0,670	0,671	0,622	0,677	0,677 0,735 1,000	000				
16. Equal Remuneration for Women and Men 0,266 0,286 0,277	0,266 0	,286 0,	277 0,3.	0,357 0,310	10 0,277	7 0,115	0,187	0,233	0,612	0,628	0,550	0,707	0,707 0,591 0,637 1,000	,637 1,	000			
17. Human Rights	0,263 0,378 0,366	,378 0,	366 0,3	0,349 0,361	51 0,217	7 0,199	0,127	0,240	0,673	0,714		0,674	0,661 0,674 0,532 0,665 0,740 1,000	,665 0,	,740 1	000		
18. Child Labor	0,307 0,312 0,328	,312 0,		0,304 0,346	46 0,224	4 0,318	0,229	0,295	0,496	0,561		0,453	0,540 0,453 0,203 0,380 0,437 0,576 1,000	380 0	,437 0	576 1	000	
19. Local Communities	0,308 0,292 0,355	,292 0,		0,348 0,318	18 0,270	0,143	0,210	0,214	0,703	0,644		0,642	0,555,0	,618 0,	582 0	638 0	,364 1,	000
20. Anti-Corruption	0,349 0,381 0,448	,381 0,	448 0,3	0,396 0,377	77 0,345	5 0,134	0,204	0,339	0,576	0,547	965'0	0,553	0,484 0	,503 0,	531 0	,636 0	,383 0,	681 1,
-Corruption	0,349 0	381 0,		96 0,3						0,576	0,576	0,576 0,547	0,576 0,547	0,576 0,547	0,576 0,547	0,576 0,547	0,576 0,547	0,576

Item Statistics Attitude

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Inter-Item Correlations	0,477	0,115	0,914	0,799	7,959	0,035	20

		Item-Total Statistics Attitude	istics Attitude		
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Water	93,36	488,096	0,684	0,672	0,945
Effluence and Waste	92,64	482,066	0,752	668'0	0,944
Transport	92,82	480,554	0,784	906.0	0,943
Supplier Environmental Assessment	92,82	480,539	0,787	0,874	0,943
Emission	92,49	479,755	0,780	0,871	0,943
Product and Service Labeling	93,08	489,926	9,676	0,746	0,945
Animal Welfare	91,75	508,172	0,447	0,391	0,948
Organic Materials	93,41	500,078	0,535	0,654	0,947
Chemical Management	92,57	487,330	0,644	69'0	0,945
Wage	91,93	491,176	0,744	0,851	0,944
Working Conditions	91,64	490,352	0,784	0,915	0,943
Working Hours	91,84	487,908	0,763	0,847	0,944
Occupational Health and Safety	91,57	491,826	0,782	0,854	0,943
Training and Education	92,49	494,703	0,610	0,640	0,946
Diversity and Equal Opportunity	92,07	489,603	0,684	0,713	0,945
Equal Remuneration for Women and Men	1 91,04	504,299	0,599	0,725	0,946
Human Rights	91,11	500,251	0,649	0,782	0,945
Child Labor	96'06	510,532	0,508	0,499	0,947
Local Communities	91,98	499,586	0,616	0,655	0,946
Anti-Corruption	91,98	492,804	0,614	809'0	0,946

Scale Statistics Attitude

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
97,03	544,180	23,328	20

Case Processing Summary Buying Behavior

		N	%
	Valid	137	100,0
Cases	Excluded ^a	0	0,0
	Total	137	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics Buying Behavior

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0,919	0,918	3

Item Statistics Buying Behavior

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
How Often is Purchase Affected	2,75	1,523	137
How Often is Purchase Affected by Unethical Firm Actions	2,92	1,539	137
Environmental Aspects	3,34	1,401	137

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix Buying Behavior

	How Often	How Often is Purchase	Environmental			
	is Purchase	Affected by Unethical				
	Affected	Firm Actions	Aspects			
How Often is Purchase Affected	1,000	0,929	0,740			
How Often is Purchase Affected by Unethical Firm Actions	0,929	1,000	0,695			
Environmental Aspects	0,740	0,695	1,000			

Summary Item Statistics Buying Behavior

5 41111141 J 10011 S 00015 2 4 J 11 g 2 0 11 0 1 0 1							
	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Inter-Item Correlations	0,788	0,695	0,929	0,234	1,337	0,012	3

Item-Total Statistics Buying Behavior

•					
	Scale Mean if Item Delete d	Scale Varianc e if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlatio n	Squared Multiple Correlatio n	Cronbach' s Alpha if Item Deleted
How Often is Purchase Affected	6,26	7,328	0,911	0,881	0,818
How Often is Purchase Affected by Unethical Firm Actions	6,09	7,439	0,876	0,864	0,849
Environmental Aspects	5,67	9,046	0,730	0,548	0,963

Scale Statistics Buying Behavior

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
9,01	17,162	4,143	3

Case Processing Summary

A	ws	are	ne	22
	. ** *	uι	-	OB

		N	%
	Valid	137	100,0
Cases	Excludeda	0	0,0
	Total	137	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics Awareness

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
0,929	0,929	3

Item Statistics Awareness

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Awareness Level Overall	2,97	1,334	137
Awareness Level of Firm Actions	2,74	1,405	137
Strive Awareness	3,12	1,225	137

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix Awareness

	Awareness Level Overall	Awareness Level of Firm Actions	Strive Awareness
Awareness Level Overall	1,000	0,918	0,736
Awareness Level of Firm Actions	0,918	1,000	0,787
Strive Awareness	0,736	0,787	1,000

Summary Item Statistics Awareness

	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Maximum / Minimum	Variance	N of Items
Inter-Item Correlations	0,813	0,736	0,918	0,182	1,248	0,007	3

Item-Total Statistics Awareness

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Awareness Level Overall	5,85	6,184	0,881	0,843	0,876
Awareness Level of Firm Actions	6,09	5,683	0,918	0,870	0,846
Strive Awareness	5,71	7,194	0,778	0,620	0,957

Scale Statistics Awareness

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
8,82	13,807	3,716	3

Appendix 4

Kolmogorov-Smirnov, test of normality.

Case Processing Summary Attitude

		Cases								
		Valid		Missing		`otal				
	N Percent N		Percent	N	Percent					
Mean Attitude	134	97,8%	3	2,2%	137	100,0%				

Descriptives Attitude

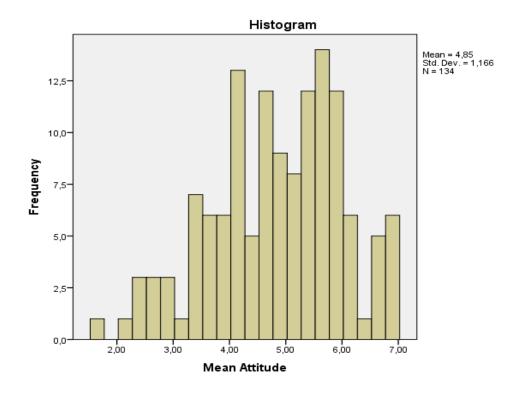
	Descriptives rec	Ituuc		
			Statistic	Std. Error
	Mean		4,8515	0,10076
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	4,6522	
		Upper Bound	5,0508	
	5% Trimmed Mean		4,8769	
	Median		5,0000	
	Variance		1,360	
Mean Attitude	Std. Deviation		1,16638	
	Minimum		1,65	
	Maximum		7,00	
	Range		5,35	
	Interquartile Range		1,61	
	Skewness		-0,345	0,209
	Kurtosis		-0,333	0,416

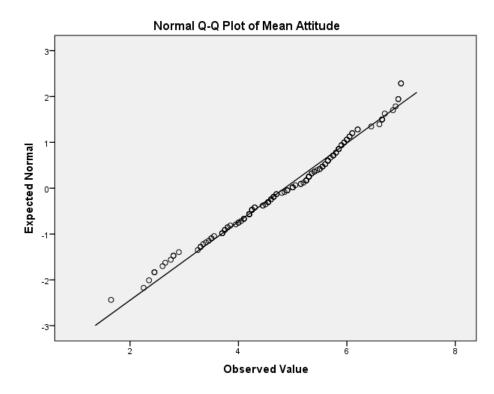
Extreme Values Attitude

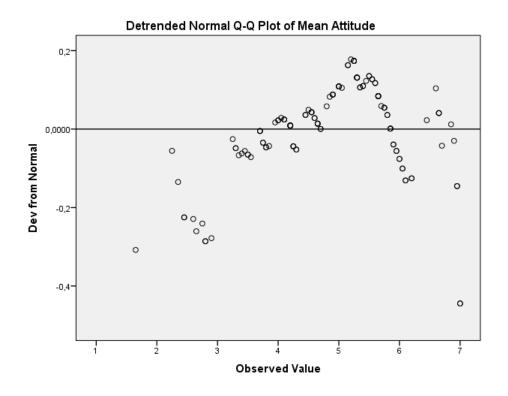
			Case Number	Year of Birth	Value
		1	120	1955	7,00
		2	134	1967	7,00
	Highest	3	68	1988	6,95
		4	133	1974	6,95
Mean Attitude		5	58	1995	6,90
Mean Attitude		1	71	1991	1,65
		2	21	1996	2,25
	Lowest	3	46	1995	2,35
		4	85	1996	2,45
	5	5	39	1995	2,45

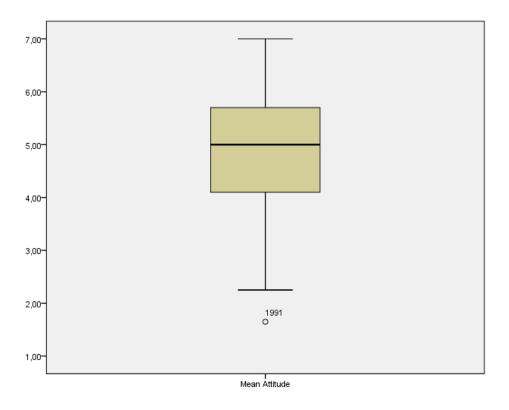
Tests of Normality Attitude

	Kolmo	gorov-S	mirnov ^a	Sha	piro-Wil	lk
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Mean Attitude	0,081	134	0,029	0,981	134	0,059









Case Processing Summary Buying Behavior

	Cases						
	Valid		Missing		Total		
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	
Mean Buying Behavior	137	100,0%	0	0,0%	137	100,0%	

Descriptives Buying Behavior

Descriptives Buying Benavior										
			Statistic	Std. Error						
	Mean		3,0047	0,11797						
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2,7714							
		Upper Bound	3,2380							
	5% Trimmed Mean		2,9326							
	Median		2,6700							
	Variance		1,907							
Mean Buying Behavior	Std. Deviation		1,38080							
Dellavioi	Minimum		1,00							
	Maximum		7,00							
	Range		6,00							
	Interquartile Range		2,00							
	Skewness		0,675	0,207						
	Kurtosis		0,064	0,411						

Extreme Values Buying Behavior

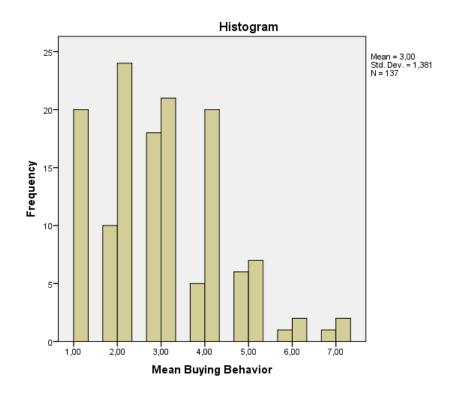
			Case Number	Year of Birth	Value
		1	69	1996	7,00
		2	134	1967	7,00
	Highest	3	120	1955	6,67
		4	135	1956	6,33
M D ' D1 '		5	83	1977	6,00
Mean Buying Behavior		1	136	1986	1,00
		2	118	1971	1,00
	Lowest	3	104	1994	1,00
		4	97	1995	1,00
		5	85	1996	$1,00^{a}$

a. Only a partial list of cases with the value 1,00 are shown in the table of lower extremes.

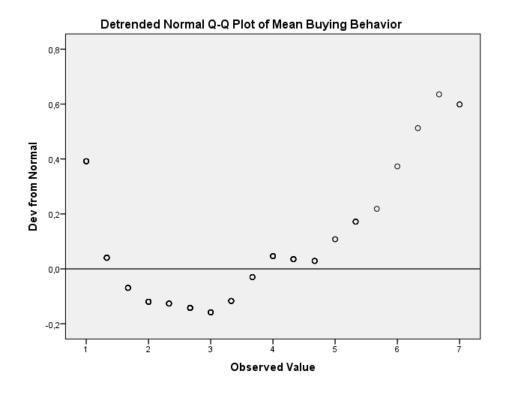
Tests of Normality Buying Behavior

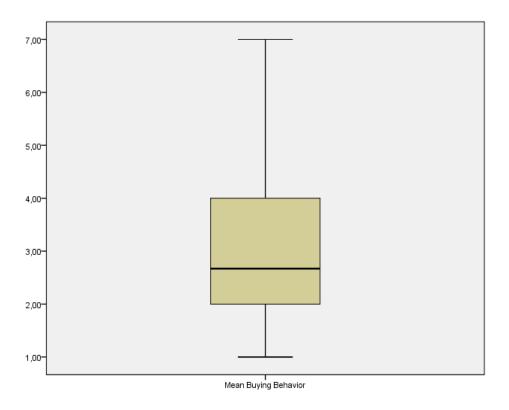
	Kolmog	orov-Sm	irnov ^a	Shapi	iro-Wil	k
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Mean Buying Behavior	0,121	137	0,000	0,951	137	0,000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction









Case Processing Summary Awareness

		Cases				
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Mean Awareness	137	100,0%	0	0,0%	137	100,0%

Descriptives Awareness

	Descriptives rivares	1000		
			Statistic	Std. Error
	Mean		2,9412	0,10586
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2,7318	
	95% Confidence interval for Mean	Upper Bound	3,1505	
	5% Trimmed Mean		2,8891	
	Median		2,6700	
	Variance		1,535	
Mean Awareness	Std. Deviation		1,23912	
	Minimum		1,00	
	Maximum		7,00	
	Range		6,00	
	Interquartile Range		1,67	
	Skewness		0,651	0,207
	Kurtosis		-0,009	0,411

Extreme Values Awareness

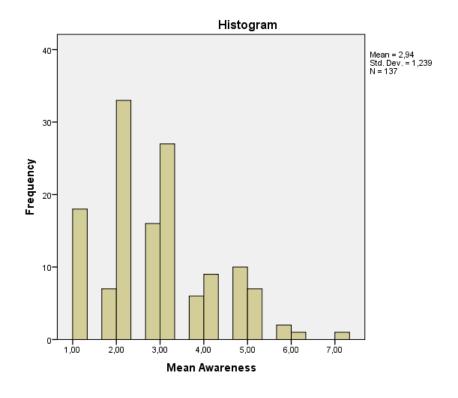
			Case Number	Year of Birth	Value
		1	134	1967	7,00
		2	53	1994	6,00
	Highest	3	48	1995	5,67
	-	4	105	1992	5,67
Mean Awareness		5	52	1994	5,33a
Wican Awareness	'	1	127	1959	1,00
		2	116	1978	1,00
	Lowest	3	114	1983	1,00
		4	109	1963	1,00
		5	95	1996	1,00

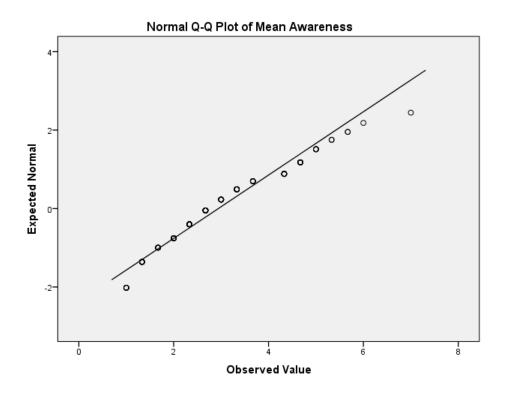
a. Only a partial list of cases with the value 5,33 are shown in the table of upper extremes.

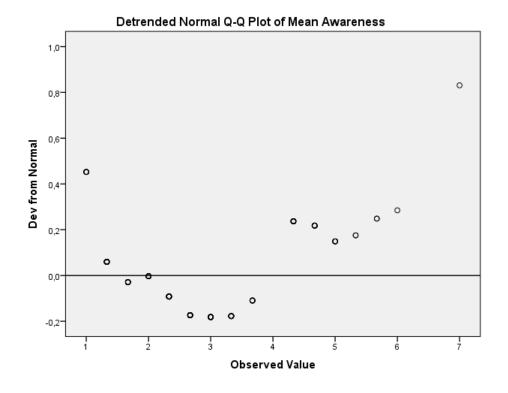
Tests of Normality Awareness

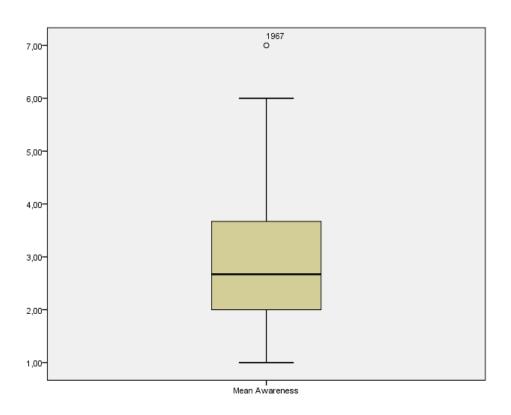
	Kolmog	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			apiro-Wi	lk
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Mean Awareness	0,127	137	0,000	0,949	137	0,000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction









Appendix 5

A Kruskal-Wallis H Test for 3 age groups, followed by a Mann-Whitney U Test for 2 age groups.

Ranks Attitude

3 Age Groups		N	Mean Rank
	1943-1960	12	82,54
Maan Attituda	1961-1981	14	80,25
Mean Attitude	1982-2000	108	64,18
	Total	134	

Test Statistics^{a,b} Attitude

	Mean Attitude
Chi-Square	4,104
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	0,128

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

Ranks Buying Behavior

3 Age Groups		N	Mean Rank
Mean Buying Behavior	1943-1960	13	83,69
	1961-1981	16	85,13
	1982-2000	108	64,84
	Total	137	

Test Statistics^{a,b} Buying Behavior

	Mean Buying Behavior
Chi-Square	5,645
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	0,059

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

Ranks Awareness

3 Age Groups		N	Mean Rank
	1943-1960	13	66,85
Maan Arrananaa	1961-1981	16	81,38
Mean Awareness	1982-2000	108	67,43
	Total	137	

b. Grouping Variable: 3 Age Groups

b. Grouping Variable: 3 Age Groups

Test Statistics^{a,b} Awareness

	Mean Awareness
Chi-Square	1,781
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	0,410

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

Ranks Attitude

2 Age Groups		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
	1943-1981	26	81,31	2114,00
Mean Attitude	1982-2000	108	64,18	6931,00
	Total	134		

Test Statistics^a Attitude

	Mean Attitude
Mann-Whitney U	1045,000
Wilcoxon W	6931,000
Z	-2,020
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,043

a. Grouping Variable: 2 Age Groups

Ranks Buying Behavior

2 Age Groups		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
	1943-1981	29	84,48	2450,00
Mean Buying Behavior	1982-2000	108	64,84	7003,00
	Total	137		

Test Statistics^a Buying Behavior

	Mean Buying Behavior
Mann-Whitney U	1117,000
Wilcoxon W	7003,000
Z	-2,374
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,018

a. Grouping Variable: 2 Age Groups

Ranks Awareness

2 Age Groups		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
	1943-1981	29	74,86	2171,00
Mean Awareness	1982-2000	108	67,43	7282,00
	Total	137		

b. Grouping Variable: 3 Age Groups

Test Statistics^a Awareness

	Mean Awareness
Mann-Whitney U	1396,000
Wilcoxon W	7282,000
Z	-0,900
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	0,368

a. Grouping Variable: 2 Age Groups

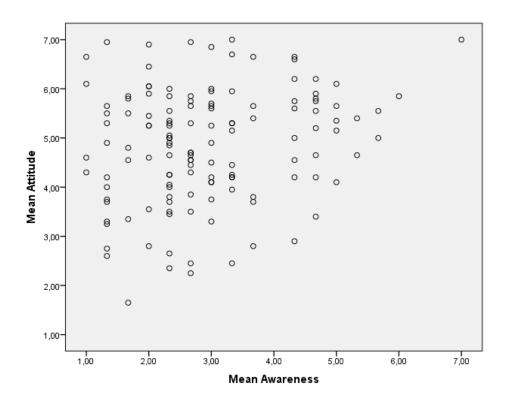
Appendix 6Hypothesis 1 tested with Spearman rho.

Correlations

			Mean Attitude	Mean Awareness
		Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,176*
	Mean Attitude	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,042
Snoormon's rho		N	134	134
Spearman's rho	Mean Awareness	Correlation Coefficient	,176*	1,000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0,042	
		N	134	137

^{*.} Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Scatterplot.



Appendix 7Hypothesis 1 tested with Spearman rho with age groups.

Correlations					
3 Age Grou	ps			Mean Attitude	Mean Awareness
1042 1060		Mean	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	0,207
		Attitude	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,518
	Spearman's		N	12	12
1943-1960	rho	Mean	Correlation Coefficient	0,207	1,000
		Awareness	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,518	
			N	12	13
	Spearman's rho	Mean	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	0,470
		Attitude	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,090
1071 1001			N	14	14
1961-1981		Mean	Correlation Coefficient	0,470	1,000
		Awareness	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,090	
			N	14	16
		Mean	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	0,093
1982-2000		Attitude	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,337
	Spearman's		N	108	108
	rĥo	Mean	Correlation Coefficient	0,093	1,000
		Awareness	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,337	
			N	108	108

Correlations

2 Age Grou	ps			Mean Attitude	Mean Awareness
		Mean	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	0,348
		Attitude	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,081
1042 1001	Spearman's		N	26	26
1943-1981	rho	Mean	Correlation Coefficient	0,348	1,000
		Awareness	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,081	
			N	26	29
		Mean	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	0,093
		Attitude	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,337
1982-2000	Spearman's		N	108	108
1982-2000	rho	Mean	Correlation Coefficient	0,093	1,000
		Awareness	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,337	
			N	108	108

Appendix 8

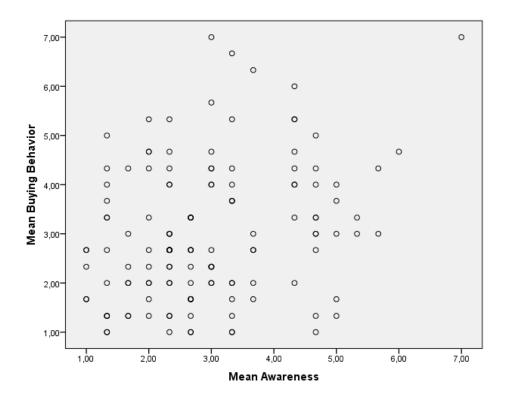
Hypothesis 2 tested with Spearman rho.

Correlations

	 				
			Mean Buying Behavior	Mean Awareness	
Spearman's rho	Mean Buying	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,253**	
	Behavior	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,003	
		N	137	137	
	Mean Awareness	Correlation Coefficient	,253**	1,000	
		Sig. (2-tailed)	0,003		
		N	137	137	

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Scatterplot.



Appendix 9Hypothesis 2 tested with Spearman rho with age groups.

Correlations

		C	of i ciations		
3 Age Grou	ps			Mean Buying	Mean
			Correlation	Behavior 1,000	Awareness ,622*
		Mean Buying Behavior	Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed)	·	0,023
1943-1960	Spearman's		N	13	13
1943-1960	rho	Mean	Correlation Coefficient	,622*	1,000
		Awareness	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,023	
			N	13	13
		Mean Buying	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,547*
		Behavior	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,028
1961-1981	Spearman's		N	16	16
1901-1981	rho	Mean Awareness	Correlation Coefficient	,547*	1,000
			Sig. (2-tailed)	0,028	
			N	16	16
		Mean Buying	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,195*
		Behavior	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,043
1982-2000	Spearman's		N	108	108
	rho	Mean	Correlation Coefficient	,195*	1,000
		Awareness	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,043	
			N	108	108

^{*.} Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

2 Age Grou	ps			Mean Buying	Mean
				Behavior	Awareness
		Mean Buying	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,491**
		Behavior	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,007
1042 1001	Spearman's		N	29	29
1943-1981 spearmar rho	rho	Mean Awareness	Correlation Coefficient	,491**	1,000
			Sig. (2-tailed)	0,007	
			N	29	29
		Mean Buying Behavior	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,195*
			Sig. (2-tailed)		0,043
1092 2000	Spearman's		N	108	108
1982-2000	rho	Mean	Correlation Coefficient	,195*	1,000
		Awareness	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,043	
			N	108	108

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

 $[\]ast.$ Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix 10

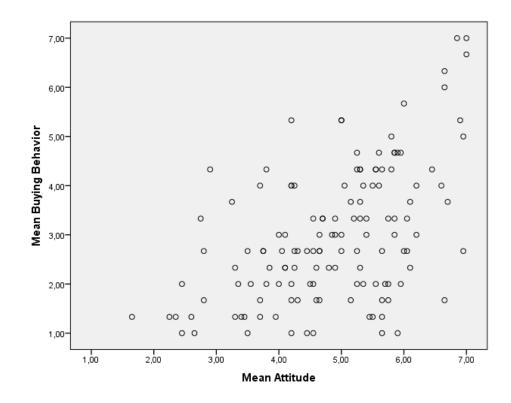
Hypothesis 3 tested with Spearman rho.

Correlations

		Mean Buying Behavior	Mean Attitude	
Mean Buving	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,470**	
Behavior	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000	
	N	137	134	
Mean Attitude	Correlation Coefficient	,470**	1,000	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000		
	N	134	134	
	Mean	Mean Buying Behavior Sig. (2-tailed) N Correlation Mean Attitude Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Buying Behavior Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) 1,000 N 137 Correlation Coefficient Attitude ,470** Attitude Sig. (2-tailed) 0,000	

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Scatterplot.



Appendix 11Hypothesis 3 tested with Spearman rho with age groups.

Correlations

		Col	1 ciations		
3 Age Grou	ps			Mean Buying Behavior	Mean Attitude
		Mean Buying	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	0,496
		Behavior	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,101
1943-1960	Spearman's		N	13	12
1943-1900	rho	3.6	Correlation Coefficient	0,496	1,000
		Mean Attitude	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,101	
			N	12	12
		Mean Buying Behavior	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	0,424
	Spearman's rho		Sig. (2-tailed)		0,131
1961-1981			N	16	14
1901-1981		Mean Attitude	Correlation Coefficient	0,424	1,000
			Sig. (2-tailed)	0,131	
			N	14	14
		Mean Buying	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,456**
		Behavior	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000
1982-2000	Spearman's		N	108	108
1982-2000	rho		Correlation Coefficient	,456**	1,000
		Mean Attitude	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	
			N	108	108

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations

2 Age Grou	ps			Mean Buying Behavior	Mean Attitude
		Mean Buying	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,503**
		Behavior	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,009
1943-1981	Spearman's		N	29	26
1943-1981	rho	Mean	Correlation Coefficient	,503**	1,000
		Attitude	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,009	
			N	26	26
		Mean Buying	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,456**
		Behavior	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,000
1982-2000	Spearman's		N	108	108
1982-2000	rho	Mean	Correlation Coefficient	,456**	1,000
		Attitude	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,000	
			N	108	108

^{**.} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Appendix 12

Survey in English.

Part 1							
We are two Busine nternational Busin n our final semeste	ess and Mark	eting. We	conduct th	is survey a	s a part of o	our Bache	
1. Year of birth? (e.g		•				60:	
2. How environments	ally aware are	you in you	r daily life?				
	Not aware	2	3	4	5	6	Very aware 7
How aware are you:	Ó	Ō	Ó	Ó	Ö	Ó	Ó
3. Do you strive towa	ards becoming	more envi	ronmentally	aware?			
EV.	Very little		8				Very much
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	- 2		- 5	520		- 3	
I strive: 4. How aware are yo	ou of fast fashio	0	0	0	Ó	Ó	0
	ou of fast fashio	0	0	0	5	- 5	Very aware
	Not aware	on firms' C	SR activities	?		0	200
How aware are you: How aware are you:	Not aware 1	on firms' C	SR activities	?	5	0	Very aware 7
How aware are yo How aware are you:	Not aware 1	on firms' C	SR activities	?	5	0	0
How aware are yo How aware are you:	Not aware 1	on firms' C	SR activities	?	5	0	200
I. How aware are yo How aware are you:	Not aware 1 purchase affe Very little	on firms' C:	SR activities 3 of the following a	? 4 Ospects?	5	6	7 O Very much
I. How aware are you: How aware are you: J. How much is your	Not aware 1 purchase affe Very little	on firms' C:	SR activities 3 of the following a	? 4 Ospects?	5	6	7 O Very much
How aware are you: How aware are you: How much is your Price.	Not aware 1 purchase affe Very little	on firms' C:	SR activities 3 of the following a	? 4 Ospects?	5	6	7 Very much
How aware are you: How much is your Price. Convenience.	Not aware 1 purchase affe Very little 1	on firms' C:	SR activities 3 of the following a	9 4 0 spects?	5	6	7 O Very much
4. How aware are you: How aware are you: 5. How much is your Price. Convenience. Brand.	Not aware 1 purchase affer Very little 1	on firms' C:	SR activities 3 of the following a	9 4 0 spects?	5 0	6 0 0	Very much 7
4. How aware are you: How aware are you: 5. How much is your Price. Convenience. Brand. Quality.	Not aware 1 purchase affe Very little 1 O	on firms' C:	SR activities 3 of the following a	9 4 0 spects? 4 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	5 0	6 0 0 0	Very much 7
4. How aware are you: How aware are you: 5. How much is your Price. Convenience. Brand. Quality. CSR attributes.	Not aware 1 purchase affe Very little 1	on firms' Ca	SR activities 3 c following a	9 4 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	5 0 0 0 0	6 0 0 0	Very much 7
4. How aware are you: How aware are you: 5. How much is your Price. Convenience. Brand. Quality. CSR attributes.	Not aware 1 purchase affe Very little 1 O O O Ir purchases at Not often	on firms' C:	SR activities 3 e following a 3 CSR attribut	spects?	5 0 0 0	6 0 0 0 0	Very much 7
4. How aware are you: How aware are you: 5. How much is your Price. Convenience. Brand. Quality.	Not aware 1 purchase affe Very little 1 O O O or purchases affe	on firms' Ca	SR activities 3 c following a	9 4 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	5 0 0 0 0	6 0 0 0	Very much 7

Trion onon a	e your purchases	anootoo n a	ioninous initi	benarior is	iovodiod i		
	Not often						Very often
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Affects:	700		-	· ·	0	_	- 6

Survey Annell & 1	Terman 2016						
art 2.							
Vhen you answer t	he following o	questions	. imagine a	fast fashio	n firm simil	ar to H&M	and MQ.
. How important are	Post Facility 10		98			m .x=.x-c=uus	
	Not important	2	3	4	5	6	Very important 7
That firms work proactive for clean water.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
That firms take care of effluence and waste in an environmental way.	0	0	0	0	0	0	Q
That firms take care of transports in an environmental way.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
That firms use supplier environmental assessment.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
That firms work proactive to reduce emissions.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
. How important are	the following	activities fo	or you?				
	Not important						Very important
That firms use environmental product and service labeling.	0	0	3	0	5	0	0
That firms respect animal welfare.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
That firms use organic materials in the production.	0	0	0	0	O	0	0
That firms use environmental chemical management.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

	Not important 1	2	3	4	5	6	Very importan 7
That firms offer employees a fair wage.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
That firms offer employees fair working conditions.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
That firms offer employees a fair amount of working hours.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
That firms give priority to occupational health and safety.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
That firms offer employees training and education.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
That firms give priority to employee diversity and equal opportunity.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
That firms give priority to equal remuneration for women and men.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
That firms respect human rights.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
That firms work proactive for prevention of child labor.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
That firms care about local communities.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
That firms work proactive for anti- corruption.	0	Ó	0	0	0	0	0
		Thank	you for your pa	rticipation.			
		jonas.	any questions annell0151@s erman0001@s	tud.hkr.se			

Appendix 13

Survey in Swedish.

Del 1							
Vi är två studenter Företagande och M med vår kandidatup behandlas konfider 1. Vilket år är du föd	larknadsförin ppsats och di ntiellt.	g vid Hög na svar är	skolan Krist	tianstad. Vi	gör en und	lersökning	j i sambano
2. Hur miljömedveter	n är du i varda	gen?					
•	Inte medveten 1	2	3	4	5	6	Mycket medveten 7
Hur medveten är du:	Ó	0	0	0	0	0	0
I. Hur medveten är o	du om klädföre Inte medveten 1	tags hállba	arhetsarbete 3	?	5	6	Mycket medveten 7
Hur medveten är du:	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Hur medveten är du: 5. Hur mycket påverl	kas ditt köp av Väldigt lite 1	följande fa	36	4	5	6	Väldigt mycket 7
	Väldigt lite		aktorer?	4	5	6	mycket
5. Hur mycket påverl	Väldigt lite		aktorer?	4			mycket 7
5. Hur mycket påverl Pris.	Väldigt lite	2	aktorer?	4 0 0 0	0		mycket 7
5. Hur mycket påverl Pris. Bekvämlighet.	Väldigt lite	2	aktorer?	4 0 0 0	0		mycket 7

	Väldigt sällan 1	2	3	4	5	6	Väldigt ofta 7
Påverkas:	Ö	Ó	0	0	Ö	0	0
7. Hur ofta påve	rkas ditt köp om d	etiskt betee	nde uppdag	as hos ett fö	iretag?		
7. Hur ofta påve	erkas ditt köp om o Väldigt sällan			as hos ett fö	iretag?		Väldigt ofta
7. Hur ofta påve			nde uppdag	as hos ett fö	iretag?	6	Väldigt ofta 7

Enkät Annell &	Terman 2016						
Del 2.							
När du besvarar f			lig ett klädf	öretag likna	ande H&M o	ch MQ.	
* 8. Hur viktiga är fö	ljande aktiviteter Inte viktigt 1	för dig?	3	4	5	6	Väldigt viktigt 7
Att företag aktivt arbo för rent vatten.		0	Ô	0	Ô	0	0
Att företag tar ansvar sitt avfall på ett miljövänligt sätt.	för O	0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag tar ansvar sin transport på ett miljövänligt sätt.	för O	0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag använder av miljövänliga och etiska leverantörer.	sig O	0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag tar ansvar sina uttsläpp.	för 🔾	0	0	0	0	0	0
* 9. Hur viktigt är följ	ande aktiviteter	för dig?					
	Inte viktigt 1	2	3	4	5	6	Väldigt viktigt 7
Att företag använder av miljövänliga förpackningar.	sig	0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag respektera djurens rätt.	ar 🔘	0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag använder av ekologiska materia sin produktion.		0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag använder av miljövänlig kemikaliehantering.	sig	0	0	0	0	0	0

	Inte viktigt		1000	22	227	20	Väldigt viktig
*************	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Att företag erbjuder sina anställda en rättvis lön.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag erbjuder sina anställda rättvisa arbetsförhållanden.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag erbjuder sina anställda ett rimligt antal arbetstimmar under en dag.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag erbjuder sina anställda en hälsosam och säker arbetsmiljö.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag erbjuder sina anställda möjlighet till träning och utbildning.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag erbjuder sina anställda mångfald och lika förutsättningar.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag behandlar kvinnor och män likvärdigt.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag värnar om mänskliga rättigheter.	0	0	0	0	0	\circ	0
Att företag aktivt arbetar för förhindrande av barnarbete.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag värnar om dem lokala samhällen de är verksamma vid.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Att företag aktivt arbetar för förhindrade av korruption.	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
		Tac	ck för din medv	erkan.			
		jonas.	gra frågor, hör a annell0151@s erman0001@st	tud.hkr.se			

Appendix 14

Descriptive Statistics for all Variables.

	Z	Minimum	Minimum Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	100	Skewness	Ku	Kurtosis
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic Std. Error	18.50	Statistic Std. Error
Year of Birth	137	1950	1996	1987,58	11,975	-1,519	0,207	0,949	0,411
Awareness Level Overall	137	1	7	2,97	1,334	0,601	0,207	-0,183	0,411
Awareness Level of Firm Actions	137	1	1	2,74	1,405	0,705	0,207	-0,210	0,411
Strive Awareness	137	1	7	3,12	1,225	0,382	0,207	0,007	0,411
Price	137	-	7	5,28	1,408	-0,795	0,207	0,324	0,411
Convenience	137	1	7	5,31	1,359	-1,127	0,207	1,309	0,411
Brand	137	1	7	3,97	1,649	-0,292	0,207	-0,662	0,411
Quality	137	33	7	5,78	896'0	-0,385	0,207	-0,372	0,411
Environmental Aspects	137	1	7	3,34	1,401	0,246	0,207	-0,305	0,411
How Often is Purchase Affected	137	1	7	2,75	1,523	0,720	0,207	-0,045	0,411
How Often is Purchase Affected by Unethical Firm Actions	137	-	7	2,92	1,539	0,726	0,207	-0,053	0,411
Water	134	-	7	3,67	1,755	0,175	0,209	-0,852	0,416
Effluence and Waste	134	-	7	4,39	1,785	-0,192	0,209	-0,872	0,416
Transport	134	-	7	4,21	1,760	-0,072	0,209	-0,932	0,416
Supplier Environmental Assessment	134	1	7	4,21	1,756	-0,020	0,209	-0,938	0,416
Emission	134	1	7	4,54	1,792	-0,356	0,209	-0,907	0,416
Product and Service Labeling	134	1	7	3,95	1,714	-0,054	0,209	-0,876	0,416
Animal Welfare	134	1	7	5,28	1,652	-0,868	0,209	-0,083	0,416
Organic Materials	134	-	7	3,62	1,720	0,392	0,209	-0,731	0,416
Chemical Management	134	-	7	4,46	1,874	-0,320	0,209	-0,994	0,416
Wage	134	1	_	5,10	1,536	-0,633	0,209	-0,160	0,416
Working Conditions	134	-	7	5,39	1,486	-0,930	0,209	0,500	0,416
Working Hours	134	1	7	5,19	1,595	-0,864	0,209	0,173	0,416
Occupational Health and Safety	134	1	7	5,46	1,449	-0,790	0,209	0,095	0,416
Training and Education	134	1	7	4,54	1,715	-0,269	0,209	-0,788	0,416
Diversity and Equal Opportunity	134	1	7	4,96	1,707	-0,500	0,209	-0,614	0,416
Equal Remuneration for Women and Men	134	-	7	5,99	1,409	-1,644	0,209	2,322	0,416
Human Rights	134	-	7	5,92	1,441	-1,569	0,209	2,129	0,416
Child Labor	134		7	6,07	1,383	-1,680	0,209	2,342	0,416
Local Communities	134	-	7	5,05	1,533	989'0-	0,209	-0,023	0,416
Anti-Corruption	134	1	7	5,05	1,770	609'0-	0,209	-0,742	0,416
Valid N (listwise)	134								